



**The Corporate Identity, Architecture, and Identification**

**Triad: Theoretical Insights**

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**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of**

**Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing**

**Brunel University 2015**

## **DEDICATION**

This doctoral research is dedicated to wonderful parents, my father, Dr. Mohammad Foroud Foroudi, my mother, Flora Mahdavi, and my sister, Dr Pantea Foroudi, with love and gratitude.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I first and foremost the name of the Nameless One, God of Love, the almighty, who made me capable to complete in the course of this doctoral thesis.

I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my first supervisor, Professor John Martin Thomas Balmer without whom I would not have been able to complete this mammoth task. His valuable guidance, motivational support and encouragement were invaluable to me. Specifically, in the last few months of the PhD, when I needed the impetus to finish the study, I doubt that without Professor John Balmer's support it would have been possible for to me to complete the PhD in time. I feel fortunate and proud to be one of his students and work under his auspicious supervision. I would also like to thank my second supervisor, Dr. Weifeng Chen, whose valuable guidance, support, and encouragement were crucial during this journey. Many thanks to my supervisors for their guidance, who created my professional and personal growth. I was very fortunate to be one of their students and to work under their supervision. They provided me with valuable assistance. A hearty thanks to Professor John Balmer and Dr. Weifeng Chen for the great deal of interest they took in reading, discussing and giving feedback on all aspects of my thesis.

My special thanks to Dave Snowden, who was very keen to help me in collecting the data and dedicated his time for the completion of this work. Also, a special thanks to Brunel Business School and my colleagues who supported me on my PhD journey.

I would like to express gratitude to my family for sticking by me in the days and nights that it took to finish this work. I remember them in my prayers every day; I feel their love in the expectation that the work will one day be concluded. Specifically, my father, my mother, grandmother and sister's prayers, and their anxiety about my PhD completion, their love and encouragement at the time when I thought I would not be able to make it, are unforgettable assets for me. They never gave up on me and Inshallah; I will never give them all up.

I thank you all!!

## **AUTHOR'S DECLARATION**

I, Mohammad Mahdi Foroudi, declare that the ideas, research work, analyses and conclusions reported in my PhD thesis "*The Corporate Identity, Architecture, and Identification Triad: Theoretical Insights*" are entirely my effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. Also, I certify that this thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

## ABSTRACT

This thesis informed by a single case study and adopting a multi-internal stakeholder perspective of a middle-ranked and London-based Business School, constitutes an explanatory investigation of the corporate identity, architecture, identification triad and their antecedents. The dissertation draws on social identity and attribution theories. This doctoral research focuses on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. Based on the multi-disciplinary approach, the research generated four empirical insights; (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on the Business School architecture on five dimensions.

This study resulted in the introduction of a validated conceptual framework and the resultant theoretical framework details the corporate identity, architecture and identification dynamic as it pertains to a middle ranking Business School.

The research is significant in that although corporate identity, architecture, and identification have been acknowledged as a significant area of research in marketing, corporate identity and design literatures, their relationships have remained vague. Extant studies lack a firm theoretical underpinning. As such, this thesis makes a theoretical contribution to our understanding of the corporate identity, architecture, and identification triad.

A survey-based single case study research design marshalling explanatory research involving data collection comprised semi-structured interviews, focus groups and a collection of visual data in the preliminary stage of this research. This along with a review of the literature informed the conceptual framework. The conceptual framework was examined via the insights from 309 questionnaires. Structural equation modelling with AMOS was conducted to again insight into the various influences and relationships in relation to the corporate identity, architecture and identification triad.

Most of the hypotheses underpinning the conceptual framework were confirmed apart from 1 which was an unexpected relationship between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts/decor and 3 unexpected relationships between the philosophy, mission and value and architecture components.

Management implications from this research are as follows: (i) corporate identity should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the identity elements (company's corporate an entity's visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission and value); (ii) an entity's architecture should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with other visual identity elements (decor and artifacts/symbolic artifacts, spatial layout and functionality/physical structure, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli); (iii) corporate identity/architecture gap should be constantly and carefully managed; (iv) architecture/identification (emotional attachment) gap should be regularly monitored. Moreover, this thesis provides policy/management recommendations to multiple substantive areas in higher education in the UK. In other words, a clear understanding of the dimensions of the relevant concepts can assist managers in policy development to develop a coherent policy for managing favourable corporate identity and architecture which can influence stakeholders' identification. In addition, the findings of this study may support and shape business policy.

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## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. INTRODUCTION**

This doctoral study aims to theoretically investigate architecture as an outcome and its relationship to the corporate identity and multiple-internal stakeholders' identification triad in a London-based middle-ranked Business School in the UK.

Architecture is an art and buildings are significant pieces of symbolism. It has long been recognised as a physical representation of a company's corporate identity (Balmer, 2005; Becker, 1981; Davis, 1984) and plays a vital role in the way companies present themselves, both to internal and to external stakeholders (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005).

How architecture and work environments affect multiple internal-stakeholders' perception and behaviour has long fascinated managers and researchers. A variety of bodies of literature from design, marketing and psychology have provided empirical evidence that architecture and physical settings influence human perception, attitudes, and behaviours (Brennan et al., 2002; Cohen, 2007; Danielson and Bodin, 2008; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McElroy and Morrow, 2010). Within this broad paradigm, the influence of architecture and office settings on internal-stakeholders' perception and, in particular the effects of offices that minimise physical barriers between multiple internal-stakeholders' (open-plan designs), has generated a fair amount of attention. The effects of design can enhance the stakeholders' identification (Knight and Haslam, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006) and influence stakeholders' satisfaction with working conditions (e.g. Boyce, 1974; Canty, 1977; Ives and Ferdinands, 1974; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Riland and Falk, 1972; Sundstrom et al., 1980). In order to compete in a changing and dynamic environment, organisations look for new sources of competitive advantage to offer their customers or stakeholders. Thus, practitioners and researchers need to identify as much as

possible with the relationships between architecture, corporate identity, and identify with multiple internal-stakeholders.

This introductory chapter places this thesis in context by providing a brief outline of the overall study. This chapter starts by introducing the background of the research in Section 1.2. Section 1.3 states the research problem and identifies the gaps in the literature. Section 1.4 discusses the objectives of the study and identifies the research questions. Section 1.5 briefly discusses the general aspects of research methodology. Section 1.6 describes the significance of the study. Finally Section 1.7 introduces the structure of the study.

## **1.2 THE BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH**

In recent years, research in the architecture and corporate identity areas has demonstrated that developing a favourable architecture can help customers to focus on the corporation, what it stands for, what it communicates, delivers, and it allows the organisation to send a more reliable message, which can be transmitted to stakeholders and improve identification with organisations. Architecture lies at the heart of corporate identity (Balmer, 2005). Modern architecture is an integration of industry, art and contemporary social needs (Vischer, 2007).

Architecture involves buildings that are designed to express an idea or an emotion of a company's purpose, position in time, and intention of its creators (Vischer, 2007). Architectural design is defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacturer of artefacts to create an image of corporate identity (Alessandri, 2001). Academic studies have focused on the design aspect of architecture and have neglected the strategic aspects. Architectural design helps transcend barriers due to the reason of its visual character. Organisations spend substantial amounts of money on the construction of an effective building (Ellis and Duffy, 1980). Effective modern architecture is an integration of industry, art and new social needs that is designed to convey an idea or an emotion about a company's purpose, its position in time, and its creators (Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006). The concept of architecture is not only related to the physical, but also to the social and cultural aspects of buildings (Saleh, 1998). Architecture is technical and sociological (Alessandri, 2001). Theorists agree that well-designed architecture should be recognised and have a positive effect.

Due to intensive marketplace competition, everything an organisation does should confirm the company's corporate identity (e.g. Borgerson et al., 2009; Olins, 1995). Corporate identity relates to the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) by summarising the mission, purpose, positioning (Baker and Balmer, 1997, p. 366), activity (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1998, Olins, 1990; Van Riel, 1997), vision (Abratt, 1989; Dowling, 1993; Hatch and Schultz, 1997) to all its audiences (Van Riel, 1995). Moreover, corporate identity is expressed in the communications of the organisation (Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000). Furthermore, corporate visual identity (CVI) is arguably the most tangible facet of corporate identity, which reflects the company culture and values and that creates physical recognition for the organisation (Balmer, 1991; Carter 1982; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000; Morison, 1997; Stuart, 1999; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

Corporate identity requires visibility, tangibility, and consistency with other aspects of corporate identity (Balmer and Gray, 1999) that can be dictated by their aesthetic attractiveness. However, the aesthetic aspect of architecture is essential for organisations, since it expresses an increase in desire among corporate managers to promote the physical expression of the building as a means of enhancing corporate image and identification (Becker and Steele, 1995). The structure and design of its buildings influences the image of the organisation and creates a feeling of identification among stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998).

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Over the past several decades, managers have played a fundamental role in creating and managing architecture such as physical settings to express a company's corporate identity and promote the physical expression of the building as a means of building corporate image and stakeholders' identification (Becker and Steele, 1995), and also to influence internal and external stakeholders' identification with the organisation. As discussed above, in a service context, architecture is likely to play an integral role in the customers', employees', and academics' behaviours and perception (Han and Ryu, 2009; Sundstrom and Sundstrom,



1986). The marketing literature has no systematic study of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. Elsbach (2003) and Rooney (2010) state that the relationship between corporate identity and architecture has not been tested and validated. Therefore, empirical research is required to clarify the relationships between architecture, corporate identity and identification.

Architecture and physical environment are significant parts of corporate identity (Olins, 1995; Melewar et al., 2006) and can affect the decision-making processes (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). For example, good architecture is likely to promote a long-term favourable corporate reputation. As a consequence, by creating a favourable corporate image, it can be assumed that the set of internal and external communicational properties of architecture will affect an individual's understanding and interpretation of it (Bitner, 1992). Studies have shown the complex relationship between office design, the individual employee and customer attitudes and behaviours. Additionally, time spent in the office can be crucial to creative work/study that builds on face-to-face meetings and interactions with idea-inducing artifacts (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). Architecture and physical environment can have an effect on stakeholders' emotional responses and feeling towards the organisation, where identification developed beyond the design ethos and sets of individual relationships with employees to identification with the practices as an organisation such as corporate branding embodied in the design approach and reputation (Kioussi, 2008). In addition, brands are used as tactical instruments which have a focus on the organisation's products (Urde, 1997, p. 91).

Architecture is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company (Jun and Lee, 2007) and is one of the key elements of corporate visual identity (He and Balmer, 2005; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2006; Van den Bosch et al., 2006). Architecture is a sign (Olins, 1989) which can be decisive in facilitating employee and consumer-company identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010). Architecture can be defined as the science of designing and constructing a building, which incorporates an aesthetic design (Conway and Roenisch, 1994, p. 21). According to Wasseman et al. (2000) architecture is the designing and construction of buildings, which offer human habitation as well as enabling human affairs (p. 36). However, despite the popularity of the concept of architecture, there exists no definite and widely agreed definition of architecture (Unwin, 2009, p. 27) and there is a lack of empirical research into how architecture might be defined.

Existing literature has focused on studies exploring the concept of modern architecture as an integration of industry, art and idea built around the concept of social needs. For instance, modern office buildings are complex and depend on sophisticated technology (Vischer, 2007). Modern design is focused primarily on the functionality of ergonomic design elements and employees are moved from private, enclosed offices to cubicle workspaces (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612). Architecture is not just about buildings, but it involves buildings, which are ordered or controlled to communicate an idea or an emotion about a company's purpose, its position in time, and about its creators (Vischer, 2007). However, there is an absence of research on consumer and employee perception of contemporary changes in the office environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612).

One of the most important concerns is the fact that research in architecture has been driven largely by the architectural or environmental psychology disciplines (Allen et al., 2004; Davis, 2010; Turner and Myerson, 1998) rather than from the marketing perspective. There is clearly a need for more empirical exploration in relation to the management of architecture and physical settings in order to create an explanatory model and theory to validate a case study's findings, in addition to testing associated propositions more extensively from a multi-disciplinary approach.

#### **1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS**

This research aspires to (i) explore the concept of the corporate identity and its dimensions; (ii) explore the concept of the architecture and its dimensions; (iii) develop and empirically assess a conceptual framework concerning the relationships between favourable corporate identity, architecture, and identification; (iv) investigate the impact of the corporate identity on architecture; (v) investigate the impact of architecture on identification; (vi) investigate the impact of the corporate identity on identification; and (vii) investigates the impact of the corporate identity elements on architectural elements. Based on the six research objectives, the specific research questions are presented as: (i) what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture? (ii) What is the relationship between corporate identity and identification? (iii) What is the relationship between architecture and identification? and (iv) what is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architectural dimensions? To further exhibit how the study's objectives are met by the current research.

## **1.5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The main objective of this study is to theoretically investigate architecture (the focal construct) and, its relationship to corporate identity (as antecedent) and multiple internal-stakeholders' identification (as an outcome) in a service setting – namely a middle-ranking London-based Business School by relying on a single case. To accomplish the aims of this research, this empirical study employs an explanatory survey-based single case study with a dominant quantitative component concerning a main survey. Semi-structured interviews and focus groups employed in the initial phase of the study to collect information and re-development of the research measurement scales by embarking on a questionnaire in the second phase of the research (Chisnall, 1991; Churchill, 1979; Connel and Lowe, 1997).

Methodologically, this study utilises the explanatory survey-based case study because it is an aspect of theory testing, and aims to establish how and why the key research variables are related. The goals of explanatory research are (i) to investigate the nature and degree of association between the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification as the main variables, (ii) decide if additional variables are needed to provide a more accurate description of the phenomenon, and (iii) offer theoretical explanations of observed relationships. In addition, it addresses the issue of causality between variables (Snow and Thomas, 2001). As a result, new concepts of the relationships between the research constructs are defined and developed; also these support the theory and the case for further research.

After reviewing the related literature, this research takes a predominantly quantitative approach, while relying on some qualitative input from fifteen exploratory interviews and follow-up from six focus groups with experts and academics. The research commenced with a qualitative research phase in order to: (i) attain a more profound understanding of the topic, (ii) refine and revise the preliminary research model and hypotheses, (iii) purify measures for the questionnaire, and iv) increase the validity of the findings as well as the richness of the conclusion (Baker, 1994; Churchill, 1979; Deshpande, 1983; Saunders et al., 2007). Within the literature there are examples where the primary mode of data collection in a single case study has used a quantitative methodology (Powell and Butterfield 1997; Marin and de Maya, 2013).

The second phase of the research, a self-administered questionnaire to measure each of the constructs of the research was developed on the basis of the reviewed related literature and the qualitative study to quantify, supplement and complement the first phase. The quantitative method (i.e. a positivist paradigm) was employed to examine the proposed hypotheses and their causal relationships and the scale validation. The research scale measurements were refined on the basis of the qualitative and quantitative judgment of the questionnaire. Content/face validity was examined by a number of academics to provide an indication of the adequacy of the questionnaire (DeVellis, 2003) and to ensure that the items were representative of the scale's domain (De Vaus, 2002; DeVellis, 2003). Based on the results of the content/face adequacy assessment, measurement items were modified and submitted to a scale refinement step through the actual administration of the questionnaire. Questionnaires containing all the possible items were distributed to 309 UK university multi-internal stakeholders. The questionnaire with seven point Likert scale responses was developed to measure the research constructs. Subjects were asked to rate their agreement with each item on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.

The contextual and relational nature of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification are mutually related, therefore, undertaking one case study of a middle-ranked London-based Business School is essential to discover the relationships between the research constructs. Though, the research concepts from corporate identity do not consider industry-wide identity, for this reason, it was felt to be necessary to study corporate identity, architecture, and the identification triad. For this doctoral thesis, Brunel Business School (BBS) as a higher education sector institution was considered adequate for this research because it is the home to over 2,200 students and is ranked in the top 20 Best Business Schools in UK (according to the Financial Times)<sup>1</sup> and is ranked in the top 75 European Business Schools<sup>2</sup>. Brunel Business School is one of the largest schools at Brunel University, London; it is vibrant, innovative, forward-looking and with ambitious plans for the future (brunel.ac.uk/bbs, 2014). Brunel Business School has won the Times Higher Education Awards Business School of the Year 2013 (brunel.ac.uk, 2014). Furthermore, it is ranked at number 8 in the world for career prospects and is among the top ten management

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.accessmba.com/mba-schools/brunel-business-school/index.html>

<sup>2</sup> <http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/brunel-university>

programmes in the UK (according to the Financial Times)<sup>1</sup>. In addition, BBS would constitute a key case study for in-depth organisational analysis as it has a leading role in the UK education sector and has a distinctive and modern building. Using Yin (2009), there are three reasons why the single case study is appropriate in terms of theory development. (i) First rationale of the case study represents a unique case. (ii) Second rationale for a single case study is to represent a critical case in testing a well-formulated theory by means of a clear set of propositions. As such, this case study confirms and extends social identity and attribution theory. As therefore, the case study makes a significant contribution to knowledge and theory building. (iii) Third rationale of the case study is a revelatory case; where the observer has access to a phenomenon that was previously inaccessible. In addition, a case study helps to understand firm social phenomena (Yin, 2009, p. 61).

**Unique case** - This research represents a unique case of Brunel Business School (BBS) as a middle-ranked London-based Business School, which is the focus of this PhD thesis. BBS tends to be ahead of other academic schools regarding multiple-internal stakeholders. Besides, the Business School was chosen because it was felt that, in a highly competitive environment, they, like other service providers, would work to develop and protect their identity and brand by communicating the messages consistently (Punjaisri and Willson, 2007). Thus, the multiple-internal stakeholders of the School are a group of respondents who have experience in receiving internal messages in their school and are representative of internal stakeholders in providing information about different aspects of the concepts in the study. This study is the first systematic research to have conceptualised and operationalised the relationship between the concepts of the corporate identity/architecture/identification triad within a Business School. This assessment is expected to be of value in advancing current knowledge by offering a theoretical contribution to the literature.

**Critical case** - This case study confirms and extends social identity and attribution theory by means of a clear set of propositions. The researcher has developed a conceptual framework, based on social identity and attribution theory. Based on social identity theory, this study explains the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993), sense of place (Stedman, 2002; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003), and identification with a place (Marin and de Maya, 2013; Uzzel et al., 2002), the organisation's stakeholders define themselves in

relation to their own work-places/study (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996). In addition, attribution theory confirms how people understand and make sense of their world (Graham, 1991; Jones et al., 1972; Weiner). As a result, this case study makes a noteworthy contribution to knowledge and theory building.

**Revelatory case** - This case study is a revelatory case as the conclusions from this thesis was shed light on the phenomena of corporate identity/architecture/identification triad, although, to a lesser degree, insights into part of a middle-ranked British institution: Brunel Business School. Brunel Business School was therefore chosen as a context for this study because of the fact that it provides a vast array of opportunities for internal-stakeholders in relation to architectural interaction. The likelihood of revelatory case considered for three main reasons: i) it was possible to get some access to the school and the building when it was under construction from the first day and the access was with no limitation to the top management team of the school, which increased the credibility of this study; ii) access to all the weekly meetings and records of all the meetings, which were held between designers and the school's managers; and iii) the personal relationship between the researcher and the researcher's supervisor with the site managers and the school manager were also a facilitator.

The UK is a popular international destination for students (Larsen and Vincent-Lancrin, 2002) and has been well established in history of higher education and international reputation (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007). According to Bolsmann and Miller (2008) the higher education industry, which was identified by the government as a strategic sector to attract more foreign students. English language is an importance competitive advantage and the UK is one of the main exporters of higher education services in the world (Bolsmann and Miller, 2008, p. 284-286). For two decades or so, the provision of education for international students has emerged as a prominent growth area in the service sector. By 1997, British exports of education and training accounted for over 9 billion pounds (Bennell and Pearce, 2003) and the growth increased from 2.5 percent between 1999 and 2000 to 5 percent between 2001 and 2002 (See Chapter IV, Research Setting Section).

Descriptive statistics for the research sample were carried out employing the statistical package for social science (SPSS). Following Churchill's (1979) recommendations,

exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a fundamental technique and coefficient alpha, were employed in the early stages of this research for scale validity (Aaker, 1997) to help reduce the numbers of observed research indicators (Chandon et al., 1997; Hair et al., 2006). In addition, structural equation modeling (SEM) as a multivariate data analysis technique was used as the fundamental approach for theory testing in marketing (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and validates the conceptual framework and tests the hypothesised relationships among latent variables. To test the measurement model and the hypotheses of this thesis, structural equation modeling (SEM) using Analysis of Moment Structure (Amos) 18.0 was performed (See Chapter IV).

## **1.6. STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE**

This PhD research facilitates better understanding of the concept of architecture and its antecedents and consequences from the multi-internal stakeholders' perspective. The findings of the study extend to the issue of architectural management. In addition, the research makes a considerable contribution to academic, managerial, and policy makers (See full details of this section in Chapter VII, implications of research findings).

The empirical results illustrated not only extend earlier results in architecture-related research but also contribute to research on architecture, corporate identity, marketing, corporate visual identity, visual communication, and design literature. This study advances the existing view of architectural formation and its relationship to corporate identity and identification as a main outcome. Bridging the gaps found in the literature is the key contribution of this research, i.e. the main four sub questions are: (Q1) what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture? (Q2) what is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?, (Q3) what is the relationship between architecture and identification?, and (Q4) what is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions? The gaps in the literature are summarised as follows:

- i) There is an absence of research on employees and open offices phenomena within the more modern office environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 615).
- ii) There is lack of empirical research into how architecture might be defined (Unwin, 2009).

- iii) Little is known about contemporary changes in office environments (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612).
- iv) There is a lack of empirical research on how the introduction of new or re-designed offices may be successfully managed (Davis, 2010, p. 221).
- v) Little is known about the connections between place and the formation of these identities or how place influences responses to organisational change (Rooney, 2010).
- vi) There is little research into the different levels of importance among the components of the physical environment in predicting outcome variables (Han and Ryu, 2009).
- vii) Almost no research has examined how employees perceive specific dimensions of workplace identity in work environments that limit the display of personal identity markers (Elsbach, 2003, p. 623).
- viii) The marketing literature has no systematic study on the relationship between corporate identity, architecture and identification.
- ix) There is a lack of explanatory models and theory building studies in the area of architecture.
- x) The assumption of Elsbach (2003) and Rooney, (2010) that there is a relationship between corporate identity and architecture has not been tested and validated yet.

This research demonstrates the relevant mechanisms underlying the associations between corporate identity, architecture, and identification in the UK context. This doctoral study, therefore, advances current knowledge about architecture by extending findings in previous studies. For instance, several scholars (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) have identified the strong relationship between corporate identity and architecture, but they have not investigated this relationship. During the course of this study, some authors (Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Laing, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) examined architecture and the physical environment; however, the studies were not conducted in relation to corporate identity and identification. Researchers' results (Davis, 2010; Elsbach, 2003; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Rooney, 2010) contribute to filling the gap in existing theory in this field of



study. The current research extends past studies by investigating the relationship between corporate identity, architecture and identification constructs.

The study expands previous understanding regarding the interplay between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification and, therefore, advances current knowledge by adding alternative insights into service setting and helps to validate and refine the findings in the literature in this field. This research is the first systematic empirical work to incorporate the concepts through a synthesis of the architecture, corporate identity, identification, corporate visual identity and the literature on design to portray the corporate identity/architecture/identification interplay in a more holistic manner. The study is also able to help redefine and rekindle research into the area of architecture. Moreover, this research adds to the core corporate identity, marketing and design literature, and helps to develop and validate the architecture scale by testing the research model. In addition to the research scale measurement, this study employed structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine the relationships between the constructs and validate the study's conceptual model. The current research, thus, contributes to the extension and strengthening of the understanding of architecture in order to strengthen the relationship between architecture, its elements and corporate identity and its elements and identification as a main consequence.

Additionally, this research contributes to current understanding about the operationalisation of corporate identity, architecture and identification construct in the process of connecting concepts to observations from the perspective of stakeholders. The theoretical contribution offers a threefold academic contribution: theory extension by empirical testing, verification of the conceptualisation by measurement of the constructs, and theory testing and generalisation.

In terms of methodology, this research used a multi-disciplinary approach to the architectural concept as a main contribution of this study to provide a holistic perspective of the domain of corporate identity literature (e.g. Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Due to the lack of understanding of the subject of architecture from a multi-disciplinary approach made pluralistic study appropriate, where qualitative methods are used in conjunction with quantitative methods, in order to inspect a domain that is unknown or has received relatively little attention to date (Deshpande, 1983). The multi-disciplinary approach was adopted in two phases: (i) a qualitative approach and (ii) a self-administered questionnaire to ensure

more comprehensive data collection procedures, and then, structural equation modeling as a sophisticated data analysis technique was performed.

Based on the findings, most of the hypotheses underpinning the conceptual framework were confirmed. Apart from one, an unexpected relationship was found between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts/decor and three unexpected relationships between philosophy, mission and value and architectural components.

The contribution is to grasp a broader view of marketing as well as corporate identity by examining the incorporation of the architecture, corporate identity, and identification from the multi-internal stakeholders' perspective. So far, this is one of the first studies to empirically validate the assumption made by researchers (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Elsbach, 2003; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Rooney, 2010; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) that the architecture has an impact on corporate identity and identification. This study is able to contribute to marketing theory. Architecture has received the attention of marketing scholars (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005).

In terms of managerial implications, the findings of this study have a number of implications for managers. This study suggests that managers should understand that architecture is a complex phenomenon which is determined by multiple factors including physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts. Management implications from this research are: (i) corporate identity should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the identity elements (company's corporate an entity's visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission and value); (ii) an entity's architecture should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with other visual identity elements (decor and artifacts/symbolic artifacts, spatial layout and functionality/physical structure, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli); (iii) the corporate identity/architecture gap should be constantly and carefully managed; (iv) the architecture/identification (emotional attachment) gap should be regularly monitored. Moreover, the thesis provides policy recommendations for higher education in UK. In addition, the findings of this study may support and shape business policy.

## 1.7. ORGANISATION OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher presents this thesis in seven chapters, as follows:

**CHAPTER I: Introduction** – discusses the importance, aims and method and also the methodology that is adopted. It continues by presenting the contribution of the study.

**CHAPTER II: History, Positioning and Branding of the Brunel Business School** - discuss about the contextualisation of the study, namely to place the case of the Brunel Business School in context in terms of its history, positioning and branding. Regarding the history of Brunel Business School, there is no documentary material from the library, and from the school on the web and etc., it was suggested that Professor Dickson would have a good grasp of the school's history and thus the history Section is relied heavily on his comments.

**CHAPTER III: Review of literature on corporate identity and architecture** - reviews the most of the literature on the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification triad from different research perspectives in two sections: (III.1) review of corporate identity and (III.2) review of architecture.

**Section III.1** provides a systematic review of the identity literature. A broad literature is reviewed in order to establish the domain of corporate identity and the related concepts. Then, the intrinsic nature of identity and background are explored by depicting the growing interest in the evolution of perspectives in the corporate identity field. Next, it examines corporate identity in relation to a number of different strands of established studies. Afterwards, it reviews the key concepts related to corporate identity management by drawing insights from the paradigms which identified four main theoretical perspectives: graphic design/visual identity, marketing, organisational studies, and a multi-disciplinary approach and explains why a multi-disciplinary approach has been adopted and why such an approach acts as the theoretical foundation for this study. The corporate identity management construct outlines and the main elements of corporate identity (philosophy, mission and value; corporate visual identity; and communication). Finally, a definition of the corporate identity concept is derived.

**Section III.2** reviews the architectural phenomenon and its relationship with human factors. Next, it investigates architecture as the expression of social, economic and technological realities and its association with architecture and eventually the importance of architecture in today's market. Afterward, it sheds light on architecture and human performance and human needs. It then explains aesthetics as a creation and appreciation of beauty and its influences on architecture. Afterward, it overviews the architectural perception, assessment and its relation to nature and the human being and human behaviour and attitudes towards the corporation. Then, the relationship between architecture and corporate communication and corporate image will be addressed. The main dimensions of architecture (symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts; physical structure/spatial layout and functionality; and ambient conditions/physical stimuli) will be identified. Lastly, definitions of architecture are derived.

**CHAPTER IV: Research framework and hypotheses** - the relationships between the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification constructs are hypothesised, with support from the literature, in the form of a multiple internal-stakeholders' level conceptual framework and based on attribution theory. Then, it described the relationships between corporate identity components and architectural components. The research's hypotheses are provided after the discussion of each component of the framework.

**CHAPTER V: Methodology and research design** - reviews the research philosophy. Qualitative and quantitative approaches in theory construction are introduced. Furthermore, the research design, research setting and development of the measurement scales are discussed. The re-development of the measurement scales, the result of a literature search, semi-structured interviews and focus groups as well as a pilot survey are reviewed in detail. Then, the data collection process for the main survey is described. Finally, issues regarding data analysis are highlighted and explained.

**CHAPTER VI: Qualitatinitial (qualitative) insights and the main (quantitative) findings-** presents the quantitative studies (the main survey) and illustrates the findings of the CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) based on the data from the main survey, where the reliability and validity of the scale are also discussed. Furthermore, the results, together with the findings of the examination of the model and the hypotheses using SEM (structural equation modelling), are presented.

**CHAPTER VII: Outcomes from the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position** – illustrates the outcomes from the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position.

**CHAPTER VIII: Discussion** - illustrates the qualitative and quantitative studies. The various steps and procedures associated with the data analysis are discussed in detail. The results of scale reliability and validity testing are presented next.

**CHAPTER IX: Conclusion and implications** - the overall summary of the results. It summarises the research findings in which research implications (theoretical, managerial and policy making), research limitations and possible future research directions are discussed in turn.

## **CHAPTER II: HISTORY, POSITIONING AND BRANDING OF THE BRUNEL BUSINESS SCHOOL**

### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

This study aims to gather more in-depth information to advance the understanding of the corporate identity, architecture, and identification triad. To better understand the relationships, Chapter II, in Section 2.2 will discuss the contextualisation of the study, namely, to place the case of the Brunel Business School in context in terms of its history. As there is no documentary material from the library, or from the school on the web, etc., it was suggested that Professor Dickson would have a good grasp of the school's history and thus this Section relies heavily on his comments, the Times Higher Education Report 2015 on business school ranking, and the Degree Congregation and award Ceremonies booklets. Section 2.3 illustrates the school's positioning and branding. The questions to be answered are 'where do we come from?' And, 'where would BBS like to go?'. What is needed is a more precise description of the BBS identity, wanted position and its strategic intent. Concluding remarks are made in Section 2.4.

### **2.2. HISTORY OF BBS (WHERE DID THE BBS COME FROM)**

According to Balmer (2008) and Melewar (2003), corporate identities are informed by history and can be shaped by past strategies (Balmer, 2002 and 2008). Identity is the product of the history of the organisation (Rowlinson and Procter, 1999; Melewar, 2003). Balkaran's (1995) study shows that "everyday routines and activities in an entity do not simply happen but occur because of tradition or history" (p. 58). The answer to where did the company come from are hidden in the company's history and founder (Melewar 2003). As there is no documentary material from the library, or from the school or on the web, etc., it was suggested that Professor Dickson would have a good grasp of the school's history and thus this Section relies heavily on his comments.

The history of Brunel University dates back to 1798, however, the first department of Management Studies was launched by Professor A. Woods as the Head of Department in 1994 with 15 Students. In 1998, the name was changed to the School of Business and Management by Professor D. Sims, with 302 Students. In 2003, Professor K. Dickson was nominated as the Head of the School with 369 Students. Afterwards, in 2005, the school was renamed as Brunel Business School (BBS). The head of school was Professor D. J. Lloyd with 217 Students. In 2007, Professor Z. Irani was the Head of School with 686 Students. Due to a lack of information regarding the history of BBS, the researcher interviewed *Professor Keith Dickson*, the main founder of the Brunel Business School.

**1990-1991** – what became a business school in **1991** started when *Professor Keith Dickson* joined. He was one of the four co-founders of the Business School. Prior to 1991, Brunel never had any sort of management teaching, but did collaborate with Henley School of Management. In the 1990s, although Henley was famous it was Brunel University that validated its degrees, such as the MBA. Totally unknown to everyone, in the late 1990s, Henley agreed to do some teaching at undergraduate level for Brunel University on certain subjects – engineering and production management, and mathematics and management. Henley was a reputable place.

In late **1989**, Henley informed Brunel University that it had applied for chartered status from the government, and that, if it were successful, they would like to withdraw from the existing arrangement for doctorate degrees, particularly the MBA, because they would be able to validate their own degree; at that time it was the only way to validate the degrees. It took a while for approval for that status. At that time, one of the Senior Professors of Engineering – Professor White – became the Director of Henley in the early 1990s; he was quite a Senior Professor in Brunel. He convinced the Vice Chancellor in Brunel to start a school or set-up Business Management Studies, and they started to develop their own undergraduate programme and approved the set-up of **the Centre for Business Management Studies**, mainly to service teaching to the Engineering and Sciences. They proceeded accordingly, and, in the 1990s, they advertised and received funding. **They appointed four lecturers who were based organisationally within the Faculty of Engineering at that time, as the founding staff for the Centre of Business and Management Studies.** Three of the lecturers joined in April 1991 in response to the first

advertisement in late 1989. Professor Keith Dickson joined in the late 1990s in response to the first advert in August 1989. It was at this time, when the university took the first initiative.

Professor Keith Dickson and the other lecturers were considered to be the four **founders**. **They had six months to set up a degree. The first degree – Management and Technology – was set up in October 1990**; it was a 3-year degree. Professor Ray Wild who was a very famous Professor at the time left the Henley School of Management to become head of the school. Nigel Slack (Professor of Management) and Professor Ray Wild interviewed Professor Keith Dickson for his position at Brunel. Nigel Slack, who was a Professor as well as University Chancellor, was acting as the head of the Centre of Business and Management Studies (CBMS). He left Brunel after a couple of months to go to Warwick Business School. In the summer, the Manufacturing and Engineering systems degree was designed. Professor Keith Dickson stated that *“suddenly we found we were orphans. No one knew who we were. The Engineering School didn’t care about us. We contacted Professor Martin Kane – the dean of the Faculty of the Social Sciences – who said that if everyone was happy, once the degree was set up we could join them. Within 6 months we changed to become a part of the Faculty of Social Sciences”*.

**The school launched the BSc Management and Technology degree, and, in the first year, they had 12-11 students in September 1991. The second degree was a BSc in Management Studies with 47 students.** Although the school started to recruit more staff, there was no head of school. In 1991, the acting head was a Professor of Government. Professor Keith Dickson states that, *“within one year we became as big as other departments and it started to cause tension. The main office was in a Portakabin for about a year, which no longer exists”*.

**1992** – This was the time that **the name changed to the Division of Management Studies** with only four or five lectures; Ian and Professor Keith Dickson were the ones who ran the place. In 1992, they decided to appoint a new Head of Department. In 1992, the division moved into the Marie Jahoda Building, with six to seven offices.



**1994** – Professor Adrian Woods was appointed Head of Department and he became the first professor and the first Head of Department. The first student graduated in June 1994 from Technology and Management. The course was only run for 2 years and the first graduate from Management Studies was in 1995. At that time, the department did a lot of service teaching with a 4-year degree because they had a placement, i.e. a sandwich degree. Between 1993 and 1994, the division became a department. Management Studies was a 3-year degree with 49 students in the first year, and Management and Technology with 15 students.

**1996-1997** – This was the time that the department started to think about Postgraduate Degrees, and stopped other degrees and only taught BSc in Management Studies and a degree called Management Studies with Maths. This was the first master's degree in the department.

The first master's degree was taught in **1995**. At this time, there were some joined degrees, which were based on the agreement with other departments at the university. The first PhD student in the department graduated in 1996 under the supervision of Professor Dickson. **In 1997, the department was still called the Faculty of Management Studies in the Faculty of Social Studies.** The main degree was the Management Studies. The number of students of this degree increased every year and the department was recruiting more staff.

**1998** – The name changed to **the School of Business and Management** as the department had become big and strong. In late 1997 or early 1998, the department joined forces with the West Institute of Higher Education, which had its own Business School. It became the School of Business and Management with two divisions, (i) Business Studies with its own degree, and (ii) Management Studies. By 1998, Professor Adrian Woods became a Dean. Professor Keith Dickson became the Head of the division with 15 staff members. Professor Keith Dickson added that *“Ian was Head of division for 1 year. We had lots of students and some postgraduate degrees, and started to get our first doctorates; by 1998 we graduated doctorates as well, about his time we moved. Ian left in 1999, and, at some point, we left the Faculty of Social Sciences. David Sims was still the Head. We were so big. This was the old West London Institute, we had so many degrees, all of which were from the other institutes, ours was the Management. By 1998, we had a range of degrees. We were called the School*

*of Business Management but we were effectively two departments Business Department and Management Department. In 1997 and 1998, we start teaching MBA; 15-20 staff probably”.*

**1999** – The school moved to the building called the Institute in 1990. There were four offices in the Engineering Department. In late 1990, they moved into a Portakabin, when they joined the Faculty of Social Sciences for at least a year or two. Then they moved to the ITRI International and Research Building. **At that time, it became the School of Business and Management Studies (SBMS).** Just before these two departments – the decision was to sell the other department and bring the staff to the SBMS. For a while, the business staff were located in the building called King Palace, Pink Building, together with the PhD students and all the staff from West London. In 1999, the two groups were merged. All the staff and about 45 academic staff were located in the building, and Professor Keith Dickson was one of the two Heads of the Department. The school used to have its own logo with 100 students. At that time, Brunel University had its own logo and SBMS had its own logo. Therefore, it started to make its own identity. David Simpson was the Head until 2002 when Professor Keith Dickson became Head. Professor Keith Dickson and the other two professors had a major influence on redesigning the building. Professor Keith Dickson said that *“We were talking about the new building specifically for the Business School and we had the plans. It was supposed to look like a **doughnut** and we were quite excited. However, the University didn’t go ahead with this. It was a little task for us. We had the meetings with the architect and something went wrong and the University didn’t go ahead with it and the University moved them to the other building. We employed a marketing consultant, a company called Silver Thin, as a Branding Consultant – we were seriously looking about SBMC. We had 200 to 300 undergraduate students; we became the second biggest with a big budget and had good research programme”.*

The researcher asked **what the old lecturers and new lecturers thought about this.** Professor Keith Dickson stated that *“One of the reasons we got that School was because, we merged two departments. We were 11 staff and they were 45, they were non-research staff, low-level activity and we were the academics. Some staff left and about 30 stayed. There was a lot of tension between the two groups. We had different internal groups, they taught Business Degrees and we taught Management Degrees. The staff had no future, and, eventually, they left or were made redundant. Under the regime of David and myself, we*

*integrated the two schools together. We were academic and they were non-research staff, we took them over. We took over their diploma numbers as in those days the government dictated the undergraduate numbers. All were doing management studies. All the ‘silly degrees’ died and all were covered by management studies”.*

**2001** – In 1999, and even in 2001 and 2002, the school still had their degrees to teach out to finish the intakes. In 2001, it was still teaching these degrees, but it was all done with only the one Head. **The two departments merged in 2001** with Postgraduate students, MBA, MSc, and PhD. Professor Keith Dickson stated that *“there always was a limitation from the Government for the University and of different subjects. By 2001, we were fully integrated in the ITRI building. Inside we had a wonderful space, lots of offices, and two computer labs. I had my own office. I was Head from 2002-2004, and the SBMS was run as a department”.*

**2004** – The university restructured again. Professor Keith Dickson added that *“so, our whole lives were restructured. We were happy in our building and everything was doing well. A new Vice Chancellor came in 2002 and 2003 and decided to restructure. He didn’t want 27 departments all reporting to him. In 2004, we were restructured as the Brunel Business School consisting of the old SBMS, which was my department, Economics Department, ENF, and History and Government, as well as three different departments from the Social Sciences. The first BBS was in 2004. I wasn’t allowed to apply for it and we had an outsider, an industrial person. Don Lloyd, he became Professor Lloyd. He became the first head and first professor of BBS. He only stayed 2 years. I became his Deputy Head, Adrian and I became two deputy heads. In August 2004, the Brunel Business School was created. I was the Deputy Head for 2 years as a name”.*

**2006** – In 2006, Professor Zahir Irani was appointed as Head of the School. There was **another restructuring**. Economics and Finance went back to the Faculty of Social Sciences. **It became a pure Business School, only Business and Management with a new logo**. Professor Keith Dickson was still Deputy Head at that time as well as the Department Head for four years and the Deputy Head for two years, 2004 to 2006. Then, Professor Keith Dickson was given various titles, which had a different meaning. The important person was the Head who had the financial control. Hence, for several years, Professor Keith Dickson had financial control. The school was still in a Portakabin. Don Lloyd came in 2004 and in 2013 he retired, he was a School Manager. Christine was the Department Manager”.

**2007 and 2008** – In 2007-2008, the school was reorganised into research subjects – Organisation Behaviour, Marketing Research Group and Accounting. By 2006, the school had 2,000 students, nearly 50 to 60 staff and 30 admin staff. By late 2008, the building was not enough big and they had a space in another building. Even by 2008 and 2009, the school was scatted in three or four buildings. It was clear that it needed to have its own building. In late 2012, they moved out from the Portakabin. The entire academic were staying in Portakabin with three admin staff.

He added *“if you asked me what has happened in these 20 years, I would say **constant growth, constant restructuring, and constantly dynamic. Constantly reorganising and I just got used to it in the end. Constant growth and we never stopped growing. I got very cynical about it. I’m also a bit cynical about the current restructuring.** In 2000, with the merger with West London there was considerable growth throughout the decade. Then, in 2000-2010, there was extensive growth in the postgraduate numbers to about 400 postgraduates. In 2008, there were 2,200 students all together. Constant growth and constant restructuring”*.

Furthermore, Professor Dickson states that *“one of the reasons I retired was this restructuring, what was supposed to be our exclusive building, not any more, they renamed it. Dave Snowden designed it and we evolved it. For 18-24 months, I was there with Zahir. We had our executive suite, staff on two levels, and we had PhD students on two levels. We had an MBA programme. This building was designed for us. I participated in all the meetings and all the designs were based on what we wanted, what the stakeholders wanted. The fourth floor was going to be an executive management suite but that never happened. Even for each table they invited the staff to see. That was interesting because we did all that in 2001; Christine bought most of the furniture second hand and it was brilliant. The university never really supported us very well, but other departments stayed the same. Other departments were envious of us. In 2004, the budget became based on the amount of students. We had money and Zahir always had money, and an expenditure programme. International students were one of the main driving forces”*.

The researcher asked Professor Dickson how he felt about the Brunel Business School. Professor Dickson replied *“I think things have changed, the university got too commercial in a way, because the government was no longer providing funding, it was only through*

*students. It changed the whole relationship and I'm not very happy about that, it became much more functionalist and I think our students have changed, are degrees are much more formal now".*

*In addition, he added "the different buildings generated different relations and identity. Let me give you a little background; one thing surprised me is that each building had their own identity. The people in Michael Sterling were more clean and tidy, while in Chadwick they were very relaxed. The lack of the identity is an identity; we were never long enough to generate the identity. Chadwick never had any sense of belonging. I saw students; they were not like Cass and LBS, and ironically Cass and we used Cass as an example. The university treated the business school community badly in Brunel. We never developed a very strong academic community. The tin building was the first tie after 1999; we were made to feel like a cohesive group, but West London staff never integrated. By the time Zahir increased the numbers, Chadwick became an embarrassment. Even Michael Sterling had problems. It didn't work, some never went in or some occupied completely. Until we moved to this building 2011-2012 only then we appeared to solve the problem. For the first time in 20 years the whole department was in one building and yet that was destroyed within 2 years; I do find the negative feeling and betrayal. Here we grew the department and academic success. I don't think the Brunel business school got the recognition it deserved, partly because we were still part of the engineering school. I don't think we were well served by the vice chancellors. In my opinion, now we moved here after 20 years, we moved to a new building all in the same basket, but all our wishes came true. We started to see ourselves as within integrated operations within one building, some restructuring again. Many academics were cynical about it, the academics were not happy, PhD is happier, and if you walk around the PhD space, what about 10-20 per cent come in".*

*"BBS became BBS in 2004 there was big difference between then and now. The difference was that I still think that the people that I recruited were academic we had quite a distinct social science intellectual framework, I think that largely disappeared, the intellectual culture that I was used to was a social science one, around intellectual ideas, that's disappeared now. That's been overtaken by a much more instrumental approach and less depth, which reflected on the staff and programmes. Now the topics are very different. We are much bigger and the Masters' dissertations have become less interesting. One of the members of staff who hit 60 resigned saying that he didn't like this space anymore because*

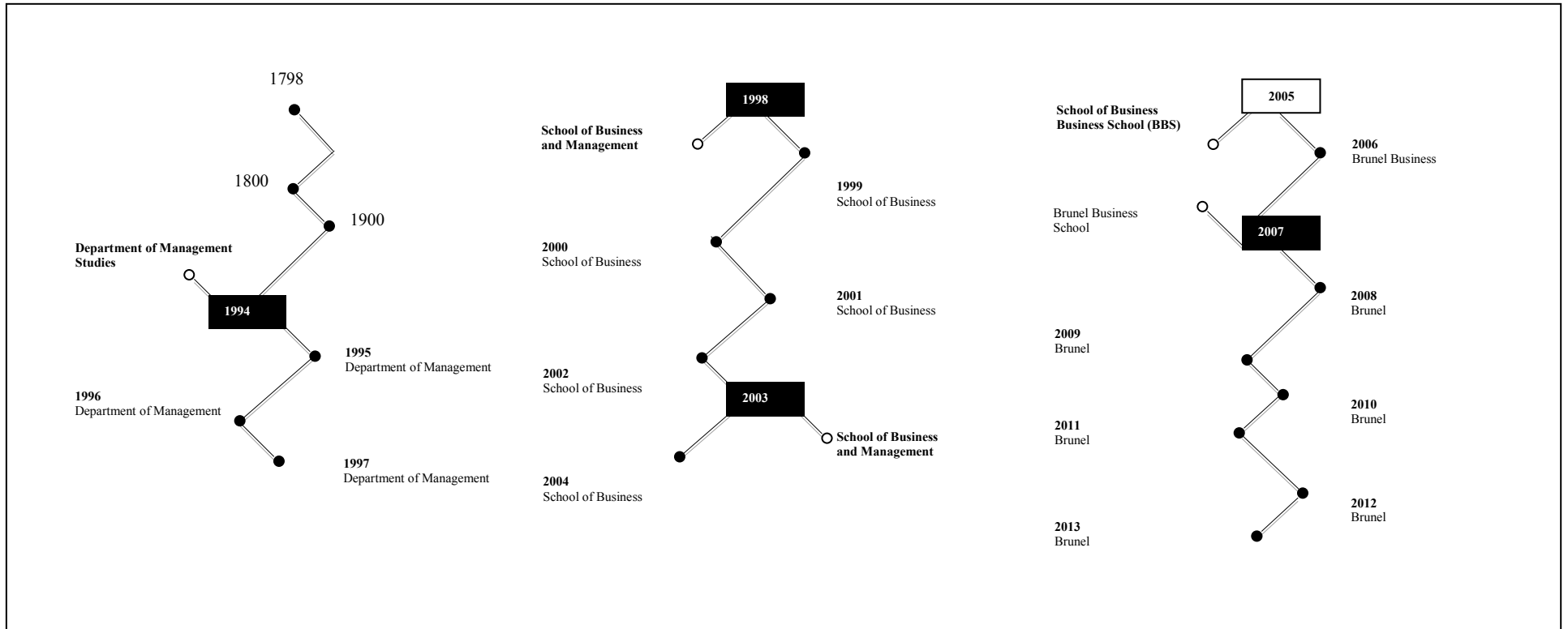
*rather than a quality academic space, it was becoming more of a production academic. That's one thing, an intellectual climate change, the number game changed, because of the transfer from a craft base to a production based system; one of the problems we had was to hold on to staff. People leave. I interview so many staff, you get young people come in and no sooner are they here than they go to better universities. In this stage, it is very tricky, this university makes them big but the school never gets bigger with them. We seem to be incapable of retaining staff when they grow their reputation. We had people go to Essex and Sussex and the places I see above us. I see that my college and everyone has the same problems— increasing emphasis on finance and income. The quality of academics has become worse in England from the time they had to take on financing, and financial management. We are not the only ones to have these problems. From 2004 until 2013, we had these changes and we never had our own identity before 2004.*

*Additionally, Professor Dickson stated that “now, we are all in 1 building and that's a plus, we are fully as one, as the BBS. Internally we are a unitary department and organisation BBS, reputation outside BBS is though as one thing that's dramatic, finally getting everyone under the same roof. However, the minus is too many PhD students and I have had arguments with Ray Hackney as the quality of the students was going down and his job was to increase the number; the quantity went up but not the quality. The empathies with internationalisation went up. You look around the staff and shortlisted 5 or 10 and not one of them is British. Not one of the candidates was British born or British; 90% foreign students, and 95% of staff are from overseas. We had a long conversation with West London University, and then, when we merged with West London, we started to work with west London and then we stopped. We took them over, it was called a merger, but they were inferior, we took their assets and there student numbers and their sights and we made loads of money from about 1997-1999. The merger started in 1997. David Sims said that we had that market and that students could not understand having a dichotomy, there was a real identity problem if you like. Zahir and some others decided let's put it together. We stopped recruiting students. They had to finish the rest of the degrees. Our name was changed from Brunel West London and the University of West London was dropped because of the naming problem; it had nothing to do with the institution we took over before and merged with. It died in 2003-2002. I think we changed to Brunel University West London. Around mid-2000, we were going to join the University of London but it didn't happen. Now we are called Brunel University London. We brought in a branding consultant, Paul Jackson. The name of*

*the Business School has changed since 1991. He came and helped brand us and we took our identity seriously in the Portakabin; what we are about now. We tried to develop a serious identity. When I retired, I did a presentation. Everything is about our branding, history and identity. Anything you think is useful or you write something that we can pass to the future”.*

Figure 6.1 illustrates the summary of corporate history and the founder of Brunel Business School (BBS) with the number of students per year. In addition, Table 6.1 shows the history of Brunel Business School and the number of students per year in more detail. All the data were gathered from the Degree Congregation and award Ceremony booklets from 1994 to 2013.

**Figure 2.1: Corporate History and the founder of Brunel Business School (BBS) with the number of students per year**



Source: The Researcher based on the Degree Congregation and award Ceremony booklets from 1994 to 2013.





		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	2
		MSc in Management Studies	2
		Doctor of Philosophy	4
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of Social Sciences	1
<b>1999</b>	<b>Professor D. Sims (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BA in Business Studies with American Studies	2
		BA in Business Studies with Art	1
		BA in Business Studies with Film and Television Studies	1
		BA in Business Studies with Religious Studies	1
		BA in American Studies and Business Studies	1
		BA in Business Studies and English	5
		BA in Business Studies and History	2
		BA in Computer Studies with Film and Television Studies	2
		BA in Computer Studies and History	1
		BA in Computer Studies and Music	1
		BA in Film and Television Studies and Leisure Management	1
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	34
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	10
		BSc in Business Studies with English	1
		BSc in Business Studies with History	1
		BSc in Business Studies with Sport Sciences	13
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	42
		BSc in Computer Studies with Accounting	2
		BSc in Computer Studies with Business Studies	2
		BSc in Computer Studies with Sport Sciences	2
		BSc in Computer Studies and Leisure Management	2
		BSc in Leisure Management with Sport Sciences	22
		BSc in Management studies	92
		BSc in Management studies and Law	7
		BSc in Management studies with Mathematics	2
		BSc in Management studies with Technology	1
		BSc in Business Administration	7
		BSc in Social Science	1
		MSc in Business Administration	2
		MSc in Human Recourses and Employment Relations	7
		MSc in Management of Human Resources	2
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	4
		MSc in Management Studies	16
		BTEC Diploma in Business	29
		BTEC Diploma in Business Information Technology	20
		BTEC Diploma in Business and Finance	3
		BTEC Diploma in Computing, Information System	19
		BTEC Diploma in Computing with Multimedia Production	17
		Doctor of Philosophy	6
<b>2000</b>	<b>Professor D. Sims (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BA in Business Studies with Art	5
		BA in Business Studies with Drama	1
		BA in Business Studies with Film and Television Studies	1
		BA in Business Studies with History	1
		BA in Computer Studies with Film and Television Studies	1
		BA in Leisure management with Art	1
		BA in Business Studies and English	1

		BA in Business Studies and history	1
		BSc in Business Studies and Accounting	53
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	18
		BSc in Business Studies with English	1
		BSc in Business Studies with Sport Sciences	5
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	9
		BSc in Computer Studies with Business Studies	26
		BSc in Computer Studies with leisure Management	2
		BSc in Leisure Management with Accounting	1
		BSc in Leisure Management with American Studies	1
		BSc in Leisure Management with Film and Television Studies	1
		BSc in Leisure Management with Religious Studies	1
		BSc in Leisure Management with Sport Sciences	6
		BSc in Business Studies and Computer Studies	34
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Sciences	5
		BSc in Business Studies and leisure Management	4
		BSc in Leisure Management and Sport Sciences	5
		BTEC Diploma in Business	30
		BTEC Diploma in Business information Technology	11
		BTEC Diploma in Computing (Information System)	8
		BTEC Diploma in Computing (Multimedia production)	10
<b>2001</b>	<b>Professor D. Sims (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BSc in Business Administration	2
		BSc in Management Studies	92
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	42
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	20
		BSc in Business Studies with Sport sciences	6
		BSc in Computer Sciences with Accounting	10
		BSc in Computer Sciences with Business Studies	14
		BSc in Leisure Management with Sport Sciences	4
		BSc in Business Studies and Computer Studies	15
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Sciences	3
		BSc in Management Studies and Law	7
		BTEC Diploma in Business	13
		BTEC Diploma in Business Information technology	9
		BTEC Diploma in Computing (Multimedia Production)	12
		Master of Business Administration	18
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	2
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	3
		MSc in Management Studies	14
		Master of Philosophy	1
		Doctor of Philosophy	2
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of the University	1
<b>2002</b>	<b>Professor D. Sims (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BSc in Business and Administration	1
		BSc in Business Studies and Computer Studies	35
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	16
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	53
		BSc in Business Studies with American Studies	2
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	16
		BSc in Computer Studies with Business Studies	21
		BSc in Leisure Management	9
		BSc in Leisure Management with Science	1

		BSc in Management Studies	94
		BSc in Management Studies and Law	3
		BTEC Diploma in Business	1
		BTEC Diploma in Business Information Technology	1
		Master of Business Administration in Administration	19
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	19
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	3
		MSc in Management Studies	12
		Master of Philosophy	1
		Doctor of Philosophy	6
<b>2003</b>	<b>Professor K. Dickson (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BSc in Business and Administration	8
		BSc in Business Studies and Computer Studies	28
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	7
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	59
		BSc in Business Studies with Computer Studies	43
		BSc in Business Studies with Sport Science	18
		BSc in Computer Studies with Accounting	18
		BSc in Computer Studies with Business Studies	13
		BSc in eCommerce	21
		BSc in Management Studies	138
		BSc in Management Studies and Law	7
		National Diploma in Business	1
		MBA	39
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	12
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	5
		MSc in Management Studies	23
		MSc in Multimedia in Computing for eCommerce	9
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of the Science	1
		Master of Philosophy	1
		Doctor of Philosophy	2
<b>2004</b>	<b>Professor K. Dickson (School of Business and Management)</b>		
		BSc in Business and Administration	2
		BSc in Business and Management	41
		BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	36
		BSc in Business and Management (Computing)	27
		BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	78
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	8
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	3
		BSc in Business Studies with Sport Science	19
		BSc in eCommerce	43
		BSc in leisure Management with Accounting	1
		BSc in Management Studies	52
		MBA	38
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	17
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	4
		MSc in Management Studies	24
		MSc in Multimedia in Computing for eCommerce	18
		Doctor of Philosophy	2

<b>2005</b>	<b>Professor D J Lloyd (Brunel Business School)</b>		
	<b>Professor J Bennet (Head of Economics and Finance)</b>	BSc in Business Economics	21
		BSc in Economics	39
		BSc in Economics and Business Finance	50
		BSc in Economics and Management	12
		BSc in Finance and Accounting	23
		MSc in Business Finance	5
		MSc in Finance and Accounting	8
		MSc in Finance and Investment	31
		MSc in Financial Economics	6
		MSc in International Money, Finance and Investment	19
	<b>Professor K Dickson (Head of Business and Management)</b>	BSc in Business and Administration	3
		BSc in Business and Management	83
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of Business	1
		BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	55
		BSc in Business and Management (Computing)	47
		BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	104
		BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	25
		BSc in Business Studies with Accounting	2
		BSc in eCommerce	23
		MBA	39
		MSc in Business and Public Ethics	1
		MSc in Business Ethics and Sustainability	3
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations in	22
		MSc in Management	43
		MSc in Management of Innovation and Organisational Change	2
		MSc in Management Studies	3
		MSc in Multimedia in Computing for eCommerce	15
		<b>Dr J T Fisher (Head of Politics and History)</b>	BA in History
	BA in History and Music		1
	BA in History and Sociology		1
	BA in History with American Studies		3
	BA in History with Law		6
	BA in Politic and English		1
	BA in Politic and Social Policy		8
BSC in Government, Politics and Modern History	1		
BSC in International Politics	4		
BSC in Politics	16		
BSC in Politics and Economics	4		
BSC in Politics and History	10		
BSC in Politics and Sociology	9		
MA in European Politics	1		
MA in Health Service Policy and Management	3		
MA in Public Policy	5		
MA in Public Service Management	1		
MSc in Public Affairs	3		

<b>2006</b>	<b>Professor D J Lloyd (Brunel Business School)</b>		
	<b>Economics and Finance</b>	MSc in Business Finance	6
		MSc in Finance (Asset Management)	1
		MSc in Finance (Corporate Finance and Accounting)	3
		MSc in Finance and Accounting	19
		MSc in Finance and Investment	33
		MSc in Financial Economics	4
		MSc in International Money, Finance and Investment	20
		MSc in Master of Research	6
	<b>Business and Management</b>	MBA	31
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	45
		MSc in Management	78
		MSc in Marketing	60
		MSc in Multimedia Computing for eCommerce	9
	<b>Head of Politics and History</b>	MA in Health Service Policy and Management	2
		MA in intelligence and Security Studies	3
MA in Public Policy		3	
MSc in Public Affairs an Lobbying		3	
Master of Research		2	
Doctor of Philosophy		10	
<b>2007 Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>			
	BSc in Business and Administration	1	
	BSc in Business and Management	83	
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	154	
	BSc in Business and Management (Computing)	29	
	Honorary Degree of Doctor of Business	1	
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	184	
	BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	22	
	BSc in eCommerce	6	
	MBA	17	
	Master of Research in Management and Organisation Studies	1	
	MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	28	
	MSc in Management	92	
	MSc in Marketing	61	
	MSc in Multimedia Computing for eCommerce	6	
	Doctor of Philosophy	1	
<b>2008 Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>			
	BSc in Business and Management	106	
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	120	
	BSc in Business and Management (Computing)	24	
	Honorary Degree of Doctor of the University	1	
	BSc in Business and Management	197	
	BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	9	
	BSc in International Business	18	
	MBA	31	
	Master of Research in Management and Organisation Studies	1	
	MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	17	
	MSc in International Business	33	
	MSc in Management	65	
	MSc in Marketing	83	
	MSc in Multimedia Computing for eCommerce	1	
	Doctor of Philosophy	5	

<b>2010</b>	<b>Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>	
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	208
	BSc in Business and Management (Computing)	1
	BSc in Business and Management (eBusiness System)	20
	BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	16
	BSc in International Business	91
	BSc in Business and Management	154
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	197
	BSc in Business and Management	153
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	213
	MSc in Corporate Brand Management	36
	MSc Global Supply Chain Management	12
	MSc in Management	36
	MSc in Marketing	66
	MSc in Corporate Brand Management	46
	MSc Global Supply Chain Management	11
	MSc in Management	59
	MSc in Marketing	104
	MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	16
	MSc in International Business	84
	MBA (Health Care Management)	74
	Honorary Fellowship	4
Honorary Degree of Doctor of the University	1	
Doctor of Philosophy	12	
<b>2011</b>	<b>Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>	
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	148
	BSc in Business and Management (eBusiness System)	31
	BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	19
	BSc in International Business	242
	MBA	48
	Healthcare Management	2
	MSc in Human Resources Management	22
	MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	22
	MSc in International Business	77
	BSc in Business and Management	156
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	215
	MSc in Corporate Brand Management	36
	MSc Global Supply Chain Management	12
	MSc in Management	36
	MSc in Marketing	67
	Honorary Degree of Doctor of Letters	1
Doctor of Philosophy	15	
<b>2012</b>	<b>Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>	
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	59
	BSc in Business and Management (Accounting) with Placement Year	25
	BSc in Business and Management (eBusiness System)	16
	BSc in Business and Management (eBusiness System) with Placement Year	4
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	1
	BSc in Business Studies and Sport Science	1
	BSc in International Business	70
	BSc in International Business with Placement Year	17
	BSc in Business and Management	89
	BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	104

		BSc in Business and Management (Marketing) with Placement Year	28
		BSc in Business and Management with Placement Year	18
		MSc in Corporate Brand Management	50
		MSc Global Supply Chain Management	21
		MSc in Management	55
		MSc in Marketing	100
		MBA	37
		MBA (Aviation Management)	3
		MBA (Healthcare Management)	5
		MSc in Human Resources Management	24
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	17
		MSc in International Business	89
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of the University	1
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of Law	1
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of Engineering	1
		Doctor of Philosophy	19
<b>2013</b>	<b>Professor Z Irani (Brunel Business School)</b>		
		BSc in Business and Management (Accounting)	61
		BSc in Business and Management (Accounting) with Placement Year	12
		BSc in Business and Management (eBusiness System) with Placement Year	3
		BSc in International Business	97
		BSc in International Business with Placement Year	13
		BSc in Business and Management	109
		BSc in Business and Management (Marketing)	105
		BSc in Business and Management (Marketing) with Placement Year	23
		BSc in Business and Management with Placement Year	25
		Diploma in Business and Management	1
		Diploma in Business and Management (Marketing)	2
		Postgraduate Diploma in Human Resource	2
		Postgraduate Diploma in International Business	4
		MSc in Human Resources Management	30
		MSc in Human Resources and Employment Relations	7
		MSc in International Business	49
		Honorary Fellowship	1
		MSc in Applied Corporate Brand Management	12
		MSc in Corporate Brand Management with professional Practice	6
		MSc in Corporate Brand Management	1
		MSc Global Supply Chain Management	17
		MSc in Management	48
		MSc in Marketing	86
		MBA	30
		MBA (Aviation Management)	1
		MBA (Healthcare Management)	3
		Postgraduate Certificate in Business Administration	1
		Postgraduate Certificate in Marketing	3
		Postgraduate Certificate in Applied Corporate Brand Management with Professional Practice	1
		Postgraduate Certificate in Business Administration	5
		Postgraduate Certificate in Business Administration (Healthcare Management)	1
		Postgraduate Certificate in Healthcare Management	1
		Postgraduate Certificate in Management	5



		Postgraduate Certificate in Marketing	2
		Postgraduate Certificate in Supply Chain Management	2
		Honorary Degree of Doctor of Doctor of Business	1
		Master of Philosophy	1
		Doctor of Philosophy	32

Source: The Researcher based on the Degree Congregation and award Ceremonies booklets from 1994 to 2013.

### **2.3. POSITIONING AND BRANDING OF BBS (WHERE WOULD BBS LIKE TO GO)**

The main aim of qualitative study is to engage in research that probes for deeper understanding rather than examining surface features. This section reports the findings and presents the data supporting the developing themes of the current research on positioning and branding of BBS. These two concepts were uncovered in this section. For instance, positioning strategy is the process in which the company is assigned a clearly defined position, derived from its self-perception, in order to differentiate it from the competition (Melewar, 2003; Schmidt, 1995). Branding is the part of corporate structure that is concerned with the branding of the products, business units and the corporate umbrella, and how they appear to an organisation's audience. It is closely related to brand strategy, which refers to the way firms mix and match their corporate, house and individual brand names on their products (Gray and Smeltzer, 1985; Melewar, 2003). Consistent with the literature, all the participants stressed the value of developing and sustaining a favourable corporate logo. In agreement with the literature reviewed in Chapter two, the interviewees emphasised the value of a favourable corporate brand, noting that it influences consumer perceptions of the company, and highlights its main role in attracting and retaining talent in today's competitive market.

Corporate strategy and positioning is enormously significant in today's corporations to keep loyal customers, establish a competitive edge and increase the establishment image, especially to sustain a competitive advantage in today's competitive global market, as will be discussed in Chapter III.

Corporate strategy is the master plan of a company that circumscribes the company's products and market scope, its overall objectives and the policies through which it competes in its chosen markets (Gray and Balmer, 1998). Corporate strategy is extremely important to today's businesses to attract maximum attention and situate the company in the customers' mind for a long time. A well-designed corporate strategy influences competitive advantage

in today's competitive global market. A high quality corporate strategy was reported in the participants' comments as a contributing factor towards a favourable corporate image. For instance, *"we've got an idea of where we really want to be and how we're going to get there, and I think it's taken a long time to get to top ranking personally. And, for a long time, we were asking what our strategy was. I feel now, we've made a decision and we know where we are going. And I do feel it is quite clear to anyone"*. Another participant added, *"our school's corporate strategy is summarised in our school plan and outsiders are clear as to what our strategy is and where we are going in the future, what we are still working on"*.

As such, the company's corporate logo impacts on positive and desired attributes and can add value to the reputation of an organisation. It has been argued that a well-orchestrated corporate strategy is deemed to be a major contribution to creating corporate reputation. A participant explained:

*"I think the University's overall strategy is not clear to staff, not well defined, not enough. It is important to communicate it better, in more detail. Communicating with deans and heads of services, makes it clearer for staff in terms of understanding the overall strategy of the university. They are clear about the objectives and journey. But there is an anxiety, so it is crucial for us to do what we need to do, to get some synergy"* (Senior Lecturer)

*"BBS corporate branding has a consistent short and long time strategic framework, which I think includes the school's activities and was designed by the top management at the school, and I think was aligned based on the school's brand identity. It presents the company's values, both emotional and functional by building the clear connection among strategic vision, organisational culture and stakeholder image, consumers, customers, and government, etc. We should consider the difficulties, such as aligning the internal and external stakeholders, and create credible and authentic identity"* (Professor)

*"To make a consistent relationship between the staff and leader, I think the leader should have more focus on brand-centred training, internal brand communication, and the development of leadership characteristics and encourage employees to act in support of brand values and identity"* (Operations Administrator)

*"I think the school changed its strategy and for this reason they needed to revise the School's visual identity. Our new name and logo provides the clues to distinguish the changes in the school. I think all the changes appear in our communication to the students and staff. I think our name and logo are the main expression of Brunel, through which people can identify us and*

*differentiate us from others” (School Manager)*

*“I think any business needs to occasionally update its corporate identity. For example, our new school strategy influences our identity and by investing in the new corporate identity we develop trust, a sense of value which all influences the favourability of our school employees and customers’ attachment... I think, identity allows our brand as a whole, to be recognisable internationally and gives an immediate impression of a large and imposing school in the modern competitive world. From my perception, this building attracts some people and repulses other and people identify themselves differently to others, or, in other words, the identification with a particular place or organisation is likely to vary significantly from individual to individual” (Senior Lecturer).*

The above quotations are consistent with the corporate strategy and corporate identity authors (Balmer, 2001; Harris and De Chernatony, 2001; Kennedy, 1977; Simoes *et al.*, 2005), as well as the organisational behaviour authors (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Hatch and Schultz, 1997). They assert that management is responsible to convey the same message to an internal and external audience. Moreover, a Senior lecturer participant stated that:

*“I strongly believe that a strategy means nothing unless it is fully communicated all the way through the organisation. It should never be kept to the managers who plan it. It is quite sad when you observe that the top management changes the company’s strategy without engaging with the team members. I think a good strategy should be simple, clear, credible, motivating and reflect the uniqueness of the organisation. I think the School works a lot but I think it ends up looking the same or worse than last year. However, the logo or our brand looks different and I think the culture of the organisation is still the same as it used to be. The school strategy is like a story of how a business is going to grow and expand and how to drive growth. It starts by scanning the environment and taking a view of where the market is headed. People here are not clear what their roles are and if the strategies fail, what is going to happen”.*

*We have an expression between us; strategy is never set in stone. It is not optimistic to trust a company that has a strategy for the next 20 years. We are clear what our goal is, however, we should be more flexible and be brave enough to recalibrate right away. We prefer to have a keen eye on the recent economic climate and we are prepared to adapt any changes. We have our clear direction; you can see the changes since 2006. We communicate to our staff and I believe everyone in the organisation can see and understand the direction. We don’t believe in fixed ideas or direction, especially in the competitive world. In addition, there are many threats and lots of things changing. Nevertheless, there are also lots of opportunities for which we might need to change our mindset. If we tie things down too strongly, it might end up with a Soviet plan. We believe in putting the strategy into action (Senior Lecturer).*

*“All business schools are complex and fast-changing institutions. I feel that the*

*school has clarity of vision, ethos and strategic direction – like any other institution, a school should have a clear idea of where it is going and what it wants to achieve” (Focus Group 5)*

The differentiation strategy is capitalising on the inherent capabilities that define the University in terms of its basic identity (Simpson, 1988). To remain competitive, how would you differentiate BBS School from the other Business School in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world? The following quotes reflect how managers and academics would differentiate BBS School from the other Business Schools in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world:

*“We spent so many years to differentiate us from others, it was difficult for ages, it is difficult for all business schools these days, and is becoming harder. All business schools are the same... Everybody does marketing and HR, and I think the only area, where I think we are succeeding at the minute is the MBA courses, and PhD” (Focus Group 2)*

*“It would be ideal if we add a global strategy as a big part of the school’s strategy, be based around the world, not the world to be in London” (Research Student Administration)*

*“I think the main key for us is to transforming people’s lives, and providing them with the skills and knowledge to make it in their profession, or whatever area they are interested in” (Operations Administrator)*

The ideal identity refers to what BBS ought to be in terms of strategy, leadership environmental and corporate analysis, and corporate structure. According to Balmer (2008), the ideal identity is the optimum positioning of the organisation in its market (or markets) in a given time frame. This is normally based on the current knowledge from the strategic planners and others about the organisation’s capabilities and prospects in the context of the general business and competitive environment. The following comments from the focus group participants and managers address the importance of the current knowledge of BBS.

*“I think if we could achieve what the mission and vision says; achieve what we set ourselves as ambitious goals for the next 3-7 years that would be very important. Accreditation and increase our research ranking and establish very strong professional associations and increase the number and quality of institutions for a happier set of students” (School Manager).*

*“I think they might get a much better ranking, because they recruited more professors to do more research, and now they have recruited people who have good research and it will help with the ranking. They will get higher rank much better. They have become much stricter with PhD Students” (Focus Group 1).*

*“BBS is trying to raise its standard, it’s a good assurance. It’s driving towards excellence and I can see improvement as well. They work very hard to improve the image and students satisfaction” (Operations Administrator).*

The desired identity is the vision for the organisation in the hearts and minds of corporate leaders it is their vision for the organisation (Balmer and Greyser, 2002 p. 73). A manager spoke about the desired identity of BBS as follows:

*“I think BBS desires a future identity, which can shape the current BBS identity. For example, the new BBS building and launch a planned change, it can help to adopt a visionary projected future image or vision. I think it can guide in achieving some desired alteration in our structure, process, performance, and prestige. I know that Brunel does not have resources and staff that can be compared to Harvard University or ...from those prestige schools, but I don’t think that there is a particular school in my mind that I would compare with this school. If this school just tries to improve the quality of teaching and research that would be better”. We wish to be listed in the top UK universities and be listed in the top Business Schools in Europe” (School Manager).*

Brand structure is the part of corporate structure that is concerned with the branding of the products, business units and the corporate umbrella and how they appear to an organisation’s audience. It is closely related to brand strategy, which refers to the way firms mix and match their corporate, house and individual brand names on their products (Gray and Smeltzer, 1985). Several respondents are likely to see BBS as a brand. For instance, “people think we are pioneering, our reputation is innovation”. “We have great brand values, we are innovative, determined, and, to many people, we are modern... We are high quality. We are leaders, creative, forward thinking, ambitious, and quite aggressive. We communicate all these points to our students. We are keeping up with the speed of that change”. Another respondent added that “Our branding was related to the alignment of employee behaviour with our brand values. Internal branding or aligning the behaviour of employees with brand values has an impact on competitive markets. UK universities are the most valuable intangible asset for the government. I don’t think the school realises the importance of the relationship between internal branding and support from the academic employees”. Another lecturer added, “With huge complexity. Brunel has a clear brand, we are a university, and BBS has its own brand, as a business school. It illustrates things, such as what we teach, what is the key school research cluster... But, as a characteristic brand, we struggle and I think it was the way we had to add London to make the name unique ... I think it was very confused but better now... We try to sell ourselves; hopefully the launch of our new brand

might solve the confusion. It presents ourselves moving forward... we are very well branded through our traditional name, sign, logo, or design, or combination of all, which everyone recognises and differentiates us from the offerings of competitors.” All these influence our brand-awareness. The following is an example of their comments:

*“I was expecting this question. Our brand has different meaning internally, than externally; it is a challenge for us to differentiate ourselves from other London universities. We all share some points but we’re trying to separate ourselves quite noticeably from certain modern London universities. Ummm. So that we’re seen as modern but also research based and outstanding teaching... Changing our name was based on a managerial decision and it had a key impact on our institution’s capacity to recruit staff and students... Our students choose us based on what we talk about ourselves and how and what we are transmitting in the messages about ourselves, our image is the picture that an audience has of an organisation through the build-up of all received messages. Within a successful brand, all stakeholders should likely have an optimistic attitude towards us”*

In addition, another academic employee said of his brand support behaviour that:

*“We as academics are expected to have a clearer understanding of the university’s brand value. It could help us to use these brand values in our everyday work. Also, I don’t think it is matched between our beliefs and actions and generated brand image. However, the top management should ensure the alignment of employees’ attitudes and behaviour with the corporate brand values, which is important for universities in increasingly competitive markets... I wish that our management had discussed the changes with us. We were not informed about the changes and the process and are still not clear about our school corporate branding activities, what the BBS brand has promised to us and students...? If it was communicated in advance, we would have had more idea and we could communicate accordingly to our students, it looks like there is no trust among top management and employees” (Lecturer)*

*We try to reduce the difference between the desired corporate brand and that perceived by our stakeholders... make them understand the connection between brand delivery and brand promise... brand promise as foreseeing how the customer will expect the company to act, with regard to what organisations have widely communicated through, for example, advertising and the use of mass media... the success of corporate branding, largely [relies] on employees’ attitudes and behaviour in delivering the brand promise to external stakeholders... I assume that school brand messages or that brand values are communicated to all employees and students as well as people through mass communication, for example, the university’s newsletters, social media, memos, prospectus and brochures... the goal of internal branding process is “to get the organisation to live its brand”(Lecturer)*

Furthermore, the respondents granted that branding activities are a way to facilitate employees to sustain the brand of the institution. The comment above signifies the positive impact of the messages that are communicated via the institution's activities on employee brand support. The BBS slogan, mission, and vision available on the school's web pages were remembered by staff, therefore directing staff behaviour. Moreover, employees can imitate the leader's behaviour. Particularly, an academic employee gave her belief concerning the impacts of branding activities on her employees brand support:

*“It would be good if we have some training opportunities. It is vital for us to publish research papers, which is part of the school's performance and can support the institution's image and improve our league ranking... If the Brunel University is our brand, BBS is a sub brand. BBS shares the same values and characteristics of the Brunel University London as a parent brand. We use the main University logo as central University activities. However, we have individual marketing and communication strategies... Our web page is to maintain a level of consistency in the user experience... Like individuals, we have our own identity, complex identity and brand. Our University identity differentiates it from its competitors. It allows our stakeholders to recognise, understand and clearly describe the organisation concerned... Our values and ambitions of its employees play a key role... Our visual brand manifests itself in many ways, through logo, typeface and colours, stationery, buildings signage, customer information, vehicles, and every aspect of promotional activity... The education sector in the UK is crowded and competitive. Business schools compete with each other for students and staff, public funding and commercial income, not only in the UK and Europe, but all over the world... The main reason for rebranding the university was to add the word London to the name, to attain success in such a highly competitive arena is via discrimination, by developing a distinguishing brand personality and set of values that appeal to the school's key audiences” (Lecturer)*

*“Our brand is our promise to our customers, students, and employees, and stakeholders. It tells them what they can expect from our courses, and it distinguishes our offering from that of our competitors. Our brand is derived from who we are, who we want to be and who people perceive us to be (Senior Lecturer)*

The foundation of our brand is our Brunel logo, our website, packaging and promotional materials – all of which should integrate the school logo to communicate our brand.

*“I think the school's brand strategy is how, what, where, when and to whom top management plan to communicate and deliver the school's brand messages. Where the school advertises is part of the university's brand strategy; distribution channels are also part of the school's brand strategy. Also, what top management communicates visually and verbally is part of the school brand*

*strategy. We tried to communicate consistent strategic branding to people internally, externally and internationally. Based on my knowledge, it leads to a strong school brand equity... Rebranding our school was difficult. Defining our brand was a complex journey of business self-discovery; it was very difficult, time-consuming. By changing our logo, we had to think about what are the changes in the school or university's mission? What are the benefits and features of the school's products or services? What do the customers think about us? We had to think about the new brand messaging. Every employee should be aware of the brand attributes. If this can't be done, any attempt at establishing a brand will fail" (Focus Group 3)*

*In addition, some respondents consider BBS the corporate brand. "BBS is our brand, if they ask us where do we study, we say, Brunel Business School and I think BBS new Building is encouraged to influence the design to strengthen the brand. Our brand is used as a reminder of positive feelings concerning either the organisation's brand". "Our brand stands for excellence, because they are working in a new building, and inviting lecturers from other universities, and different workshops. So they are trying to enhance their image and they are working towards Brunel as a place where students can receive knowledge, and that, at the end, when you leave you get something more, for example, improvement, not only degree... We need to support or represent BBS branding" (Focus Group 6)*

He claims that, "our school has consistent, distinctive and clear values and an articulated ethos... We are not only resource-based management, we are customer-based management. We try to transmit the BBS brand as a common-value-based culture. We communicate the BBS values and promise to all staff, in order for them to understand those values that lead to appropriate actions and behaviour. Employees need to be aware when delivering a customer experience to create student satisfaction as well as enhance marketplace performance" (Focus Group 3)

From the participants' comments, it is recognisable that BBS can help the brand by having a well-designed building that is distinctive and that this is critical in creating a brand that provides a favourable image. The above statements are consistent with the covenanted identity concept (or corporate brand identity), which is defined as what the school stands for. The covenanted identity refers to the covenant that underpins a corporate brand. The exhibit is indicative rather than comprehensive in character. The exhibit can be adapted so that its primary focus is on corporate brand identity (Balmer, 2008).



In addition, some respondents tended to describe to what extent they followed a rigid structure or a more loose highly autonomous brand structure. They stated that:

*“We’re selling the equivalent student experience... I imagine it is kind of a hybrid. So, ummm I think the way that we found through it, is that we have a corporate identity that applies to everything. It enables them to reproduce the diversity but isn’t underlined with the overall brand... I imagine there is a structure. I like the structure of BBS... loose and highly autonomous are difficult words to use. We have a great well known culture, we are a culturally recognised brand” (Research Student Administration)*

*“As you know, the history of corporate branding emerged from the notion of logo, name and trademarks, which provide easy brand awareness and recognition, motivating consumers to have particular expectations of the promise of a brand, such as a special quality, distinctive experience, or personal identity” (Operations Administrator)*

*“Do we have different brand identities in different schools, I think we do. Do schools develop their own sort of stuff? Yes, we do. But, they have been homogenized into one brand. And I consider this a necessary thing to do in order to bring every school together” (Lecturer)*

*“mmmm, I think all the business schools have their own different brand. Because we have unique subjects and are recognised globally. The school has its own personality doesn’t it?”(Focus Group)*

It has been noted that HR professionals have developed HR activities that support internal branding efforts (Aurand et al., 2005). According to the empirical research by Aurand et al. (2005, p.163), “employees seem to have a more positive attitude toward the brand and [are] more likely to incorporate this image into their work activities when there is some degree of HR involvement in the internal branding process”. Aurand et al. (2005, p.163) show that “there is a strong relationship between HR involvement in internal branding and the incorporation of the brand into work activities”.

In addition, a respondent described how he feels about the services and the courses that are provided to the students as follows:

*“We try to communicate our branding and identity changes to all our stakeholders through advertising campaigns. The courses are high quality. Promoting and selling our courses are fairly difficult I believe. Hard to ensure the quality and standards of all courses. We tend to invest money from the school to make it better for our students” (Lecturer)*

The findings from the qualitative study indicate that positioning is a key element of the company in the market, which is wedded to customer decisions when choosing what to purchase. Additionally, the textual analysis of interviewees reveals a focus on defining the School's position in the market. The following comments illustrate a manager's assessment:

*“Our competitors are well known. We always look at league tables as the main source I would say, statistics and benchmark alongside our competitors. We look at NSS results...I think we're a market leader. We are famous and have enough experience in doing this” (Senior Lecturer)*

The comments made by the interviewees also emphasised that the NSS (National Student Survey) has a major impact on league tables. This can be illustrated in the description provided by one Lecturer: *“in the UK, there is a clear categorization of universities, the top six or seven and then you have the Russell group, middling group and then modern universities; then at the bottom of the line are the new universities that are struggling to be seen as universities. We're in the group of middle ranking university, and not far to the Russell group, hopefully, a realistic aspiration is that we are pushing ourselves up to the top, whereas now we're currently in the middle”.*

One lecturer commented:

*“I suppose in global terms, we already position ourselves as one of the leaders in terms of global education” (Lecturer)*

One lecturer of the University established the importance of creativity in teaching and learning and how they see the School in relation to other schools in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world as follows:

*“As a member of Brunel employees, we have all the time done new creative things; we try to use different teaching and learning methodologies... I think Brunel is a rock-solid university. I think it is improving, it is improving but not fast enough, it was but not now. Compared to other schools in Brunel, it is better... The business school is a really good business school. Please don't think this is because I am working here, I heard people say that. The business school itself has an excellent reputation, inside UK and outside, internationally. We had a long journey, a hard one. We will be the top, get into the top 10 that would be great, so ecstatic. I am thinking that we are much better than what people give us credit for, we have high quality teaching and learning system. In general, what we do is better, we've been doing that for years, there's so much*

*that we just don't tell people about. And that's part of why we're not perceived as higher" (Senior Lecturer).*

A well-positioned company should beat the competition that has an analogous offering in the market. The company that clearly articulates 'what it does', 'why it's relevant' 'how it's different' and 'where to go' helps customers make better and faster buying decisions. Similarly, in the current study, an expert's comment on some aspects of where BBS would like to go as the key element of positioning strategy, for example:

*"At the moment I think they are improving, since I started the ranking has improved a lot. They are trying to improve the ranking a lot. The student satisfaction has improved. They are improving a lot and we going to be in a good position very soon... Based on my communication with people, it is not very good. It's not a very high ranking university" (Focus Group 2).*

The clear positioning strategy of the school was a very influential factor that affected people's judgment, as the following interviewee highlighted:

*"I am not sure about the school vision or mission but I have seen the magazine in the lecturer centre in which there are so many stories about the success of students and all the information in the magazine communicates the vision and mission of the school that is communicated to everyone in the uni... also not sure but I remember an article about how the new building has changed the vision of the uni and shapes the educational programmes, plans, and actions in a different way and direction... the school dean has made a lot of effort and his strategy is to build a new building, and improve the school vision and goals" (Focus Group 2).*

## **2.4. SUMMARY**

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative study from fifteen interviews with the School Manager, Operations Administrator, Operations and Finance Manager, Research Student Administration, Senior Lecturer, and a Lecturer and six focus groups with Staff and Doctoral Researchers at Brunel Business School (BBS). This study discusses the contextualisation of the research, namely to place the case of the Brunel Business School in context in terms of its history, positioning and branding. The questions answered were 'Where do we come from? And, 'where would BBS like to go?' What is needed is a more precise description of the BBS identity, the position it aspires to and its strategic intent.

## **CHAPTER III: REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON CORPORATE IDENTITY AND ARCHITECTURE**

In Chapter a general picture was drawn of the study as a whole. In the light of the multi-disciplinary approach which is being taken, the most significant task of the literature review is to examine the relationships in the corporate identity, architecture, identification triad.

In Chapter III, the literature review reveals there to be (i) a clear understanding of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification as the main research topics for this study; (ii) recognises the main literature in the corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification triad; (iii) recognises the different views on the research topic; (iv) clearly states the research questions; (v) proposes a way to examine the research questions (Churchill, 1979; Hart, 1998; Gupta *et al.*, 2010; Melewar, 2001); (vi) reflects the process of how this research idea emerged. The review of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification reveals the salience and importance of examining the relationship between the research concepts; (vii) review of the corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification literature puts this study into a theoretical setting.

Accordingly, a review of literature on corporate identity, architecture, stakeholders' identification triad and the related concepts is the focus of this chapter. This chapter provides an overview of the current study as discussed to recent references with two parts. It will start by investigating the corporate identity phenomenon in Section III.1. Then, a review of the literature on architecture will be provided in Section III.2. Finally, the definitions of the constructs are shown in Table 3.1.

## **SECTION III.1: REVIEW OF CORPORATE IDENTITY**

### **3.1.1. Introduction**

Every organisation has an identity. Corporate identity is the “articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and the way it goes about its business especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment” (Balmer, 2008, p. 899).

The focus Section 3.1.1 is a review of the literature on the concept of corporate identity. Research in the corporate identity area demonstrates that the significant purpose of corporate identity management is to achieve a favourable image of the company’s internal and external stakeholders (Abratt, 1989; Alessandri, 2001; Balmer, 1995; Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Olins, 1989; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Van Rekom, 1997) and reputation (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Dowling, 1986, 1993; Gray and Smeltzer, 1985; Olins, 1978; Stuart, 1999; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) that leads to competitive advantage (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar et al., 2006; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate identity deals with the experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings and knowledge that the public has about a corporation (Bernstein, 1986) and demonstrates the bundle of characteristics of the company and displays the company’s personality (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Olins, 1978; Van Heerden and Puth, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1995). Furthermore, an effective corporate identity helps employees to have the propensity to work for the company, as well as attracting more investors to buy the company’s shares (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Based on the analysis of the literature it was shown that there was a lack of empirical research on the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders’ identification trait.

This chapter provides a systematic review of the identity literature and reviews a range of literature in order to establish the domain of corporate identity and the related concepts in Section 3.1.2. Then, the intrinsic nature of identity and background is shown by examining

the growing interest in the evolution of perspectives in the corporate identity field provided in Section 3.1.3. Next, Section 3.1.4 examines corporate identity in relation to a number of different strands of established studies. Afterwards, Section 3.1.5 reviews the key concepts related to corporate identity management by drawing insights from the paradigms which authors (Balmer, 1995, 1998, 2001; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; He and Balmer, 2007; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) have identified as the four main theoretical perspectives: graphic design/visual identity, marketing, organisational studies, and a multi-disciplinary approach (He and Balmer, 2007) and explain why a multi-disciplinary approach has been adopted and why such an approach acts as the theoretical foundation for this study. This multiplicity of approaches illustrates the degree of dispersion of study in the field, followed by the corporate identity management construct outlined in Section 3.1.6. Finally, definition of the corporate identity concept is derived in Section 2.1.7.

### **3.1.2. Corporate identity and related concepts**

It is essential to address the term identity, when approaching corporate identity studies. Identity has been referred to in various contexts. The most essential of all identity types and the earliest definitions of identity related to individual identity (along with gender), can shape corporate identities (Balmer, 2006, 2007, 2008). Individual identity is determined by corporate identity, which is particularly related to the fields of sociology and ideology (role theory) (Balmer, 2008) and psychoanalysis (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997). A significant part of identity in psychology is the degree to which an individual views him/herself as a unique person in relation to other people (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997). The earliest psychologist who was explicitly interested in identity was Erikson (1960). In cognitive psychology, identity is defined as a capacity for self-reflection and the awareness of self (Leary and Tangney, 2003, p. 3). Erikson (1956) states that identity is “a mutual relation in that it connotes both a persistent sameness within oneself (self-sameness) and a persistent sharing of some kind of essential character with others” (p. 102). Analysis of this definition emphasises that the subject of identity is the individual rather than the organisation (He and Balmer, 2005, 2007) and the idiosyncratic things that make a person unique.

The notion of identity can also be associated with organisations. More precisely, “the identity goes back to the existence of a system of characteristics which has a pattern which gives the company its specificity, its stability and its coherence” (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997, p.

385). Identity may be seen as an abstract idea, a distinctive characteristic that suggests each organisation has its own personality, individuality and uniqueness that they express in their dealings with others. As some authors (Balmer, 2001; Bernstein, 1986; Cornelissen et al., 2007) state, organisations have a personality in the same way that people do. Identity can be viewed as the vehicle that expresses an organisation's unique characteristics to audiences (Abratt, 1989; Balmer et al., 2007; Bernstein, 1986; Olins, 1979). Corporate identity is the expression of a company (He and Mukherjee, 2009; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and the expression of an identity is a dynamic process so it may change or take different forms over time.

The early management and marketing literature has used corporate identity and corporate image interchangeably (e.g. Bernstein, 1986; Bick et al., 2003; Chajet, 1984; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1978, 1979, 1989; Schmitt and Simonson, 1997; Selame and Selame, 1975; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). For example, Martineau (1958) stresses the question, "what makes up a store's image in the minds of customers?" (p. 51). Store image elements such as architecture, layout, colour, advertising, and salespeople are used as concepts in the development of a retail personality. Marketing researchers have devoted considerable attention to developing the idea that consumers hold images of particular stores in their minds (e.g. Berry, 1969; Chowdhury et al., 1998; Kasulis and Lusch, 1981; Kunkel and Berry, 1968; Marks, 1976; Mazursky and Jacoby, 1968). What makes up a store's image in the minds of customers? Martineau (1958) stressed elements such as layout and architecture (e.g. modernisation of the physical plant), colour schemes, advertising, and salespeople. Each of these concepts has its own intellectual roots and practice-based adherents. Plummer (1984) states that corporate image is composed of the functional, physical and emotional characteristics of the organisation. The image is an expression of the corporate personality and co-ordinated and consistent communication with external and internal stakeholders is fundamental to the management of the corporate image (Bernstein, 1986, Olins, 1978). Corporate personality determines the corporate identity. Every corporation has a personality, which can be defined as a set of characteristics – behavioural and intellectual – which serve to distinguish one institution from another (Van Heerden and Puth, 1995). Spector (1961) employs human analogies by citing personality traits when referring to company image.

According to some authors (e.g. Balmer 1995; Van Riel, 1995; 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) an effective corporate identity management should attempt to influence a favourable corporate image and corporate reputation and vice versa so that the various stakeholders can buy the company's products and services, employees have the inclination to work for the company, and so on. The identity of a company is the root and the starting point for a strong corporate reputation and brand building and the tangible benefits of positive corporate reputation and branding champion the importance of identity study (e.g. Balmer and Gray, 2003; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Fombrun and Van Riel, 1997, 2004; Schultz and de Chernatory, 2002; Van Riel and van Bruggen, 2002). Favourable corporate reputation management embraces the visibility, distinctiveness, authenticity, transparency and consistency throughout the organisation (Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004). The main concepts used in the marketing literature relating to the notion of identity reveals that they corroborate the idea that the authors incorporate many human metaphors such as personality, identity and character which are concerned with communication or perceptions of a company and its characteristics.

In marketing, aligning image and identity is important and can be found in both practitioner and academic literature (Balmer, 2009). Some authors have defined corporate identity in two ways: i) as self-presentation (Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; Margulies, 1977; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Olins, 1989; Van Riel, 1995) and ii) or as organisational distinctiveness (Ackerman, 1988; Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Dowling 1986; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Van Rekom, 1997). Furthermore, corporate identity refers to the totality of the self-presentation of an organisation to various stakeholders (mainly customers) which associates with the elements of corporate identity mix which are personality, behaviour, communication and the symbolism to create a favourable image and a good reputation between its internal and external stakeholders (e.g. Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; He and Balmer, 2007; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Olins, 1989; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Balmer (2001) attempts to join corporate identity and organisational identity and offered a more comprehensive definition as,

“An organisation's identity is a summation of those tangible and intangible elements that make any corporate entity distinct. It is shaped by the actions of corporate founders and leaders, by tradition and the environment. At its core is the mix of employees' values which are expressed in terms of their affinities to corporate, professional, national and other



identities. It is multi-disciplinary in scope and is a melding of strategy, structure, communication and culture. It is manifested through multifarious communications channels encapsulating product and organisational performance, employee communication and behaviour, controlled communication and stakeholder and network discourse” (p. 280).

However, definitions of identity in the early literature are confusing and blurred. Some practitioner and academic studies use the terms image, reputation and identity interchangeably. Academics are more concerned with the structure whereas practitioners take a more process-oriented approach and tend to focus on the more tangible aspects of identity. Markwick and Fill (1997) define corporate identity as the “the organisation’s presentation of itself to its various stakeholders and the means by which it distinguishes itself from all other organisations” (p. 397). Corporate identity has an internal foundation in that it represents what is reflected by the company. Some researchers (Balmer, 1995, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2003; Hatch and Schultz, 2001; Knox and Bickerton, 2003; Schultz and de Chernatory, 2002; Schultz and Hatch, 2003; Van Riel and Maathuis, 1993; Van Riel and Van Bruggen, 2002) state that identity is the starting point for a strong and positive corporate image and corporate reputation. Corporate image has an external perspective since it refers to “the outside world’s overall impression of the company” (Mukherjee and Balmer, 2008, p. 10).

According to Karaosmanoglu et al. (2011) in the marketing field there is ambiguity about the concepts of corporate image and corporate reputation. Corporate image is defined similarly to corporate reputation and is defined as the accumulation of the views of external members, other than employees (Alvesson, 1998; Dutton et al., 1994), or the company over time (Dichter, 1985; Dowling, 1993; Ind, 1997; Kennedy, 1977). Some authors acknowledge the similarities between image and reputation and so several distinctions are made. Balmer (2009) introduces clear-cut definition for reputation and image: “Corporate image represents the immediate mental picture an individual has of an organisation whereas corporate reputation is the result of facts, beliefs, images and experiences encountered by an individual over time” (p. 558-559).

### **3.1.3. Intrinsic nature of identity**

Identity as a powerful term (Albert et al., 2000) is a central construct of corporate level marketing because of its essential role in the corporate image/reputation formation process

(He, 2008). The three major powers of identity and identification were explained by Albert et al. (2000) as first, “they speak to the very definition of an entity—an organisation, a group, a person they have been a subtext of many strategy sessions, organisation development initiatives, team-building exercises, and socialisation efforts. Identity and identification, in short, are root constructs in organisational phenomena and have been a subtext of many organisational behaviours”. The second part of the power of the constructs, “comes from the need for a situated sense of an entity. Whether an organisation, group, or person, each entity needs at least a preliminary answer to the question ‘Who are we?’ or ‘Who am I?’”. Third, the most essential part of the power of identity and identification, “derives from the integrative and generative capacity of these constructs” (p. 13). In terms of integrative capacity, there are terms that travel easily across levels of analysis dealing with an organisation, group, or individual (Albert et al., 2000; Gioia et al., 2000) in the sense of connection between an individual and an organisation (Ahearne et al., 2005; Dutton et al., 1994). Therefore, identity as a fundamental construct with its related concepts explains the direction and persistence of individuals, and more collective behaviours integrated framework in explaining organisational behaviours and strategic actions (Albert et al., 2000). The continuing generative richness of the concepts of organisational identity and identification have generative capacity and, “can be used as versatile concepts, frames, or tools that open up possibilities for theoretical development and revelation” (p. 13). The momentum of research identity and identification also comes from a rediscovery of the significance of meaning, motivation and feeling in organisational life.

Identity studies can be attributed to the organisation’s internal and external environment. At the organisational level, changes can make identity studies salient. The interrelationship between various organisational functions, such as human resource management, communication, marketing, and strategy, manifests the significance of employee behaviours in delivering consistent organisational functions (Schultz et al., 2000). The organisational identity concept is rooted in organisational behaviour (He and Balmer, 2007) and organisational behaviourists have focused on employee behaviour whereas the marketing scholars have concentrated on customer’s behaviour. According to He and Mukherjee (2009) the strong organisational identification is positively associated with more supportive, cooperative and loyal employee behaviour. Organisational members may have a strong identification, or alienation from, a corporate identity (Balmer, 2011). “Corporate identity

refers to an organisation's unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of employees" (Balmer and Wilson, 1998, p. 15). The behaviour of employees generates a basis for corporate image formation (Balmer, 1998; Dowling, 1986; Gray and Ind, 1997).

Organisational change is associated with the individual and group behaviour in organisational settings. Managing organisational behaviour challenges individuals to understand and embrace workforce diversity, elements of change, effective communication, and performance systems. According to some authors (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996) drawing on social identity theory, employees should try to fulfill their self-definitional needs by defining themselves in relation to their own work-places. Employees' effort to internalise the main characteristics of their organisations is a form of social identification (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). In Dutton et al.'s (1994) own words,

"... The degree to which a member defines him or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation" (p. 239).

Scholars (Gorb, 1992; Kennedy, 1977; Olins, 1991; Stuart, 2002) assert that employees have a vital role in corporate identity management. Balmer (1995) believes that managers need to realise, "that employees are particularly effective spokespersons for any organisation" (p. 40). Balmer (1998) added that,

"The most important audience for any company is its own staff I cannot understand how people can say that the most important audience they have is the consumer. Because if you cannot train your own staff in what you are, in what you think, in how to behave, and in what your mores and precepts are, how the hell can you expect to train your customer?" (p. 974).

Dutton et al. (1994) argued that organisational identification might result in outcomes desirable to the organisation, such as organisational members having a strong identification with, and loyalty to, the organisation by increasing or decreasing competition between sub-groups within the organisation. In addition, it reduces the risk of losing a qualified work force. Organisational identification may lead to greater personal commitment to the organisation and employees positively communicate the intended corporate identity to external parties (Foreman and Whetten, 2002). Senior management should be aware of the gap between its internal reality and external image, according to Dutton and Dukerich (1991) the cultural

atmosphere inside an organisation can turn into an undesirable environment. Senior management of an organisation is responsible for creating an organisational climate which nurtures the consensus among employees about their organisation's main purpose to create a favourable organisational identity and favourable organisational identification (Simoes et al., 2005). According to Greyser et al. (2006) institutional and/or individual behaviour which is considered inappropriate might lead to erosion of public support.

Macro environmental factors such as mergers and acquisitions, strategic alliances, spin-offs, outsourcing, increasing frequency of replacement of new technology, and the proliferation of new technology companies can contribute to the growth in interest in corporate identity and identification (Balmer, 1988; Balmer and Greyer, 2002). The ultimate purpose of change typologies is usually to provide classifications for different ways that organisational change can occur, for instance, they increase the potential for paying more attention to category definitions and less attention to the dynamics underlying the change event or the process itself (Corley and Gioia, 2004). Albert et al. (2000) states that macro environmental factors offered a simplified approach that encourages a focus on these important dynamics, and the organisation itself is complex which makes it difficult for members to make sense of who they are as an organisation. The outcome can be the cognitive and emotional bond to organisational members.

Organisational and managerial cognition can contribute to a better, empirically grounded understanding of an issue that is increasingly important to organisational identity as a cognitive schema (Ashforth and Mael, 1996). The association between macro environmental change and organisational change has attracted academics and practitioners to identity study.

#### **3.1.4. Identity study: Mapping the Terrain**

The literature covering the business identity domain refers to the triumvirate of concepts underpinning business identity, which are corporate identity, organisational identity and visual identity, and organisational identification (e.g. Balmer, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate identity is built mainly on corporate visual identity and often used interchangeably. Some researchers have drawn the distinction between corporate identity and visual identity (Abratt, 1989; Albert and Whetten, 1985; Alessandri, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Balmer, 1994, 1995, 2001; Bernstein, 1986; Birkight and Stadler, 1986;

Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006; Leitch and Motion, 1999; Melewar, 2000; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar and Wooldridge, 2001; Olins, 1978; Pilditch, 1970; Stuart, 1999; Stuart and Muzellec, 2004; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Van Rekom, 1993; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Van Riel et al., 2001; Van Riel and Van Hasselt, 2002; Wiedmann, 1988).

There has been mutual recognition between corporate identity and organisational identity. For instance, organisational identity is rooted in organisational behaviour (Albert and Whetten, 1985) and is a vital subject in organisational psychology (Dukerich et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Shamir and Kark, 2004). According to He and Balmer (2007), “organisational identity can be defined as the degree of salience with which an individual defines himself by his membership of an organisation in given circumstances (for instance, such membership may be mediated by spatial and/or temporal factors). Therefore, organisational identity is socially constructed and situational in nature” (p. 770). Hatch and Schultz (2000) attempts building across disciplines from the organisational behaviour to make a bridge between the corporate identity and organisational identity perspectives. Balmer (2008) notices that organisational identity authors such as Cardador and Pratt (2006) believed that the corporate identity/marketing literature represents an untapped and fertile ground for organisational behaviourists. Organisational identity was created in the corporate identity school of thought (Balmer, 1995).

Organisational identity has been subdivided into: i) identity of an organisation (organisation’s identity); and ii) identity with an organisation (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Hatch and Schultz, 2000; Ravasi and Van Rekom, 2003; Whetten and Godfrey, 1998). The three perspectives of identity studies are i) identity of people in an organisation (organisational identity), ii) identification with an organisation (organisational identification that is internal identification with organisation) and iii) identity of an organisation (Gioia et al., 2000).

However, Balmer (2008) introduced the five characteristics of identity and identification as ‘corporate identity quindrivium’, which defined it as “the place where five roads meet” (p. 885). i) “Identity of a corporation (what are the corporation’s distinguishing traits?)”. ii) “Identification from a corporation (what the corporation espouses to be/project via symbolism, especially visual identity?)”. iii) “Stakeholder/s identification with the

corporation (who am I/who am I in relation to the corporation?)”, iv) “Stakeholder/s identification to a corporate culture (who am I/who are we (in relation to a corporate culture?)”, and v) “envisioned identities and identifications (envisioned identity of another corporation towards us; envisioned identification with our corporation by a stakeholder group and envisioned identification of another corporate culture to our corporate culture) by underlying question of (what do envision to be our identity traits as perceived by another corporation?)” (p. 886-892).

### **3.1.5. Corporate identity (in broader sense)**

To answer how does a company develop an architecture in order to project a desired identity and vice-a-versa, the main four categorisations by authors Balmer (1995, 1998, 2001), Simoes et al. (2005) and Van Riel and Balmer (1997) are the visual/graphic design, organisational studies, integrated communication, marketing and multi-disciplinary perspectives which are explained in the following sections.

#### **Perspective 1: Visual identity: visual and verbal cues**

Corporate visual identity (CVI) is one of the principal means whereby the company’s corporate identities are manifested visually (Bernstein 1984; Olins 1978, 1989; Selame and Selame 1988) in order to develop a strong corporate image and reputation. Corporate identity has its origin in graphic design in the 1930s and 1940s (Steiner, 2003). The term “corporate identity” was used by Margulies to differentiate his work from American designers in the 1950s (Steiner, 2003). Topalian (1984) states that visual identity is the face of the company. The early authors in the field of graphic design were practitioners until the main emphasis of corporate identity research conducted in the 1980s (Balmer, 1995; Carter, 1982; Simoes et al., 2005). The visual identity paradigm focuses on organisational nomenclature, company name, logos, buildings, company’s architecture, and the design and the decor of the corporate retail outlets’ architecture and exterior design, interior design, and so on, in fact, anything that can be related to graphic design (Bernstein, 1986; Carter, 1982; Hatch and Schultz, 2000; Ind, 1990; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1989, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Selame and Selame, 1988).

Kennedy (1977) demonstrated that an organisation’s employees play a role in creating an organisational identity and in its communication to external stakeholders. Kennedy’s (1977) study shows that corporate identity impacts beliefs and behaviours of organisational members

on which the corporate culture is built (Balmer, 1995; Downey, 1986). Therefore, the characteristics of organisational culture may be reflected through corporate symbolism (Balmer, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate symbols that transmit the strategic, visual dimensions of corporate identity to various audiences require management (Balmer, 1997; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). According to the authors Balmer (1995) and Van Riel and Balmer (1997) the focus of study in this field has shifted to the assessment of how visual expressions of an organisation were designed to reflect its core values and principles. Identity should be communicated by all corporate features, visible (e.g. buildings, communication material) and invisible (e.g. organisational behaviours towards internal and external audiences). All the features should communicate to internal audiences (Margulies, 1977) and external audiences, which introduce the concept of corporate image (Gioia et al., 2000). Corporate identity and corporate image must be coherent (Carter, 1982). Visual identity has been generally praised as a way of transmitting a company's identity through visual and tangible aspects, which impact its image in the eyes of different stakeholders. Identity facilitates clarifying the organisation's structure. The major conceptual development of the visual/graphic school was introduced by Olins (1978, 1991).

Balmer (1995, 1996, 2009) identified seven corporate identity schools of thought which are strategic, strategic visual, behavioural, visual behavioural, corporate communications, strategic communications, and design-as-fashion. The three schools of corporate identity, which are non-graphic design concentrates on strategic, cultural (behavioural) or promotional (corporate communications) in nature and are related to social identity, organisational identity and visual identity/corporate identity (Balmer, 2009). The remaining schools (strategic visual, visual behavioural, strategic communications, and design-as-fashion) related graphic design to the organisation's strategy, culture and communications. Graphic design incorporates strategic change. It can be achieved through visual means, the integrated corporate communication, and the multi-disciplinary perspectives (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Visual identity is the face of the company (Topalian, 1984) used consistently across all possible forms of a company's physical identification (e.g. advertisements, letterheads, business cards, buildings, and logos) (Carter, 1982; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1991, 1978; Pilditch, 1970). It brings visibility to a company and should be kept modern (Balmer, 2001; Karaosmanoglu et al., 2011; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) in order to create a favourable corporate image. The visual school focuses on a corporate visual identity.

The strategic school focuses on corporate strategy, corporate communications, and organisational behaviour which articulate the corporate vision, mission and philosophy (Olins, 1995) and are related to corporate communication, public relations and reputation management communication. The strategic visual school focuses on strategic change, which can be achieved through visual means and is rooted in graphic design. Integrated corporate communication is focused on the integration of marketing communications and public relations, marketing communications functions, and integration of all communications functions (Balmer, 2009). The integrated corporate communication school of thought is focused on the need for effective communication with various stakeholders (Bernstein, 1986). Some studies (Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2000) have stated that the total corporate communications consists of primary (the communication effects of products and of corporate behaviour) and secondary, as well as tertiary communications (word-of-mouth and messages imparted about the organisation from third parties). Corporate communications (what we claim we are) relates to the totality of company's controlled messages to stakeholders (Balmer et al., 2011).

From the visual identity perspective, Olins (1978 and 1991) proposed that organisations express their corporate culture and corporate strategy mainly by employing three visual identity styles, namely i) monolithic, for example, authors (Melewar et al., 2005; Olins, 1989, 1995; Van Riel, 1995) refer to monolithic identity where the organisation consistently uses its name and style across the organisation. ii) Endorsed identity where the organisation has several activities or companies which are endorsed by the group name and identity and the brand is associated with subsidiaries (e.g. Holiday Inn Express). iii) Branded identity where products are differentially branded and may be unrelated to each other or the company (e.g. Pantene and Wella at the Procter and Gamble Corporation).

Baker and Balmer (1997) have described the adoption of a new visual identity for a UK university and discussed how the role of visual identity assessment and audit would be helpful in terms of spotting the organisation's weaknesses and malaises. The results of the study suggested that visual identity should be integrated into a holistic approach to organisational repositioning. The visual treatment and quality of an organisation's output makes up its visual identity.



## **Perspective 2: Corporate identity: integrated communication approach**

The integrated communications approach was realised by marketers and graphic designers' knowledge of the efficacy of overall consistency in formal visual and marketing communications led to a number of authors arguing that there should be consistency in formal corporate communication (Bernstein, 1986, 1986; Keller, 1993; Schultz et al., 1994; Van Riel, 1995, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). This approach links communication and marketing theory. According to Van Riel (1995, 1997) the integrated communication approach to corporate identity as self-presentation has shifted towards a multi-disciplinary approach.

The integrated marketing communications is defined by Duncan and Everett (1993, p. 33) as "the strategic co-ordination of all messages and media used by an organisation to influence its perceived brand value". By integrating the companies' communication strategies, they can generate synergies between their different forms of communication. Furthermore, companies should place more stress on internal communications. According to Kennedy (1977) looking at the formal communication activities suggested that employees' interactions with external audiences are influences on corporate image. Authors (e.g. Abratt, 1989; Barich and Kotler, 1991; Bernstein, 1986; Dowling, 1986; Gray and Smeltzer, 1987; Schmitt et al., 1995; Wells and Spinks, 1999) researched how company's corporate identity should be communicated internally and externally.

It is important that organisations harmonises their internal and external communications to facilitate the generation of a favourable image of company for the stakeholders (Gilly and Wolfenbarger, 1998; Van Riel, 1995). Moreover, Abratt (1989) states that there is interface consistency among the projected identities and the perceived image. Corporate communication embraces marketing, organisational, and management communication (Van Riel, 1995). Corporate image can be communicated through nomenclature, formal statements organisational communication, imagery and graphics, permanent media (e.g. stationery, buildings), and promotional media (e.g. advertising, public relations) (Gray and Smeltzer, 1985). These forms of communication should be consistent and coherent to external audiences in the environment (Gilly and Wolfenbarger, 1998). Total corporate communications include primary, secondary, as well as tertiary communications (Balmer and Gray, 2000). Bick et al. (2003) argued that it is vital to understand the company's corporate identity whether it is communicated efficiently in order to make sure that the stakeholders of

an organisation perceive it as projected. Bernstein's (1986) study states that the integrated communication paradigm emphasises the need for effective communication with all the company's stakeholders. Stakeholders can include employees or even competitors (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Olins, 2000; Schultz and Ervolder, 1998). The integrated communication approach is related to corporate identity as total corporate communication and is necessary for managing associations with stakeholders.

### **Perspective 3: Corporate identity: marketing approach**

The corporate identity concept has strong practitioner roots and has a notable marketing presence (He and Balmer, 2007). Within this perspective, corporate identity is grounded in corporate-level concepts such as corporate branding, corporate communications, corporate image, and corporate reputation (Balmer and Greyser, 2003; He and Balmer, 2007). Connecting the notion of identity and marketing philosophy is related to the company (Balmer, 2008). The early literature of marketing scholarship (e.g. Bolger, 1959; Easton, 1966; Hill, 1962, Martineau, 1958; Nelson, 1962; Newman, 1953; Spector, 1961; Tucker, 1961) focuses on customers and stakeholders' perception of corporate identity and its advantage to organisations and stakeholders (Balmer, 2011).

The complicated perceptions of stakeholders and the complex markets have required companies to position their product brands by distinguishing their companies (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Balmer (2011) asserts that authors in the marketing field have focused on product brands. The significance of outcome of corporate brands is to consider the relationship between institutional and product brands. Corporate identity may be viewed as branding at the corporate level (Schmitt and Pan, 1994). Ind (1997) states that "a corporate brand is more than just the outward manifestation of an organisation its name, logo, visual presentation. Rather it is the core of values that defines it" (p. 13). Some authors (Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2003; Knox and Bickerton, 2003; McDonald et al., 2001, Simoes et al., 2005) acknowledged the organisation as a brand in its entirety and organisation as a strategic element in branding which presents an opportunity to include a company's core values among its strategic selling points (Hatch and Schultz, 2000, 2003; Urde, 2003) and organisations should avoid unclear core values (Urde, 1999 and 2009). The branding concept can be directly applied at the corporate level (Aaker, 1996; Ind, 1997). Berry (2000) describes,

“Branding plays a special role in service companies because strong brands increase customers’ trust of the invisible purchase. Strong brands enable customers to better visualise and understand intangible products. They reduce customers’ perceived monetary, social, or safety risk in buying services, which are difficult to evaluate prior to purchase. Strong brands are the surrogates when the company offers no fabric to touch, no trousers to try on, no watermelons or apples to scrutinise, no automobile on test-drive” (p. 128).

He and Balmer (2007) argued that in terms of addressing some fundamental marketing issues, corporate identity can be explanatory. Institutional brands (corporate brand) is part of corporate marketing (Balmer, 2008) which conveys the corporate identity characteristics of an organisation, and works as a means for establishing the desired identity perception in the minds of both an organisation’s internal and external stakeholders (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). This assumption asserts that the main purpose of marketing communications is to develop a desired corporate image with the audience and unsuccessful communications “may result in key groups holding erroneous and negative perceptions of the corporate brand” (Balmer, 1995, p. 35). From a behavioural perspective, brand orientation emphasises the significance of brand identity which contains three elements (mission, vision, and values) as a guiding light and hub for organisational culture, behaviour, and strategy (Urde et al., 2013).

Marketing scholars have focused on customers and believe that all stakeholders’ perceptions as primary receivers of corporate communications should be investigated to analyse the link between visual identification and customer/stakeholder perceptions of the corporation (Balmer, 2007). Brown (1998) states the particular relations that consumers have with a company’s core values are in the basis of their beliefs, feelings and experiences about the company. For example, Nguyen (2006) identified the information, which was employed by credit union members in evaluating the image of their service organisations. The results show that the physical environment, countries cooperative value, organisational culture and identity, and contact personnel are significant factors affecting internal-stakeholders’ perceptions of corporate image.

Communication has a relationship with both external and internal stakeholders’ perceptions (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). Adopting this perspective means looking at the contributions of employees to the external perception of an organisation (De Charnatony and Harris, 2000). Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) stressed how “internal communication

programs to employees and firm partners, can be vital to creating the clarity and culture needed to deliver on the identity” (p. 317). According to the literature (Balmer, 1998; Barich and Kotler, 1991; Dowling, 1986; Gray and Ind, 1997; Keller, 1999; Kennedy, 1977; Van Riel, 1995) employees transmit the company’s values to customers and they have an influence on employee behaviour in communicating organisational messages externally. Fill (2002) suggested that service brands need to employ internal communications due to the essential role and employees play in such brands. The company’s employees are the main players in transmitting the brand message and become part of the ‘brand reality’. For instance, one of Virgin’s branding foundations’ responsibilities is to motivate the organisation’s employees.

#### **Perspective 4: Corporate identity: organisational approach**

The organisational literature centres on organisational members’ perceptions (member identification) and identity (Kennedy, 1977) and organisational behaviour, (e.g. Albert and Whetten, 1985; Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Foreman and Whetten, 2002; Gioia and Thomas, 1996; Gioia et al., 2000; Whetten and Godfrey, 1998; Whetten and Mackey, 2002) which are connected to organisational identity by focusing on the association between employees and organisations (Balmer, 1998; Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Scholars (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994) have argued that companies’ employees should perceive their own organisation and understand how they interpret external’ views of their organisation to influence their attachment to their own organisations by perceiving the importance of the organisation’s identity (what the organisation stands for and where the organisation intends to go) and internalising a cognitive structure. According to He and Balmer (2007), the organisational perspective on the organisation’s identity is connected to organisational and managerial cognition. Cognitive connection with the organisation and the employees’ behaviours suggests the concept of organisational identification as defined by Dutton et al. (1994) as “when a person’s self-concept contains the same attributes as those in the perceived organisational identity, we define this cognitive connection as organisational identification” (p. 239). It may be that the strong emphasis on cognition in organisational identity theory and research merely reflected the ‘cognitive revolution’ in psychological research.

Research on organisational behaviour constituted by corporate identity management primarily draws on organisational culture studies (Balmer, 1998; Hatch and Schultz, 1997). The related

terms to this approach are: organisation identity (identity of an organisation), image, reputation and organisational identification. Corporate identity has an overlap with the multi-disciplinary approach to organisational identity (Balmer 2001; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The organisation's identity is the organisation's self-perception from the organisational perspective (He and Balmer, 2005).

Organisational identity has been defined by scholars (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001) as what are an organisations's central (i.e., the character), distinctive and enduring characteristics which are of interest to corporate identity management. Ashforth and Mael (1989) identified the identity in organisation and identity with organisation as two perspectives of identity studies. Gioia et al. (2000) comments that,

“We might characterise extant approaches to studying identity as involving three ways of thinking about the concept: (1) concern with the identity of organisations, (2) concern with the identity of people within organisations, and (3) concern with people's identification with organisations. The first of these related domains is the area most in need of innovative thinking and also is the area with the most potential for becoming a definitive area for organisational study, rather than another eclectic handmaiden of psychology and sociology” (p. 146).

Organisational identity is related to a special form of the individual's social identity, which highlights the salience of organisational membership to the individual (Marin and de Maya, 2013; Pratt, 1998). Employees' perceived organisational identity and their construed external image of organisations reflects the extent to which the insiders' experience of that organisation is perceived as positive/negative by outsiders (Dutton et al., 1994). Organisational members use images such as a gauge to assess how external people judge organisations. Dutton and Dukerich (1991, p. 518) clarified the matter: “our interpretation is that some organisational actions are tied to sets of concerns that we call issues. Issues are events, developments, and trends that an organisation's members collectively recognise as having some consequence to the organisation”. Dutton and Dukerich (1991) defined organisational identity, image and reputation as:

“An organisation's identity describes what its members believe to be its character; an organisation's image describes attributes members believe people outside the organisation use to distinguish it. Organisational image is different from reputation: reputation describes the actual attributes outsiders ascribe to an organisation, but image describes insiders' assessments of what outsiders think. Both organisational image and identity are constructs held in organisation members' minds” (p. 547).

Authors (Dutton et al., 1994; Ashfort and Mael, 1989) argue that employees' efforts to internalise the main characteristics of their organisations is a form of social identification. Drawing on social identity theory authors (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996; Marin and de Maya, 2013) state that an organisation's employees define themselves in relation to their own work-places (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996). Employees try to internalise the main characteristics of their organisations as a form of social identification (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Dutton et al. (1994) as "... the degree to which a member defines him- or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation" (p. 239). Organisational studies underlie social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Dutton et al., 1994; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996). According to social identity theory there is a psychological link between organisational and social identities and the way employees try to identify with the work-place. Ashforth and Mael (1989) have confirmed that organisational identification is a form of social identification and there are multiple identities inside the organisation. Organisational identification is related to the process of depersonalisation and incorporates organisational identity into self-definition (Pratt, 1998).

Ashforth and Mael (1989) have noted that employees' behaviour and employee's identification could have an influential power on the identity of the company for the external stakeholders. They assert that social identification can create the initialisation of beliefs of employees, group values and norms and homogeneity in attitudes and behaviour. Ashforth and Mael (1989) addressed social identification as,

"Distinguishable from internalisation, whereas identification refers to self in terms of social categories (I am), internalisation refers to the incorporation of values, attitudes, and so forth within the self as guiding principles (I believe). Although certain values and attitudes typically are associated with members of a given social category, acceptance of the category as a definition of self does not necessarily mean acceptance of those values and attitudes. An individual may define herself in terms of the organisation she works for, yet she can disagree with the prevailing values, strategy, system of authority, and so on" (p. 21-22).

Corporate identity and organisational identity are complex concepts and three perspectives can be recognised on organisational and identity studies as: i) identity of organisation (organisation's identity) which is related to individual's identity (Gioia, 1998) and

represents the essence of that identity which can answer the questions about ‘who we are and what we are’. ii) identity (of people) in the organisation (individual’s organisational identity) is a metaphor coming from an organisational identity or social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989) which an individual defines him/herself by resorting to their membership of the focal organisation either spatially or temporally. Individuals have personal identity (who I am), as well as social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Marin and de Maya, 2013; Tajfel and Turner, 1985) iii) identity with the organisation (organisational identification). Organisational identification is used interchangeably with organisational identity. Organisational identity is used to describe a state and organisational identification to describe a process (Ashforth and Johnson, 2001). Organisational identification, occurs when an individual’s beliefs about his or her organisation become self-referential or self-defining (Pratt, 1998, p. 172).

Top managers play a fundamental role in influencing internal and external stakeholders’ identification with the organisation. In order to differentiate organisations in the eyes of managers and stakeholders they aim for the promotion of favourable organisational images to achieve organisational goals, mission, organisational practices, values and action which contributes to shaping organisational identity (Scott and Lane, 2000). According to Sutton and Callahan (1987) a damaged managerial image influences trust of target audiences’ in the organisation. Regarding the artefacts of identity, managers are responsible in creating and managing symbols such as physical settings to express an organisation’s identity. The expression of behaviours and artefacts should be consistent in all internal and external forms in order to convey the desired identity. Ashforth and Mael (1989) assert that,

“It is tacitly understood by managers that a positive and distinctive organisational identity attracts the recognition, support, and loyalty of not only organisational members but other key constituents (e.g. stakeholders, customers, job seekers), and it is this search for a distinctive identity that induces organisations to focus so intensely on advertising, names and logos, jargon, leaders and mascots, and so forth” (p. 28).

Accordingly, corporate identity management should be conceived within multiple disciplines and should be seen to represent three major dimensions: i) visual identity/symbolism (Carter, 1982; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970), ii) communication (Van Riel, 1995), and iii) philosophy, mission and values (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1994).

Visual identity as a hard tangible fundamental of corporate identity forms the physical symbols and generates physical recognition of the organisation (Carter, 1982; Melewar and Saunders, 1998; Pilditch, 1970; Olins, 1991). However, the intangibility of services exacerbates the difficulty of managing the visual components. For instance, architecture (physical evidence, environmental design, and decor) and employee presentation help to convey the tangible hints that impact customer behaviour (Bitner, 1990). The visual identity of an organisation can be viewed as identification (Downey, 1986). Furthermore, the design components indicate the company's culture and values and should be recognised by the organisation's employees (Berry, 2000). According to Bitner (1990) in a service encounter context, the physical environment can influence how consumers perceive service failure and should be used to differentiate services from competitors'.

From the marketing perspective, everything in and about a company is communication. According to some authors (Van Riel, 1995) communication is the touchstone for presenting an image. Marketing messages should be consistent and coherent in all forms of communication to create a cohesive corporate identity and corporate image. The company's philosophy, mission, and values dimension gives the organisation a consistency and attempts to bring a strategic basis to the corporate identity construct. Corporate philosophy is an important step in the process of creating an identity. The key element of philosophy is the corporate mission. Balmer (1996) states, "the acquisition of a favourable corporate image is dependent upon and understanding of, and, where appropriate, the nurturing by management of a distinct corporate culture which reflects the corporate mission and philosophy and as such becomes one of the dominant cultures within the organisation (i.e., the desired corporate personality) which results in the desired corporate identity (i.e., where the innate character of the organisation mirrors the corporate strategy and philosophy)" (p. 254). Corporate identity is related to corporate values and sharing them with organisational members. The company's philosophy indicates the company's decisions, policies and actions. Every organisation has a vision and a mission statement (Dowling, 1994), which transmit the company's purpose and aspirations. Levin (2000) defined the vision and mission statements as: mission is an explanation of what the organisation is and does - the business and beliefs about how it ought to be conducted and its contribution in general and usually last over time. However, vision is "a high lucid story of an organisation's preferred future in action. A future can describe as



what life will be like for employees, customers, and other key stakeholders” (Levin, 2000, p. 93).

### **Perspective 5: Corporate identity: interdisciplinary/multi-disciplinary approach**

Corporate identity is a multifaceted phenomenon (Balmer, 1995, 1998). There is a large and distinctive body of knowledge on corporate identity which is one of an organisation’s most important assets and, therefore, is worthy of constant management likely to benefit from a multi-disciplinary/interdisciplinary approach (Balmer, 2001, 2008; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Brown et al., 2006; Cornelissen et al., 2007, He and Balmer, 2006; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

From the multi-disciplinary approach, corporate identity management relates to corporate values and principles which constitute its personality (Balmer, 1995; Birkight and Stadler, 1980; Olins, 1978), the organisation’s historical roots, its corporate strategy (Wiedmann, 1988). The corporate identity mix within the multi-disciplinary approach consists of the four elements: behaviour/ communications/ symbolism, mind/ soul/ voice, communication/ visual identity and behaviour/ corporate culture/ market conditions (He and Balmer, 2007, p. 768), and employees’ sense making about their organisation’s identity in order to bring about a favourable corporate reputation (Fombrun, 1996). Some authors (Balmer, 2007, 2009; Brown et al 2006; Hatch and Schultz 1997, He and Balmer, 2007) have highlighted the importance role of a corporate behaviour which begins to dissipate in relation to identity as people judge the corporation by its actions. Communications as integrated to corporate identity is based on the sum of the ways (verbal and visual) a corporation decides to be recognised by its public (Balmer and Greyser, 2003; He and Balmer, 2007). Symbolism, as shown in the visual audit, provides useful insights into a corporate identity, which includes all sorts of visual cues to increase corporate visibility and helps to distinguish the organisation (Balmer, 2001; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

Mind is the conscious decisions made by the companies, which consists of managerial vision, strategy and product performance, corporate philosophy, and corporate history (Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; He and Balmer, 2007). Soul is a subjective element of corporate identity that consists of values held by personnel and is influenced by the mix of sub-cultures, and the mix of identity types present within organisations (Balmer, 2001; Urde, 2003).

Balmer (2001) has employed the term “voice”, which refers to the total corporate communication. Balmer (2001) maintains,

“Every organisation has an identity. It articulates the corporate ethos, aims and values and presents the sense of individuality that can help to differentiate the organisation within its competitive environment. When well-managed, corporate identity can be a powerful means of integrating the many disciplines and activities essential to an organisation’s success. It can also provide the visual cohesion necessary to ensure that all corporate communications are coherent with each other and result in an image consistent with the organisation’s defining ethos and character.

By effectively managing its corporate identity an organisation can build understanding and commitment among its diverse stakeholders. This can be manifested in an ability to attract and retain customers and employees, achieve strategic alliances, gain the support of financial markets and generate a sense of direction and purpose. Corporate identity is a strategic issue. Corporate identity differs from traditional brand marketing since it is concerned with all of an organisation’s stakeholders and the multifaceted way in which an organisation communicates” (Balmer, 2001, p. 291).

The corporate identity is reflected by the existence of multiple versions of corporate identity within an organisation. ACID test is a sophisticated model which has undergone a number of developments and refinements of corporate identity management (Balmer, 2009). The variations of the ACID test related to multiple categorisations of corporate identity are ACID AC2ID, and AC3ID (Balmer, 2010; Balmer and Greyser, 2003; He and Balmer, 2007). Corporate identity management requires alignment between identity types. There are six identity types: actual identity, communicated identity, ideal identity, desired identity, conceived identity (Balmer, 2001; Balmer et al., 2009; Balmer and Gray, 2003; Balmer and Greyser 2002; He and Balmer, 2007), and covenanted or corporate brand identity (Balmer, 2010; He and Balmer, 2007). Corporate brand identity “in turn describes a distillation of corporate identity” (Urde, 2013, p. 744).

Actual identity (what we really are) as unique attributes of the corporation can be shaped by a number of elements consisting of purposes, leadership style of management, organisational structure, business activities, corporate style and ethos, markets covered, and overall business performance. Actual identity includes the set of values held by those who ‘make’ the company (management and employees) (Balmer and Greyser 2002; Balmer et al., 2009).

Communicated identity (what we say we are) includes controlled (advertising, sponsorship, and public relations), and non-controlled communications (word-of-mouth, media commentary), and total corporate communications (primary, secondary, and tertiary communications) (Balmer, 2009; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; Balmer et al., 2009).

Ideal identity (what we ought to be) is the optimum strategic (future-oriented) positioning of the corporation in the market. The ideal identity includes organisational competencies and prospects assets, the competition, and changes in the political, economic, ethical, social, and technological environment. It refers to strategic planning leadership, environmental and corporate analysis, and the corporate structure's actual identity (Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2003; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; Balmer et al., 2009; He and Balmer, 2007).

Desired identity (what we wish to be) is often misunderstood to be almost indistinguishable from ideal identity (Balmer and Greyser, 2002). Desired identity lives in the hearts and minds of the company's CEO; it is the vision, personality and ego of the corporate leader. Desired identity is cognitive/aspirational in character, whereas ideal identity usually emerges by following a rational assessment of the organisation's research and analysis in a particular time and is strategic in nature (Balmer, 2009; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; Balmer et al., 2009).

Conceived identity (what we are seen to be) refers to corporate image, the corporate reputation of the organisation (which held by customers and other stakeholder groups), and corporate branding. Management must make a judgment as to which external publics' perceptions are most important to the organisation (Balmer, 2009; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; Balmer et al., 2009).

Covenanted or corporate brand identity (what the brand stands for) is underpins a corporate brand and is associated with the architecture. It is "owing to the power and strength of association with a corporate brand by customers, employees, and others (which sometimes has a religious-like fervor), the term covenant appears to be appropriate" (Balmer et al., 2009, p. 20). The brand identity in turn serves as a 'bridge' between the internal identity and the identity that the customers perceive (Urde, 2009). According to Van Riel and Balmer (1997) the interdisciplinary perspective draws on marketing, and this includes those undertaking research in human resources, organisational studies, graphic design, public relations and

communication studies. Van Riel and Balmer (1997) formulated the following statement:

“Academics acknowledge that corporate identity refers to an organisation’s unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of members of the organisation... management of an organisation's identity is of strategic importance and requires a multi-disciplinary approach” (p. 341).

A multi-disciplinary approach (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) addresses the question of ‘what are we as an organisation’, and the characteristics, which make the corporate identity distinctive (He and Balmer, 2007, p. 772). This approach draws heavily on organisational behaviour (Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Some authors (Birkight and Stadler, 1980; Olins, 1978; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) have proposed that the understanding of corporate identity has gradually broadened and is now taken to indicate the way in which an organisation’s identity is revealed through communicative and behavioural activities, as well as through strategically planned symbolism for internal and external audiences.

According to He and Balmer (2007) corporate identities and corporate brands are inseparable and should be aligned. Corporate branding can be related to multiple stakeholders and management of corporate identity requires formal communication with them internally and externally (Balmer, 1998; Balmer and Gray, 2003, Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Some authors (Balmer, 2001; Bick et al., 2003; Christensen and Askegaard, 2001; Dacin and Brown, 2002; Karaosmanoglu, 2005; Melewar and Simoes, 2001; Melewar et al., 2003; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) emphasise corporate identity management, which need to follow a multi-disciplinary approach. For instance, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) included social identity theory in marketing-oriented studies and developed a framework in order to understand how the corporate identity can influence internal-stakeholders’ identification with their companies and, furthermore, they introduced the new term of “stakeholders’ identification”.

Having broadly recognised the breadth across which corporate identity can be conceptualised, following the interdisciplinary approach, multiple inputs are considered in the discussion.

### **3.1.6. The corporate identity management construct**

Corporate identity is the holistic, multi-disciplinary and integrated approach to corporate identity management (Balmer, 1999; Bernstein, 1986). Corporate identity management is a multifaceted phenomenon (Balmer, 1995 and 1998). The corporate identity management construct aims to recognise aspects of identity that are manageable and that are used to develop corporate identity. The domain of the corporate identity construct is concerned with the controllable aspects of corporate identity.

Discussion in the literature about the components of corporate identity is widespread. Corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and serves as a vehicle for the expression of the company's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), values, beliefs, and mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005), communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995).

#### **Philosophy, mission, and value**

Corporate identity management captures and serves as a vehicle for the expression of the company's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Melewar, 2003), values, beliefs, and mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005). "The creation of a corporate identity often begins with the articulation of a business philosophy" (Simoes et al., 2005, p. 158). The term "corporate philosophy" has become popular since the 1980's (Ledford et al., 1995; Peters and Waterman, 1982) and is critical for coordinating the company's activities. Many publications have described the concept of management philosophy referring to company culture (Athos and Pascale, 1981; Ouchi, 1981; Wright, 1984). According to Abratt (1989), corporate

philosophy is an element of corporate culture and embodies the core values and assumptions of a corporation (Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003).

A corporation's philosophy is defined as the set of guideline principles that help communicate goals, plans, and policies and behaviour to all employees at all levels of a company (Wright, 1984). The philosophy establishes the context of day-to-day operating decisions and guides the organisation in making trade-offs among competing performances for short-term and long-term goals (Ledford et al., 1995; Wright, 1984), and the performance and all activities of the organisation tends to be linked directly to the philosophy (Wright, 1984). The company's philosophy "directs decisions, policies, and actions and entails core motivating assumptions, principles, values, and tenets" (Simoes et al., 2005, p. 158).

According to Van Rekom (1997) there has been a proliferation of statements of corporate beliefs through corporate philosophies and statements of corporate principles. O'Gorman and Doran's (1999) corporate philosophy and mission statements motivate employees. A philosophy statement can help channel employee attention in a direction, share goals and expectations, in order to understand how their individual roles fit within a larger picture (Ledford et al., 1995). According to Ledford et al. (1995) philosophy describes the 'right thing' in the minds of employees and managers alike, and philosophy is a key to business success (Ledford et al., 1995). The philosophy, mission and values dimension impacts upon the organisation's strategy and organisational culture (Dowling, 1986). According to Balmer (1994) "the emerging alternative theory on corporate identity emphasises the importance of strategy; the articulation of a corporate philosophy and the acquisition of a corporate culture" (p. 43).

Corporate philosophy can be expressed in the corporation mission statement (Collins and Porras, 1991; Simoes et al., 2005). A corporate mission is a corporation purpose for the existence of the company and is the most important part of the corporate philosophy (Abratt, 1989; De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanglu, 2006). The corporate mission is "vital to the corporate identity, in explaining why the corporation exists and what engages and motivates it, beyond the aim of making money" (Urde, 2013, p. 751). According to Swales and Rogers (1995), a mission statement emerges and collaborates in response to crises. Most are designed as displayable single page documents, which deal with abstractions

possessing a strategic level of generality and ambiguity (Fairhurst, 1993). Mission statements are very different and tend to stress value, positive behaviour and guiding principles within the company's belief and ideology, in order to promote corporate culture and philosophy. Corporate mission statements are engendered by senior management or the CEO (Swales and Rogers, 1995). A company's mission statement functions as a principle of order (Primeaux, 1992, p. 78) and organises the company's principles (Fritz et al., 1999). According to Gray and Balmer (1997) this feature is very important and corporate culture (i.e. common values and beliefs held by organisational members) should impact organisational philosophy. Balmer (1996) asserts,

“(...) the acquisition of a favourable corporate image is dependent upon and understanding of, and, where appropriate, the nurturing by management of a distinct corporate culture which reflects the corporate mission and philosophy and as such becomes one of the dominant cultures within the organisation (i.e., the desired corporate personality) which results in the desired corporate identity (i.e., where the innate character of the organisation mirrors the corporate strategy and philosophy)” (p. 254).

Therefore, to manage corporate identity, decision makers need to communicate the organisation's values and beliefs to employees and employees should be “aware of what they are doing to enforce their ethical standards and that reward managers' adherence to standards are acting wisely, reinforcing the organisation's identity and strengthening employee commitment to that identity” (Fritz et al., 1999, p. 297). It is vital that the whole company understands the meaning of the corporate core values. If they do so, it is possible for the core values to become transformed into a way of acting that influences the behaviour of the whole corporation. Thus, the values can serve as a relationship between the soul of the corporation and the identity of the customers (Urde, 2003). In addition, core values can be viewed as dynamic entities and the only way for a corporation to achieve them is through action (Urde, 2003) which involves the core values having to be proven over and over again (Urde, 2009).

The starting point for a company's philosophy is the company's vision (Collins and Porras, 1991). A company's vision “extends the mission by formalising its view of where it is heading and what inspires it to move forward” (p. 751). There is some confusion between corporate vision and mission. De Witt and Meyer (1998) confirmed that corporate mission is the basic point of departure, whereas a corporate vision is the desired future at which the company hopes to arrive (Melewar, 2003). Levin (2000) explains vision as “a high lucid story

of an organisation's preferred future in action. A future that describes what life will be like for employees, customers, and other key stakeholders" (p. 93). Cummings and Davies (1994) elucidate that "the value of any statement of corporate mission or vision lies in fusing together a corporation's many elements by providing some commonality of purpose" (p. 150) and are sources of commitment (Urde, 2013).

Corporate vision can be defined as the signature of a company, which helps it to stand out from its competition (Hatch and Schultz, 2001). According to Kissler (1991), effective change requires a formal communication strategy and captivating vision to help the essential consensus building. Most identity change programmes reflect the vision of the CEO (Balmer, 2001). Corporate vision is typically expressed by the corporation founder and/or the chief executive and management board (Balmer, 2001). Avison et al. (1998) proposed a process model of the area of corporate vision. De Chernatony (2001) presented the significance of strategic vision to identity and branding, as a means to integrated brand building. Hatch and Schultz (2001) state that the gaps between strategic vision, organisational culture and corporate image, serve to identify the key dilemma areas for corporate brands.

Corporate vision is the desired future at which the company hopes to arrive (Collins and Porras, 1994; Hatch and Schultz, 2003; Melewar, 2003; Hatch and Schultz, 2003), which is the corporate direction and inspiration (Urde, 2013), and which impacts upon the organisation's strategy (Dowling, 1986). The role of strategic vision requires top managers to reflect on what the company is and what it wants to become in the future (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Balmer and Soenen (1999) argued that corporate identity is driven by relating vision to changes in corporate strategy. However, there is a relationship between vision and the values embedded in the organisational culture (Collins and Porras, 1994; Balmer and Soenen, 1999). Hatch and Schultz (2003) believe that strategic vision has a connection to external stakeholders' images, who need information about the organisation that goes beyond what the corporation provides. Every organisation has a vision, which is formalised in a document that contains the company's values.

According to Urde (2003) core values are dynamic, but need to be long lasting to create value. Some authors (Melewar, 2003; Urde, 2009) state that corporate values play a significant role in the formation of the corporate identity, and are the beliefs and ethical principles that lie



behind the company's culture, and compose a major system of beliefs within a company that include daily language and ideologies (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). More particularly, Balmer et al. (2006) state that "the organisational values answer in principle the question of what the organisation stands for and 'what makes us who we are?'" (p. 147). According to Ledford et al. (1995) organisational values are fundamental to organisational cultures, which values need to be understood and they are, necessarily, actively shaped. The concept of core values is well recognised from the brand management perspective (Urde, 1999, 2003, and 2009), in practice by high-performing organisation (Kotter and Heskett, 1992, p. 56).

Corporate core values have an external meaning; and it is recommended that they not be used for slogans or similar, because that might undermine their significance (Urde, 2003). Hence, in other words, it is significant for organisations to have a clear picture of the internal corporate identity when selecting core values. Urde (2003) states that if organisations just choose core values that are catchy or serve as good slogans, there is a big risk of developing hollow and unfavourable corporate core values, which harm the identity and culture of the organisation. Urde (2009) emphasised that the main success of core values is based on how well they bridge the internal values with the stakeholders' perception of credibility in the long run. According to Urde (2009) an organisation's core values should be linked internally and externally and that decides whether core values will be successful or not. The customers' identity is related to the perceived values that convey the organisation's core values externally which could be a way for the organisation to position itself and attract customers and stakeholders (Urde, 2009). Organisational values are translated into core values that guide the organisation's efforts (Balmer et al., 2006, p. 148).

According to Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006), there is an emphasis on ethical and cultural values, and organisational history and philosophy. A company develops the values to develop a positive image, which is reflected to the outside world (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Hofstede's (1984, 1994) model can help explain the variety of values used in marketing across cultures. A corporate value belief within the organisation includes language, rituals and ideologies that guide the company's culture and form the corporate identity. Furthermore, it is espoused by the managers or the founder (Balmer, 1995; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003).

A corporate mission, corporate philosophy, and value are articulated through corporate visual identity to the company's audiences and employees (Alessandrini, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Gorman, 1994; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel et al., 2001). Wilson (1997) believes that the company's visual identity component is easier to control than its behavioural aspects.

Philosophy is defined as the core values and assumptions that constitute the corporate culture, along with the business mission and values espoused by the management board or founder of the company (Abratt, 1989; Collins and Porras, 1991; Ledford et al., 1995; Melewar, 2003; Simoes et al., 2005; Wright, 1984). Mission is the company's purpose, the reason for which a company exists or its objectives (De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar, 2003). Values are the dominant system of beliefs and moral principles that lie within the organisation that comprise the everyday language, ideologies, rituals and beliefs of personnel (Balmer, 1995; Campbell and Yeung, 1991; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003).

## **Communication**

Corporate identity is the expression as manifested in the communications of the organisation (Balmer, 1995, 1998; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Bernstein, 1986; Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; Cornelissen and Harris, 2001; Ind, 1990; Markwick and Fill; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Communication is the touchstone for presenting an image and, therefore, it is recognised in the image formation process (Balmer, 1996; Cornelissen, 2000; Van Riel, 1995). Everything in and about a company is communication and it has a wide spectrum of influence. Research on consumer behaviour has widely accepted that communication from annual reports to advertising and internal communications impacts individuals' behaviours and attitudes (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Christiansen and Tax, 2000; Lau and Ng, 2001). According to Fombrun and Rindova (2000) clear communication can have an impact on trust and enhance the commitment of stakeholders to an organisation.

It is essential for an organisation's managers to understand which communication tools, channels, and marketing messages are more influential on internal-stakeholders' perception (Abratt, 1989). Furthermore, managing corporate identity and its communication should be

grounded in a company's consumers' reception of messages; therefore it is essential to study communication from a receiver's perspective in order to reveal how organisational cues are gathered and interpreted. Stakeholders not only are passive receivers of company communication, but also shape what organisations should be.

Brand core is supposed to be something lasting that supports internal and external brand building (Urde, 2009). According to Duncan and Moriarty (1998), "brand messages originate at the corporate, marketing, and marketing communication levels. In other words, all corporate activities, marketing mix activities, and marketing communications have communication dimensions. At the corporate level, messages sent by the company's overall business practices and philosophies have communications dimensions. For example, its mission, hiring practices, philanthropies, corporate culture, and practice of responding or not responding to inquiries send messages that reconfirm, strengthen, or weaken brand relationships" (p. 6). The marketing communication mix should be used to convey the distinctive qualities of an organisation (Van Riel, 1995). Some authors (Balmer, 1997, 2001; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) claim that anything a company does communicates its identity in the stakeholders' context.

Brown and Dacin (1997) stated that management put considerable effort into managing the company's identities, however, it is not easy to know whether it is the planned communication or external response to their efforts that impacts on internal-stakeholders' perception. Some authors have emphasised the significance of consistency between the corporate identity and company's communication (Bernstein, 1986; Gray and Smeltzer, 1985; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The strategic coordination of all messages and media used by an organisation influences its "perceived brand value" (Duncan and Everett, 1993, p. 33). Integrated marketing communications (IMC) is a concept of marketing communications planning that recognises the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communications disciplines (for example, general advertising, direct response, sales promotion, and public relations) and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency, and maximum communications impact (Schultz, 1993, p. 17; Schultz and Kitchen, 1997, p. 9).

Communication has a wide impact on how a company presents its image visually as well as

verbally. The main dimensions of how communications are managed in a company are: marketing communications (e.g. advertising, sponsorship, public relations activities, corporate advertising), corporate communications (e.g. annual report, internal publications) (Balmer and Gray, 2003; Van Riel, 1995; Westcott Alessandri, 2001), and consistency among all communication vehicles and messages. Communication is defined as the aggregate of messages from both official and informal sources, through a variety of media, by which a company conveys its identity to its multiple audiences or stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar, 2003).

### **Visual identity**

Corporate visual identity (CVI) is arguably the most tangible facet of corporate identity, which reflects the company culture and values and that creates physical recognition for the organisation (Carter, 1982; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000; Stuart, 1999; Morison, 1997; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate visual identity has received the attention of marketing researchers (Henderson et al., 2004; Melewar, 2002; Tavassoli, 2001 and 2002; Childers and Jass, 2002; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Veryzer and Hutchinson, 1998) who feel that it needs to be supported by consistent marketing communications and clear corporate visual identity (Van Riel, 2000).

Corporate visual identity, graphic design, and corporate identity are often used interchangeably. Researchers have drawn the distinction between corporate identity and corporate visual identity, and their coordination (Abratt, 1989; Albert and Whetten, 1985; Alessandri, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Balmer, 1994, 1995; Bernstein, 1986; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Childers and Jass, 2002; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Henderson et al., 2004; Olins, 1978; Melewar, 2000, 2002; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar and Wooldridge, 2001; Pilditch, 1970; Stuart, 1999; Stuart and Muzellec, 2004; Tavassoli, 2001, 2002; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel et al., 2001; Van Riel and Van Hasselt, 2002; Van Rekom, 1993; Veryzer and Hutchinson, 1998; Wiedmann, 1988). According to Melewar and Saunders (2000), corporate visual identity is essential for well-being and communications mix (Melewar, 2001) to express the organisation's identity (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) in serving as a reminder of the corporation's real purpose (Abratt, 1989).

In addition, the intangibility of services exacerbates the need for management of visual components. The visibility and consistency should emphasise the physical dimensions of service delivery (Bharadwaj et al. 1993), which impacts on the corporate identity. For instance, staff appearance, colour and architecture are essential to the brand awareness and transmitted image in the service context (Berry, 2000). Furthermore, physical evidence such as environmental design, architecture, interior design, decor, signage and stationery convey tangible hints that impacts on employee and customer behaviour (Bitner, 1990). Visual identity management has significant business implications (Schmitt et al., 1995). According to Bitner (1990) in a service encounter context, the physical environment can have an influence on how consumers perceive service failure. Corporate visual identity uses tangible clues to differentiate services (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1989).

Furthermore, corporate awareness and visual identification support the utility of corporate visual identity. Identification tools are important in modern marketing such as the architecture of the corporation, as it gives the corporation identity and symbolises its purpose. Identification is important to employees (Bromley, 2001; Dutton et al., 1994; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000) and corporate visual identity plays a symbolic role in generating such identification. Furthermore, the internal purpose of corporate visual identity relates to employees' identification with the organisation. Thus, managers must ensure that they create a reliable belief to communicate in the market (Van den Bosch et al., 2005; Gray and Balmer, 1998). Employees need to be aware of corporate visual identity and its meaning (Berry, 2000). Furthermore, the visibility and physical consistency of visual identity underlies the numerous physical dimensions, which are used to deliver the service, such as ground transportation vehicles and name on airplanes (Bharadwaj et al., 1993). For all these reasons, managers need to understand the design process to communicate with designers using a common language from a similar point of view (Kohli et al., 2002; Henderson et al., 2003).

Conceptualising the management of corporate visual identity in terms of specific dimensions is essential as it involves generating and implementing guidelines for the use of symbolism within the company. A Corporate Visual Identity consists of architecture, corporate name, corporate symbol/logo, typeface, colour, building, interior design, symbolism understanding, and staff appearance which express organisational characteristics (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 1994; Margulies, 1977; Melewar and Saunders, 1999; 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins,

1991, Pilditch 1970; Schultz et al., 2000; Van Riel et al., 2001) as well as providing recognisability (Balmer and Gray, 2000).

Corporate visual identity defined as an assembly of visual cues which express the identity of the organisation (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) by which an audience can recognise the company and distinguish it from others (Bernstein, 1984) in serving to remind the corporation's real purpose (Abratt, 1989, Melewar, 2003).

The next section proposes a definition for corporate identity by merging the three dimension (visual identity, communications, and philosophy, mission and values), which are discussed in this section.

### **3.1.7. Defining the corporate identity concept**

As mentioned before, corporate identity has been defined using different metaphors (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001). Abratt (1989) says "corporate identity is about appearance" (p. 66). Some design authors (Bernstein, 1986; Carter, 1982; Lippincott and Margulies, 1957; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1989, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Selame and Selame 1988) assert that corporate identity is about corporate visual design to present the company to internal and external audiences via visible artefacts such as buildings, communication material, advertisements, exterior design, interior design, symbol, colour and so on and also the invisible such as organisational behaviours. After the shift towards recognising the significance its influences on behaviour (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995, 2004, 2007, 2008; Christensen and Askegaard, 2001; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Dutton et al., 1994; Kottasz et al., 2008; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005; Olins, 1989; Powell et al., 2009; Pratt, 1998; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997), marketing and design authors suggest that the corporate identity concept reflects this sense of the essential character which deals with the impressions, image, uniqueness, personality, and individuality that an organisation presents to internal and external stakeholders (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995, 1998; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Bernstein 1984; Birkight and Stadler, 1980; Downey, 1986; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; He and Balmer, 2007; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Olins, 1978; Pilditch, 1970; Schmitt and Pan 1994; Stuart, 2003; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Heerden, 1999; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The stability and coherence must exist between customers, employees, and managers' behaviour, and all should be

adjusted to the company's philosophy, values, and personality.

The personality of an organisation has been described thus, "the corporate identity is the 'personality' and 'soul' of the corporation ... Every company has a personality, which is defined as the sum total of the characteristics of the organisation. These characteristics - behavioural and intellectual - serve to distinguish one organisation from another. This personality is projected by means of conscious cues which constitute an identity" (Abratt, 1989, pp. 66-67). The behavioural and intellectual characteristics have been recognised by some authors (Baker and Balmer, 1997; Balmer, 1995, 1998; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Bernstein, 1986; Markwick and Fill, 1997) as the product of the beliefs and attitudes shared by organisation's employees. Corporate identity is a phenomenon that expresses the corporate personality of a company and refers to 'what the company is', 'what the company stands for' (Pilditch, 1970), and 'where the company is going' (Olins, 1978). Cornelissen and Harris (2001) defined corporate identity as the "tangible representation of the personality, the expression as manifest in the behaviour and communication of the organisation. Corporate identity efforts are undertaken strictly reflecting the personality of the organisation" (p. 56).

The organisation's personality has been described using a metaphor of company as human being to explain corporate identity (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001). Corporate identity is an indirect expression of a corporate personality. Therefore, the organisation must "balance internal preoccupations of organisational identity with external imperatives" (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001, p. 57). In other words, marketing scholars (Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; He and Balmer, 2007; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) have argued that corporate identity refers to the totality of the self-presentation of an organisation to various stakeholders (mainly customers) which correspond to the elements of corporate identity mix which are personality, behaviour, communication and the symbolism to create a favourable image and a good reputation between its internal and external stakeholders.

Corporate identity requires consistency across visible and invisible forms of communication to represent the company (Balmer, 2001; Gioia et al., 2000; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Olins, 1989; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Heerden, 1999; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate identity should be embedded throughout the organisation to clearly articulate the company's

philosophy and mission and its organisational values (Baker and Balmer, 1997; Balmer, 2007, 2008; Dowling, 1994; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Olins, 1995; Pondar, 2005; Simoes et al., 2005). Drawing on the arguments above (See Appendix 3.1 presents a chronology of some of the key definitions of corporate identity concept), corporate identity is defined as the following:

Corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and serves as a vehicle for the expression of the company's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), values, beliefs, and mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005), communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995).



## **SECTION III.2: REVIEW OF ARCHITECTURE**

Architecture is, in different ways, a reflection of the group and society in where we live and as a result we cannot look at it as a profession or as education without. In view of many different issues influence it and receiving its influence (Tufte, 1990).

### **3.2.1. Introduction**

The acknowledgement of the salience of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification is based on a review of the identity and the architecture literature. The previous Section (3.1.1) presented a systematic review of the identity literature. It reviewed a range of literature in order to establish the domain of corporate identity to acknowledge the salience of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification.

This Section reviews a range of literature on architecture in order to establish the domain of buildings architecture and related concepts. Also, this section reviews the extant literature directly relating to the interplay between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification. Accordingly, this section examines extant studies in disciplines such as design, management, organisations, psychology (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981) and social identity (Bonaiuto et al., 1996; Marin and de Maya, 2013; Speller et al., 2002; Stedman, 2002; Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003).

Research in the architecture field demonstrates that architecture is an art and a significant piece of symbolism lies at the heart of corporate identity (Balmer, 2005) and influences how corporate identity is perceived (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). A favourable architecture has desirable outcome such as identification, employee attachment, job satisfaction, well-being, and feelings of comfort (Knight and Haslam, 2010), affecting stakeholders' perceptions of corporate image (Weggeman et al., 2007; Nguyen, 2006), customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Han and Ryu, 2009), productivity, and motivation (Davis, 1984; Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986), hiring employees, and increasing the company's stature and presence

(Melewar et al., 2001). Furthermore, office spaces can influence the formal communication and other elements of the organisational structure (Moleski and Lang, 1982). Knight and Haslam (2010) assert that it is significant for decision-makers to understand the workspace and its benefit to both employers and employees in order to gain competitive advantage. Although the literature in management and design (Kirby and Kent, 2010), social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Haslam, 2004; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Marin and de Maya, 2013), environmental psychology (Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986) and social psychology (Oldham and Brass, 1979; Proshansky et al., 1970; Sommer, 1969) have been discussed in this issue, a comprehensive view has not so far been provided which delineates the types of communication which may have an influence on corporate image formation.

To investigate the relationships between employees and physical environment, Davis et al. (2010) state that scholars in social relations, cognitive psychology, systems thinking, symbolic, and physiological standpoints have constructed theories and frameworks with no empirical support and there is a lack of consistency in terms of outcome evaluation which makes it difficult to assess their theoretical efficacy and consistency (p. 222). Some authors (Davis et al., 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Zalesny and Farace, 1987) have recommended that the relationships between employees and the physical environment needs greater direct empirical testing of competing theories. The findings of the literature illustrate the lack of empirical research on relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and the stakeholders' identification trait.

Section 3.2.2 reviews architecture and its relationship with human factors. Next, Section 3.2.3 will start by investigating architecture and its expression of social, economic and technological realities and also the importance of architecture in today's market. Afterwards, Section 3.2.4 sheds light on architecture and human performance. The association between architecture and human needs will be highlighted in section 3.2.5. It then explains aesthetics as the creation and appreciation of beauty and its influence on architecture. Section 3.2.7 overviews the architectural perception, its assessment and its relation to nature and the human being. Architecture, human behaviour and attitudes towards the corporation are discussed in section 3.2.8. The relationship between architecture and corporate communication will then be addressed (Section 3.2.9). Architecture has a significant role in an organisation, internally, externally and for stakeholders and its association with corporate image will be examined in

Section 3.2.10. Section 3.2.11 will start by introducing dimensions of architecture and move on to identify the major components in architecture and their measurement. Lastly, definitions of architecture are derived in Section 3.2.12.

### **3.2.2. Architecture and the human factor**

Architecture and landscape can establish a strong universal corporate identity (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Yee, 1990). From a design perspective, “there are implications for how the design of different working and customer facing environments fits within the firm’s wider design strategy” (Moultrie et al., 2007, p. 56). Oldham and Brass (1979) state that design decisions influence the office social environment which is, “made almost entirely on the basis of expectation or personal prejudice, rather than knowledge” (p. 267). Design is a relationship between people and objects (Jones, 1984). However, there has been limited investigation of “how the introduction of new or re-designed offices may be successfully managed” (Davis, 2010, p. 221). Knight and Haslam (2010) stated that design could be decisive in facilitating customer and client identification with the organisation. Environmental psychology scholars have proposed that human beings design and modify the environment to satisfy their needs and architecture (building environments) integrates elements that are consistent with the occupant’s activities (Smith and Bugni, 2002; Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986; Vischer, 2007). Canter (1997) states that place are a product of physical attributes, human conceptions, and activities. A place is “a unique spot in the universe” and the difference “between here and there, and it is what allows people to appreciate near and far” (Gieryn, 2000, p. 464). Place is treated as a unifying concept in environmental psychology and human geography theory (Dixon and Durrheim, 2000, p. 27). Dixon and Durrheim (2000) state that the question of geographers and environmental psychologists “of ‘who we are’ are often intimately related to questions of ‘where we are’ ”. Each place should be distinctive (Gieryn, 2000, p. 472) and can be considered to be “an active part of the construction of a person’s identity, representing continuity and change” (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996, p. 207). Rooney et al. (2010, p. 47) argued that identification with a distinctive place is related to cognitive strategies, which assist in protecting in-group identities.

Stokols and Shumaker (1981) emphasised the interdependent relationship between people and the environment. The association between the environment and an individual can be exclusive

if it focused on the interface between environment and people. People view the environment as a social medium and the social and physical has to be bridged (Appleyard, 1979). The physical environment is a purposeful environment and should fulfill customers' specific needs and wants (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009).

Architects have to identify users' needs and translate them into the creation of newly built environments. Buildings can be built as aesthetic objects of high commercial and symbolic value. In addition, buildings can function as visible artifacts (Abratt, 1989; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007), photogenic symbols and anonymous functional workplaces (Huppertz, 2005) to expresses users' expectations in spatial form (Groat, 1982; Jencks, 1977). In addition, architecture and the office layout are visible artifacts (Abratt, 1989). An artifact of society is reliant on the spiritual, moral, and temporal well-being of that society. Furthermore, it has been suggested that the architecture of a place can be understood as a 'perception design' where designers include consumers' tastes and thoughts within the symbolism of the environment (Kent, 2007). However, signals in the environment relate to the identity of the occupants, the symbolism of the location, and the function of space (McHarg, 1962). Location and concept creation is a part of architecture (Gray and Balmer, 1998). According to Veryzer (1999) architecture is the connection between nature and human perception. The response to architecture (physical environment) is the key to the mission of architecture and environmental planning. The responses to the designs in architecture lead, in turn, to human behavioural responses and attitudes towards the corporation (Bitner, 1992).

Increasing attention has been paid to understanding and measuring the contribution of architecture to identification, and particularly of the office building to identification (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009; Knight and Haslam, 2010). Social identity in "organisational settings have focused on identification with the organisation or its subunits as the mechanism through which employees exert effort on behalf of the organisation" (Thatcher and Zhu, 2006, p. 1083). A niche market architecture firm has shown a significant yet unarticulated link between design and client identification. Brand management research into niche market architecture organisations has demonstrated significant yet previously unarticulated links between client identification and the architectural design process (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009). Architectural design provides an important bridge between customer and client engagement in both product and service markets. Even so, human perceptions and ideas concerning the

physical environment are central to the task of architecture (Kent, 2007). Architecture supports the exploration of mankind's desire to reconnect to the earth through the built environment that can be referred as 'natural architecture'. Architecture has aimed to generate a new association between nature and man by discovering what it means to design with nature in mind (Rocca, 2007). According to Knight and Haslam (2010), design can be decisive in facilitating customer and client identification. According to Stedman (2002) social identity theory explains the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993), sense of place (Stedman, 2002), and identification with place (Uzzel et al., 2002) and underplays the significance of identity with place in organisations. However, there has been little examination of how employees establish social identities connected to their work-places (Rooney, 2010, p. 46) except for the authors Elsbach (2003 and 2004) and Rooney (2010). Elsbach (2003 and 2004) studied physical space and physical markers to discover their relationship with workplace identities in office environments. Rooney (2010) researched the role of employees' identification with place in influencing attitudes toward organisational change. However, little research has been done to explore the connections "between place and the formation of these identities or how a connection to place influences responses to organisational change" (Rooney, 2010, p. 46).

Architecture is not only an art and but it is also an important part of symbolism (Balmer, 2005), which can create visible, and anonymous functional workplaces (Huppertz, 2005) that operate in a competitive environment. Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality should have a primary function to symbolise something and communicate symbolic meaning by creating an overall aesthetic impression (Bitner, 1992, p. 66). The physical environment has an esthetic element that creates corporate image which impacts on the performance of personnel (Nguyen, 2006). Furthermore, the design principle of interior or exterior space can formulate a visual image. A favourable design for a space can meet any functional demand (Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Leblanc and Nguyen, 1996; Meenaghan, 1995; Saleh, 1998) by successfully combining exciting architectural expression, inspiring internal spaces and good functionality. For example, the height of church spires in a variety of cultures function as symbols of religious power.

The grouping of buildings according to functional elements differentiates them from other buildings. The cathedrals and churches although not designed by architects, as they were built

by monks, get classified as architecture. This is because they bring together art and functionality as well as aesthetic value. In most cases, thatched roofed buildings and cottages are not considered to be architecture although it is acknowledged that they have aesthetic value in them. Functionality, which is an important element of architecture, determines how a building is designed and constructed and the main purpose of the building. Buildings like mosques, cathedrals, palaces, castles and temples, display different meanings through their architecture when compared to mere constructions like garages and cottages (Conway and Roenisch, 2005, p. 9). For instance, the architecture of a mosque is different from that of a cathedral or ancient Gothic buildings. For a physical structure to qualify as architecture it has to be a building that is aesthetically designed (Mitias, 1999, p. 1). However, not all buildings qualify as architecture since the building has also to be well constructed and decorated. The uniqueness of a building makes it fit the definition of architecture in the broad sense that it is well constructed and aesthetically designed. The building embodies particular ideas and designs, which have a monumental appearance giving an aesthetic impression. Some of the early writers and architects like Bernard Rudofsky were mesmerised by traditional architecture (Conway and Roenisch, 2005 p. 8).

However, modern architecture is an integration of industry, art and new social needs. For instance, modern office buildings are complex and depend on sophisticated technology (Vischer, 2007). Architecture is not just about building, but involves buildings, which are ordered or controlled to communicate an idea or an emotion about a company's purpose, its position in time, and of its creators (Vischer, 2007). According to Saleh (1998) the ideology of contemporary architecture, "views the person not only as separate and distinct from his physical setting but also as being continually challenged by his environment" (p. 162) and considers, "the acceleration of social, economic and technological changes, as determinant forces" (p. 163) by presenting an image of "the present and future, and not just the past" (p. 163). Architecture is, "quintessentially universalistic expression of civilisation" (Delanty and Jones, 2002, p. 452). Architectures create and codify national cultures, which can be recognised in a landmark building, which reflect, "national identity and historical narrative of memory" (Delanty and Jones, 2002, p. 457). In order to meet this challenge, the physical environment has to be conquered, mastered, and controlled by the continuing efforts of modern science and technology (Proshansky et al., 1983). In the literature modern architecture is defined, however, there is an absence of research on how employees are

affected by the move from private, closed offices to the modern environment of open offices (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 615).

In the modern environment architecture has a totally different meaning and so too has architectural theory (Diani and Ingraham, 1988, p. 1). Compared to the ancient styles of the Gothic buildings, it has now become a social art driven by changes in the modern world. With life being flexible, dynamic, and quickly changing, a paradigm shift has led to the construction of buildings which have huge internal spaces and are large enough to allow quick and smooth movements of people coupled with energy and economic progress (Diani and Ingraham, 1988, p. 1). As a result, architecture has become configured more by functional elements to accommodate the changes occurring in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Modern industry, which was transformed by the industrial revolution, has enabled modern architectural designs. Modern techniques, methods, and materials have changed the purpose of architecture. Space that was formerly enclosed is now treated differently and walls are no longer designed to give just artistic value but also to bring contentment (Conway and Roenisch, 2005, p. 55). However, little is known about the effect of modern changes in office environments (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612).

Office environments and architecture involves buildings, which are designed to portray an idea or an emotion of a company's purpose, position in time, and of their creators. The concept of environment is not only related to the physical aspect, but also it is related to the social and cultural aspects (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). The role of architecture should have its place and be understood in society. Nowadays, corporations emphasise human values, customer orientation, business effectiveness, and contemporary designers express transparency, lightness, and authenticity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). According to Lang (1987) designers have difficulty in understanding the complexity of people's needs due to lack of education or interest. Architecture is technical and sociological and so the atmosphere of an office is a key result. Theorists agree that well-designed architecture should be recognised and evoke positive affect. Architectural design is defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacturer of artefacts to create an image of corporate identity (Alessandri, 2001). Corporate identity is, "an assembly of visual cues – physical and behavioural by which customers can recognise the company and distinguish it from others'. The power of these visual cues resides in their ability to speak louder than words in forming and reinforcing

corporate identity ... Other researchers recognise the influence of these visual cues in an organisation's identity formation, but they distinguish visual identity from corporate identity" (Nguyen, 2006, p. 64).

From the perspective of corporate identity, architects and architectural ideas have a major role in influencing identities, building design and power relations in cities. Corporate architecture and the physical location of a company's buildings is part of corporate identity (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). Yee (1990) believes that corporate architecture and its landscape can establish a strong universal corporate identity. In general a company's architecture, location, and the interior decor of its offices can help people to recognise the company (Melewar, 2003). A good location is essential for a successful organisation (Melewar et al., 2006). Furthermore, corporate architecture includes the range of external and internal factors of a building along with the overall appearance of the buildings and the degree of landscaping and gardens surrounding them (Melewar and Saunders, 2000). The layout of a building can create a balance between the private and the public by identifying the public and private realms in space" (Melewar and Saunders, 2000, p. 36).

Based on Saleh's (1998) argument, the ideology of the modern physical environment is to view the individual person as separate and distinct from his physical setting so the satisfactions of the ultimate user's requirements are essential. Designers are often unable to understand the complexity of users' needs due to lack of education or interest. In order to meet this challenge, the physical setting defines human needs and human behaviour describes the physical environment (Lang, 1987) and functional architecture has to be conquered, mastered, and controlled by the continuing efforts of modern science and technology (Proshansky et al., 1983).

### **3.2.3. Architecture as an expression of social, economic and technological realities**

The contemporary architecture of the workplace could be explained by the acceleration of socio-economical circumstances and technological changes, based on the assumption of the man-made environment, and the main beliefs of particular societies (Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Saleh, 1998). The concept of environment is not only physical but also social and cultural. Architecture should have its place and understand its role in the society (Davis, 1984). Architecture is technical and sociological. The social, economic, and technological are



influenced by the physical appearance of space and image so they are significant. Each of these aspects impacts on the design in a number of ways. According to King (2004) architecture is a signifier of economic, political and cultural power. The responses to the designs in architecture lead, in turn, to behavioural responses (Bitner, 1992) and the office layout and architecture of a company should match the company's behaviour and the company's culture along with its technological and social parameters. Architecture is about the design of corporate buildings and the interior layout of offices and factories and is a response to a greater demand to accommodate organisational requirements. Architecture has become particularly significant in service industries for improved productivity and efficiency within the current socioeconomic conditions (Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986).

Socioeconomic conditions and the quality of materials used in buildings can communicate symbolic meaning and create an overall aesthetic feeling for people (Bitner, 1992, p. 66). Materials used in organisations articulate the culture and values of those organisations (Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Schmitt et al., 1995, p. 82). Based on the works of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, architecture has been determined by the materials used during the construction process. Ritchie (1994) claims: "an architecture which uses materials to reflect the conditions of society, where these materials are used in their primary state rather than as products, and engages craftsmen to manipulate them, with or without the use of computers, can represent a late 20<sup>th</sup> century evolution of the Arts and Crafts tradition" (p. 52). Using materials from the local area can reflect local society and its characteristics. According to Leatherbarrow (1993) the "material selection may precede design development, it may in fact initiate design work. There is no reason to assume that such a selection will be based on the local availability of materials or local technical capacities, often the reverse is true" (p. 148). The use of natural materials increases the creative performance of employees' and their positive emotional and cognitive responses (Elsbach and Pratt, 2007).

For instance, architects like Louis Khan defined architecture based on the materials they used. Additionally, materials like clay steel, stones, and concrete among many others define the strength and the aesthetic design of architecture. Although the aspect of art in architecture cannot be overlapped, it is imperative to note that geometric concepts were and are applied in architecture. Both modern and ancient designs have visual architectural elements which define a building. The building's structure is unified by both function and form, which

exemplify architecture in a building. Space in buildings has to do with the exterior and the interior of a building, the size of the windows, the ceilings, and antiques define its architecture. The managerial control of space has been a dominant theme in the office management literature since the end of the industrial revolution (Knight and Haslam, 2010). Architectural design helps transcend barriers due to its visual character such as the physical barriers separating office workers after the introduction of air-conditioning which allowed the design of open plan offices in the 1950s (Ellis and Duffy, 1980). Organisations spend substantial amounts of money on the construction of an effective building and employees have been given greater authority over the design of their workplace (Ellis and Duffy, 1980). The space which is organised creates an environment for the users for their various activities and behaviour.

Knight and Haslam (2010) state that there is a strong association between the low levels of privacy afforded by open-plan offices and main components of job dissatisfaction. Open-plan offices impact on employee behaviour at work based on two approaches: i) social relations approach, and ii) sociotechnical approach. The social relations approach “argues that the absence of interior walls and barriers in open-plan offices facilitates the development of social relationships among employees, which, in turn, positively influence employee motivation and satisfaction”. The interaction between employees increases cohesion, which is a necessary condition for high performance from employees. The socio-technical approach is related to the physical context of an organisation, which impacts on employee work outcomes. The “absence of physical boundaries in a work space creates opportunities and experiences for employees that differ substantially from those they might encounter if working in an area bounded by walls or partitions”. “Physical boundaries can influence employee job experiences in two ways. First, boundaries can transform a work area into a private, defensible space. When an area is bounded by partitions, it is expected that an individual experiences a greater sense of privacy than if no boundaries exist. Such a private area provides opportunities for personal conversations and the sharing of information. Moreover, a bounded area reduces the likelihood of external intrusions”. “Second, a bounded work area clarifies for employees the nature of the work process” (p. 270).

Open plan offices with informal employee communication and open spatial layout symbolising lack of individual privacy were attractive to organisations as a main preference.

For instance, privacy, and open space indicates customer orientation (Gray and Balmer, 1998). Interior design gives the customers a hint of how the organisation will perform (Gray and Balmer, 1998). For example, luxury buildings with expensive interiors can communicate high quality to their target audience (Gray and Balmer, 1998).

The improvement of physical conditions is demanding public taste has shaped the general evolution of architecture (Hassard and Pym, 1990) and created the new architectural style. This architectural style expresses the owner's image in a way that represents all their beliefs and aspirations. Architects build associations to strengthen their designs as a transformational mirror for the client. Buildings reflect the style of the individual companies (Melewar and Akel, 2005). "Many architects try, in a completely unjustified and facile way, to create their own 'styles', as if one man or group of men could overnight replace the action of a whole society over a long period of years" (Constantinos, 1963, p. 2). Each building reflects the style of the building's era as well as its philosophy (Melewar and Akel, 2005). Saleh (1998) documented the relationships between society and architecture as "the symbolic role of architectonics as symbols to establish and affirm physical identity of place" (p. 161). This links to the specific needs of society and economic performance, which is the purpose of every business enterprise.

In addition, this research has shown an important link between managerial control of space (architecture) and stakeholders' identification with the company (e.g. employees, customers, etc.) and their influence on positive work experience (Knight and Haslam, 2010). The association between the physical environment and the employees' productivity can be traced back to the 1930s (Wilson, 1986). The stronger the architectural design is, the stronger the potential for identification. People often use their work environments to express their uniqueness such as with photographs or sentimental mementos. Design is an expression of employees about who they are and who they aspire to be. According to Knight and Haslam (2010) managerial control of space impacts on the feelings of physical and psychological comfort/discomfort in the office with levels of identification as well as influence upon motivation (Wilson, 1986).

### **3.2.4. Architecture and human performance**

Researchers have shown that architecture, which also consists of noise, furniture arrangement, temperature, and lighting, can influence students' performance (Ahrentzen et al., 1982) and employees' performance (Becker et al., 1983; Brennan et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Varlander, 2012) so it generates new concerns for personnel management (Christie and Gale, 1987) and enhances organisational efficiency (Leaman and Borden, 1993). Moreover, the effects of design yields advantages for operating costs (Maher and von Hippel, 2005) and allows for a flexible use of space (Han and Ryu, 2009), environmental quality and human well-being (Klitzman and Stellman, 1989). For instance, the open-plan office is normative in most large companies, because it has low operating, costs in the minds of organisational decision-makers (Maher and Von Hippel, 2005; Vischer, 1996). According to Kotler and Rath (1984) a good design does not have to be expensive. Designers must limit themselves to what is possible in the company's cost range. A good design creates a positive image for the company (p. 18). For example, modern office designers should provide a mix of workspaces within open-plan offices to provide for workers' diverse needs and reflect their increasingly flexible work patterns (Davis et al., 2010). Open-plan offices enhance employees' satisfaction with their working conditions and allow for flexible use of space as well as increasing employee communication (Boyce, 1974; Canty, 1977; Sundstrom et al., 1980) while also fostering creative interaction and teamwork (Knight and Haslam, 2010).

Industrial psychologists focus on employees and their satisfaction, comfort, and performance (Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986). Research by Knight and Haslam (2010) shows that the organisational outcomes can be enhanced by managerial enrichment of office space. Comfort/discomfort and identification were also found to mediate associations between managerial control and job satisfaction and well-being. Managerial control of office space was connected with feelings of physical and psychological comfort/discomfort in the workplace (Knight and Haslam, 2010). The consequences of the employees' assessment of the general quality of life in the workplace can lead to job satisfaction (Locke, 1983).

Job satisfaction is also affected by career development activities (such as providing special coaching on the job), social support activities (such as helping with professional goals) and is

correlated with higher job satisfaction and lower turnover rates while the physical environment represents a less important parameter (Elsbach and Becky, 2007; Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986). Wilson et al. (1985) believes that integrating the physical environment with job design influences employee motivation, satisfaction, and management of the company's culture (Wilson et al., 1985).

Company culture and symbolic language, and to what extent these reach the audience is part of the remit of architecture. Architects express culture in their design; "the architect creates the culture image: a physically present human environment that expresses the characteristics rhythmic functional patterns which constitute a culture" (Langer, 1953, p. 96). Architects interpret the cultural characteristics of the society to a physical pattern. They need an understanding of the local culture and its elements and their creative ability enables them to articulate the culture in an appropriate way. Architecture expresses cultural values (Rapoport, 1977). An architect should also understand the local values of any community. Also, global culture is a meaningful idea of national-societal or local culture (King, 2004). In addition, culture is a human and social phenomenon (King, 2004). Moreover, interior design can communicate a company's culture to the stakeholders and if they are in a different line of business, they may be more vital than the others (Gray and Balmer, 1998). The interior office design and office layout can represent the company's culture and any changes can affect the culture of a company (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

According to the authors Elsbach (2003) and Vischer (2007) an important influence on job performance can result from office design and the workspace of the work environment. Vischer's (2007) research findings indicate that the work environment concentrates on psychosocial factors that affect job performance, such as arousal, stress, and distraction. The social psychological and sociological literature investigates employees' reactions to working in spaces which they have developed themselves or that have been imposed upon them by management (Oldham and Brass, 1979; Vischer, 2005). According to Oldham and Brass (1979), "architecture and physical layout can substantially influence variables such as patterns of communication and social interaction" (p. 24).

King (2004) states that culture is a human and social phenomenon. International culture is a meaningful idea of national-societal or local culture and organisations tended to develop their

own architectural expressions as local or national styles. Managers should collaborate with consultants and architects as aesthetic experts, to evaluate the styles (primary attributes, complexity, and representation), themes, and the aesthetic impression of the company. The basic elements for evaluation are sensitivity to the customer; individuality from competition; and expression of corporate mission, values and culture (Schmitt et al., 1995). Culture is often connected with buildings and the architectural environment (Hankinson, 2004). Architecture can be used for the transformation of productive processes, communicative power and cultural objects (Huppertz, 2005). Architecture and interior office design symbolise many aspects of corporate culture (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005). The interior design of an office and its layout can represent the company's culture and any changes can affect the internal culture of the company (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). The office layout and architecture of a company should match with company's behaviour and company's culture.

### **3.2.5. Architecture and human needs**

Architects and interior designers are expected to understand human needs and often emphasise the formal, spatial and visual aspects of their design proposals and develop humanly functional and aesthetically pleasing products. To avoid the risk of early obsolescence, the architectural space should fulfil the expected requirements and be used to judge the degree of success of an architectural work and architecture should try to satisfy human requirements, expectations and needs (Nguyen, 2006). There is a clear interaction between architects and clients. The client is the whole world and represents a mass of people. However, architects think they know more than their clients. Architects should be responsive to public reactions to their work and social and economic changes to the environment. An Architect is responsive to human needs by identifying the social structure. Nguyen (2006) states that architecture (physical environment) "must be designed in response to two types of needs: operations needs expressed by the maximisation of organisational efficiency, and marketing needs to create an environment which influences consumers' attitudes and beliefs toward the organisation and, consequently, its corporate image" (p. 74).

Knight and Haslam (2010) state that "office design for non-management staff has tended to focus on issues of job process rather than on the psychological needs and interests of those who carry out particular job functions" (p. 718). Elsbach and Pratt's (2007) review of the studies of the physical environment in organisations with the reactions toward changes in

office design and identify the common efforts to gauge the effects of the physical environment. Indeed there are a number of notable examples of how changes in workplace design resulted in unanticipated consequences for designers (Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Grajewski, 1993; Horgen et al., 1999). Designers try to design the future by employing the very materiality of the office to stimulate organisational change. Modernism is an idea built around the concept of need. Architecture is a song of modernity which projects modernism (Huppatz, 2005). For example, many species of wood express a modern but highly fashionable character (Martineau, 1958). According to King (2004), the root of modernity in architecture starts in the early 1930s and modern science has transformed the nature of architectural creation and adapted its function (Constantinos, 1963). The modern office building's design is dependent on complicated technology and sophisticated techniques (Vischer, 2007). Saleh (1998) declares, "modernism as an idea was built around the concept of need" (p. 162) and modern management motivates the fulfilment of corporate objectives within the corporation.

According to Barker (1968) the guiding force behind corporate behaviour is the satisfaction of human needs. The physical layout of workplaces can also affect the behaviour of organisational members (Oldham and Rotchford, 1983; Strati, 1990) and show the structure of an organisation (Giddens, 1984; Rosen et al., 1990). An organisation's visual style reflects the behaviour of management and staff at all of the company's levels (Lambert, 1989). Architecture and office layout should match the company's behaviour and company's culture. Architectonic details affect 'emotion- focused' coping behaviour in situations of stress in the workplace (Vischer, 2007). The emotional component is connected with psychological dimensions including feelings and attitudes towards a company (LeBlanc and Nguyen, 1996).

The literature (Baldry, 1997; Elsbach, 2003; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kotter, 1982; Nguyen, 2006; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Vischer, 2005) confirms that today's employees are concerned with the physical and psychological effects of the office environment and investigate employees' reactions to working in spaces either that they have had imposed upon them by management or developed themselves (Knight and Haslam, 2010; Vischer, 2005). Employees are looking for material and psychological returns, and they have concerns about the quality of work life and the humanisation of the working environment.

Moreover, the failure of facilities to fulfill the employees' needs represents a risk of damaging corporate objectives. This can happen because of concerns with having a healthy workforce, for instance, Vischer (2007) looked at, "how, when and why the buildings where people work affect their health and morale, so we will be able to help companies make more humane and cost-effective decisions about workspace" (p. 182). For instance, a picture from nature can be an aesthetically uplifting experience which decreases anger and stress in a working environment (Knight and Haslam, 2010). A healthy workforce encourages high quality performance in the organisation. Vischer (2007) states that the term 'work environment' used in stress studies to integrate with psychosocial dimensions such as employee–employer relations, motivation and advancement, job demands and social support. The tangible attributes and the emotional ones are related to psychological dimensions, which are manifested, by feelings and attitudes towards the corporation (Nguyen, 2006).

Poor ambient conditions and physical conditions in the workplace influence physiological reactions, which result in comfort or discomfort (Nguyen, 2006). Comfort is influenced by the psychological parameters and performed activity (e.g. mood, motivation and stress). The physical comfort in the working environment results in moral, humanitarian, and social pressure. Knight and Haslam (2010) suggest that managerial control of space has a negative influence on staff's experiences at work, which causes psychological discomfort and undermines organisational identification (Briner and Totterdell, 2002; Vischer, 2005) as well as stress and absenteeism (Wegge et al., 2006). According to Elsbach and Bechky (2007) understanding of ergonomics and human factors in workplace design accommodates almost any physical human needs. The design of an office focuses on factors that increase efficiency such as location of supplies (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007).

Additionally, privacy and personalisation of space influence employees' behaviour, which can be controlled (Sommer, 1969). The degree of these behaviours is related to the corporation type and is subject to the social context and organisational culture. Poor physical environmental conditions, people's aspirations and motivations are the main factors for the acceptance of working conditions (Bitner, 1992) and may employees sacrifice comfort for other gains. Due to their significance for the employees' satisfaction, privacy is a significant factor amongst the features of the physical setting such as spatial layout; office size and location is associated with status; office storage is linked with territoriality and status and



partitioning impacts on acoustic as well as visual privacy (Fischer et al., 2004; Vischer, 2007). In work environments, certain cues like desk placement, desk size, computers, and the presence of certificates on the wall symbolise status and influence staff's beliefs about the person occupying the office (Bitner, 1992).

### **3.2.6. Architecture and aesthetic**

Marketing professionals take aesthetics and style (as a kind of language in which the architect selects the essential elements to communicate) into account in their work (Olins, 1990; Weggeman et al., 2007). The concept of aesthetics is, "closely associated with originality, genius, expressiveness, and the ability of a work of art to appeal beyond rationality to the taste or the senses of the spectator or listener" (Weggeman et al., 2007, p. 347). Aesthetics is part of a deliberate marketing strategy and corporations should be made fashionable and stylish (Dickinson and Svensen, 2000). They defined aesthetic knowledge as the, "results from this kind of analysis 'weak thought' that has the potential to enrich organisational theory based on strong paradigms and the search for universalism and domination" (p. 349). Mitias (1999, p. 1) observes that architecture depends heavily on aesthetic and physical elements. A building, which is aesthetically fitting and physically built, is identified as perfect architecture. This is because; the physical structure of a building is defined by its position, shape and size. Size identifies the space occupied by a building in a particular place (Mitias, 1999).

According to Ballantyne (2002, p. 12), "the actual fabric of a building is not sufficient to make architecture out of them" instead, the respect accorded to them as buildings make them architecture. This differentiates it from any normal building despite their elegance or appreciation from the on-lookers. The aesthetic design differentiates different buildings of the old and the modern century. For example, architecture embodied in the aesthetic value of walls, roofs, doors and windows define architectural design. Features like façades, pilasters and columns bring a different look, which differentiates a building with architecture. Architecture is a well thought out, designed and constructed building (Conway and Roenisch, 1994, p. 21). The symmetry and static look embodied in buildings like cathedrals and mosques, give a totally different meaning to architecture.

Charles Edourd Jeanneret-Gris mostly know as Le Corbusier who is an architect and designer of the 20<sup>th</sup> century defined architecture as "the masterly, correct magnificent play of masses

brought together in light” (Moffett et al., 2003; Le Corbusier, 2008, p. 102). The buildings designed by Le Corbusier were based on aesthetic designs, size, height, and proportion. Using the height of an average man and the Golden section as the main proportion (Moffett et al., 2003); this architectural design marked the onset of the modern architecture. In contrast to earlier buildings, the Le Corbusier built houses supported by pillars with ‘pilotis’ or piers, which supported the building from the ground. The most defined element of the buildings like the Citrohan House was space and size. The points which define Le Corbusier’s architecture are pilots which are piers supporting the building from the ground with an elevation and space (Le Corbusier, 2008, p. 103). There was also a roof garden or flat roof for relaxation, which defined space and the aesthetic design. The buildings had interior walls, which were independent and not supported by the support system (Moffett et al., 2003). To ensure illumination of light, Le Corbusier used horizontal windows, which would allow much light into the building. Lastly, there was the facade, which was freely designed, meaning it was independent of the structural supports (Moffett et al., 2003). Architecture is the song of modernity in the city, nation, and different discursively constructed worlds (King, 2004).

Furthermore, architecture is materially or physically built to cast radiance on its surroundings. The positioning of the physical structure, the calculation of the required spaces, and the function of the building portray the architectural elements used in the design and the construction. The crafting of a physical structure on a piece of terrain and the incorporation of other elements like size, height, shape, position, and design, makes complete the definition of the architecture. A building whose exterior attracts the attention of passers-by is regarded as architecture (Mitias 1999, p. 12). This is because the elements, which define a building, are intractably intertwined to form a piece of beautiful work. Unwin (2009, p. 30) note that architecture has its own conditions, which need to be fulfilled. For example, real materials, which shape a physical structure embodied with aesthetic values, define architecture. Both complex and basic elements of architecture are important in ensuring that a building qualifies as architecture (Unwin, 2009, p. 42).

The architectural shape and design can be defined for that building in that particular form. Different shapes have different meanings, which depend on the architectural design. For example, the shelter given by a particular building either inside or outside defines the particular structure and function of the building. For instance, the Robbie House designed and

developed by Frank Lloyd was designed in such a way that the relaxation room, the living room, and dining rooms had space at the centre. The terraces, projecting eaves, and the balconies defined and created a transitional space, which was later elongated into the open space adjoining the garden. The architecture of this form can be defined by the space created which involves creative thinking and art. The walls are erected to subdivide or define the experience people derive from the building. A structure erected using glass does not define the space in its architecture as the outside is connected with the inside part of the building (Conway and Roenisch, 1994, p. 12-15). The connection creates an experience, which has aesthetic beauty, which can help us to appreciate the natural environment. The way buildings enclose space and define it, depend on the materials used and the height of the building.

In the building, the most significant decisions on the specification and characteristics of the corporation's facilities are office location, decor and the style of office chairs, which are related to the structure of social relations in the place of work and so too are open/enclosed offices, security/access, and furniture setting (Weggeman et al., 2007). According to Vischer (2007) organisations consider the visual aspects of spatial organisation issues (e.g. the height of partitions and the distance between open workstations, resources, such as equipment, technology, and meeting rooms) and architectonic details (e.g. colours, shape and decoration that have symbolic meaning). These characteristics convey information to the public about the corporation and the public is sensitive to organisations' symbolic quality and the aesthetic of the physical environment (architecture).

Furthermore, architecture affects people emotionally and reflects the balance of culture, power and values of the organisation (Vischer, 2007). Weggeman et al. (2007) pointed out that for architects beauty is significant, "which is understandable as it is commonly assumed that the products of their work, architectural designs, should display beauty" but perhaps, "it appears less obvious at first sight that the products of managerial work can also display beauty, in the sense that they facilitate the origination of aesthetic experiences in work processes in the operational core" (p. 346). An experience with buildings is important. Constantinos (1963) recommended to architects to find a way to bring together the experience and knowledge of the community in order to affect humans, as experiences are perceived by the syntactic and geometrical qualities of the visual part of the environment. According to

Weggeman et al. (2007) architects should understand the products of their work, architectural designs, and should display beauty. Beauty is defined by Weggeman et al. (2007) as,

“Something which can and should be universally appreciable through the human faculty of judgement” (p. 355). The experience of beauty has four characteristics: 1) “disinterested (we can like an object without wanting to have it); 2) It is universal (objects have the capacity to be found beautiful by any observer); 3) It has purposiveness without purpose (the object displays some reason or function which cannot be completely grasped); 4) It is necessary (if we judge something to be beautiful, we feel as if everyone ought to agree with us” (Weggeman et al., 2007, p. 355).

The importance of the visual part of the environment and physical setting has been emphasised by some authors (Russell and Ward, 1981). Physical appearance refers to the immediate built environment and the physical setting refers to the exterior and interior design of corporate buildings, which is referred to as the company’s architecture (Chesbrough, 2003). Company’s architecture is the measure of all the architectonic aspects of the building of the organisation. This extends to aspects of physical setting expressing particular and strategic aspects of the organisation called its profile and those aspects which delineate the organisation as a whole are called corporate identity. An organisation’s corporate identity and image are created by the view the organisational members have of the organisation (Kennedy, 1977; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The responses to the design in the architecture may lead in turn to behavioural responses (Bitner, 1992). Behavioural studies have shown the significance of the visual quality of the architecture on the well-being of human beings (Ulrich, 1984).

Because of intensive market competition, everything an organisation does should confirm the company’s corporate identity (e.g. Borgerson et al., 2009; Olins, 1995). Architecture contributes to overall corporate identity (e.g. Borgerson et al., 2009). Corporate identity requires visibility, tangibility, and consistency with other aspects of corporate activity (Balmer and Gray, 1999) and can be influenced by aesthetic attractiveness. However, the aesthetic aspect of architecture is essential for organisations, since there is an increase in desire among corporate managers to promote the physical expression of the building as a means of building the corporate image (Becker and Steele, 1995). The structure and design of architecture influences the image of the organisation and creates a feeling of recognition to build an image (Gray and Balmer, 1998). Corporate architectural design is defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacture of artifacts for creating images of corporate

identity. Companies spend enormous amounts of money on designing the locations of a building to project a suitable image (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002) so that people have a good impression of the architecture of their buildings (Schroeder, 2003).

### **3.2.7. Architectural perception and assessment**

Architecture is the connection between nature and the human being (Veryzer, 1999) and an understanding of the ways humans perceive architecture is a significant issue for both managers and designers. Marketing personnel try to create a favourable image, which is based on perceptions that should be reinforced with visually appealing architecture (Van Heerden and Puth, 1995). Social identity theory can be employed to describe a 'sense of place' (Stedman, 2002), attitudes towards environmental sustainability (Carrus et al., 2006), identification with place (Uzzel et al., 2002), and the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993). According to Spencer (2002) the focus on place in environmental perception should be seen as complementary to the environment and place can be seen as a social category to provide identity. The perception of the environment is considered as a participatory experience between the physical setting and people.

The existing theories of social identity as the most significant of the interpersonal identity theories (Tajfel, 1981 and 1982) provides some insight into the increasing potential for better integration between a group of people, a certain lifestyle and social status. Twigger-Ross et al. (2003) found that social identity theory can easily include the physical environment and the meanings attached to it as well. They defined a place as a social entity or 'membership group' providing identity and people's bonds with residential environments. Social identity theory focuses on the cognitive process of identity (Thatcher and Zhu, 2006) and leads to activities which are congruent with and support institutions that embody their identity (Ashforth et al., 1989).

### **3.2.8. Architecture, human behaviour and attitudes towards the corporation**

That human behaviour is influenced by architectural design and that architecture influences customer and employee behaviours is undeniable (Bitner, 1992). Numerous studies in social psychology have examined human behaviour and established the impact of architecture and physical layout on social communication (Canter, 1977; Proshansky et al., 1970). The most

important concepts used by architecture and environmental psychologists are symbols, interaction, attitude, and socialisation (Lauer and Handel, 1977). However, management has presented architecture (physical settings) as influencing human perception, attitudes, and behaviours (McElroy and Morrow, 2010). Some authors (Han and Ryu, 2009; Mehrabian and Russel, 1974; Russel and Pratt, 1980) have stated that human behaviour is strongly connected with the physical environment.

Human behaviour is a series of 'meant-end actions' (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997, p. 343). According to Lang (1987) behaviour is a function of the people's motivations, which are affected by their perception and meanings of the world and constraints of the physical environment. Literature (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974) state that environmental psychologists believe that people's responses to any environment are in two forms: i) behavioural approach and ii) behaviour avoidance. Behavioural approach concerns all positive behaviours that are directed at a particular place or workplace (e.g. desire to stay, work, and affiliate). "Approach behaviour involves such responses as physically moving toward something, exploring an unfamiliar environment, affiliating with others in the environment through verbal communication and eye contact, and the environment" (Booms and Bitner, 1982, p. 38). ii) Behaviour avoidance includes the human beings and their relations with the natural and social environment (Bitner, 1992) and can be described as negative responses such as a desire not to stay, and not to work (Han and Hyu, 2009). Companies try to decrease avoidance behaviours and influence towards individual approach behaviours (Bitner, 1992).

Companies are paying attention to human behaviour and believe that social and architecture can have an effect on stakeholders' performance. Bitner (1992) claims that stakeholders (e.g. employees, customers, and etc.) respond to architecture emotionally, cognitively, and physiologically. According to Bitner (1992) companies are concerned with employee and customers behaviours, and the effects of the physical setting on the interactions between employees and customers. A favourable architectural design helps to identify "desirable customer and/or employee behaviours and the strategic goals that the organisation hopes to advance through its physical facility" (Bitner, 1992, p. 62). According to Van Riel and Balmer (1997) the, "behaviour of personnel has a direct effect on an organisation's corporate identity and image (Kennedy, 1977) would clearly suggest that personnel should identify with

an organisation's ideals and goals" (p. 345). Some studies (Cristiansen and Tax, 2000; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Lau and Ng, 2001) assert that research on stakeholders' behaviour has widely accepted that interpersonal communication (i.e. word-of-mouth in a closed environment) impacts on individuals' behaviours and attitudes. Management, architecture and environmental psychology shared an attitude among social psychologists. Attitude is defined as, "certain regularities of an individual's feelings, thoughts, and predisposition to act toward some aspects of his environment" (Secord and Backman, 1964, p. 97).

Environment (architecture) can be defined in terms of its meanings and meanings are the individual's behaviour towards the architecture, and behaviour is the consequence of attitudes. Architects are interested in impacting human behaviour in the workplace environment, such as communication with stakeholders as well as architecture's influence on a customer's ultimate satisfaction (Bitner, 1990), productivity, and motivation (Davis, 1984; Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986). The concept of the environmental competence of the users and the complexity of the environmental design should be considered during the first stages of design in order to influence the behaviour and fulfillment of the users' needs. The human ability to deal with the environment is another issue related to human behaviour. Architects need to recognise the environmental competence, physical health, and stress of users at the first stage of design in order to optimise comfort and manage workspace stress successfully (Vischer, 2007). Most people believe in high levels of physiological satisfaction and some seek for decadent comforts (Brebner, 1982).

The physical comfort and the users' control over their workplace can be seen as the result of the implementation of users' need approach. A conducive physical environment provides the service and comfort, such as physical movement, which provides high levels of flexibility for the users (Bitner, 1992). For example, the arrangement of seating in airports discourages the travelers from waiting. An ambience of well-appointed comfort as a perception of 'quality' reflects the anxieties, culture and values of developers, designers and users.

The main role of the designers and architects in organisations is as a communication conduit of corporate values and the style of the corporation, where style 'encompasses attitudes' and raises the question of how design might translate into values. Design can communicate corporate values as well as corporate strategy (Olins, 1978, 1989, Van Riel, 1995). Style and

design are integral aspects of corporate communication and are an integral aspect of corporate communication. The main role of style as a physical expression is to influence attitudes, relationships between employees, and customers. Attitudes toward a design represent a diversity of responses. Organisations are interested to encourage positive attitudes toward an organisation's formal communication (i.e., symbolism, communication, and behaviour), by ensuring that different audiences identify the company and understand the messages that they receive by communicators positively (Balmer, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The positive attitude of an employee towards the corporation is reflected in continued enthusiasm for various types of 'open-plan' office create and interaction between individuals and teamwork as symbols of prevailing equality in the workplace (Knight and Haslam, 2010). On the other hand, a negative attitude may impact the interpretation of the layout and influence on the individual's attitude. Architecture as a physical property has a direct influence on people's attitudes through aesthetics and symbolism.

### **3.2.9. Architecture and corporate communication**

Today there is increasing competition bringing with it highly demanding stakeholders and faster innovation in architecture and office design to meet the varied needs of today's corporate workforce (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). Corporate communication and marketing are significant for workplace productivity and innovation and organisations need to integrate the latest innovations into workspaces to serve the multiple needs of today's organisations (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007).

Today's organisations can build a building as an aesthetic object of high commercial and symbolic value (Huppertz, 2005) and philosophies (Melewar and Akel, 2005). Buildings can be seen to function as visible, graphical symbols and anonymous functional workplaces. The function of workplaces is the sign of specific social activities and behaviours, or as signifiers of the groups of individuals who occupy, work and own them (Huppertz, 2005). Melewar and Saunders (2000) referring to appearance of buildings proposed that organisations consciously or unconsciously project messages about companies through their built environments, for instance, factories, offices, warehouses and retail premises. They add that architecture includes the range of external and internal features of a building and overall appearance of the buildings and the design of surrounding landscapes and gardens are also vital factors (Melewar and Saunders, 2000).



However, the new buildings are affected by internal and external customers' perceptions of the organisations, which play a major role in shaping customers' attitudes towards the company (Brown and Dacin, 1997). Some authors (Hankinson, 2004; Huppertz, 2005) have suggested that the company's history, heritage and cultural background that form the modern world have debilitated people's ability to understand their surroundings (architecture).

Architecture communicates a message to the public (Alessandri, 2001). Some authors (Balmer, 2001; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006) add that corporate designs communicate the company's identity, internally and externally to the people. Furthermore, corporate architecture can be used as a communication asset (Van den Bosch et al., 2006) and for serious business faces (Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006). Discussion of corporate communication usually talks about corporate identity and corporate building architecture as tangible visual products (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001). Moreover, corporate visual identity assists a company to convey the company's visual identity through its buildings (Melewar, 2003). Buildings, interiors and corporate building architecture can also be an important element in an organisation's visual identity (Van den Bosch et al., 2006). Myfanwy and Cornelius (2006) point out that the architecture of a building can communicate the purpose and identity a company. In addition, architecture as an art which could be associated with the image of an organisation (Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005) communicates the company's identity, internally and externally to the people (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). According to Balmer (2001) corporate building architecture could communicate to people. Corporate building architecture supports corporate communication and marketing (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005; Van den Bosch et al., 2006).

Marketing perspectives state that architecture is an important part of communication strategy (Melewar and Saunders, 2000) and covers corporate design (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007). Architecture, interior design and location are the determinants of the corporate identity construct (Melewar, 2003). Architecture is the design of a building and the layout of a place which communicates the company's culture to the stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998), for instance, luxury places with expensive interiors can communicate better with their target audience. According to Becker and Steele (1995) there is an increase in desire among corporate managers to promote the physical expression of the building as a means of creating corporate image and corporate reputation.

### **3.2.10. Architecture and corporate image**

Architectures as a graphical element may symbolise many aspects of the corporate culture and become a powerful weapon for the customers. Furthermore, architecture has a significant role in an organisation, internal, external and stakeholders as a vehicle for communicating image (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Corporate image and corporate identity are often used interchangeably. Corporate image is a global impression formed in the minds of customers, while corporate identity is based in part on the elements that constitute corporate image and corporate identity that is an index of the physical and behavioural (Abratt, 1989). Behaviour is a consequence of the physical environment that creates an image which is particularly apparent for organisations (Bitner, 1992). Organisations use symbols to express the organisational identity that is used by the top managers to develop corporate identity (Hatch and Schultz, 2001). Corporate identity can refer to interior design and architecture (Alessandri and Alessandri, 2004).

Studies by some authors (Canter, 1977; Davis, 1984) show that there is evidence that building design and physical location within a building influence interaction and relationships. The physical location of a building is an important part of corporate identity (Melewar et al., 2006) that can project a positive image (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002), such as the location of offices and shops in city centres, which is related to specific activities (Sundstrom and Sundstrom, 1986). Merging the needs of the settings of specific activities with support for the work needs of office workers is a role of architecture (Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Vischer, 2007). Architecture can be considered as the packaging of services with three components which are ambient conditions, spatial layout and decor and orientation signals (Bitner, 1992). i) Ambient conditions (colour, light, temperature, noise, odor and music) which influence the customers' five senses and their perceptions. ii) Spatial layout (design and the arrangement of buildings), and iii) Decor and orientation signals (visual symbols used to create an appropriate atmosphere). These three ambient conditions influence corporate image and customer's perceptions (e.g. Bitner, 1990; Nguyen, 2006; Schmitt et al., 1995).

Stakeholders react to architecture on three levels: i) cognitive, customers interpret the physical environment using non-verbal cues that communicate the nature of the service offering and the provider's reputation. ii) Physiological, which is a result of the ambient conditions of the setting which can cause comfort or discomfort and encourage the customer

to pursue or to interrupt service consumption. It can influence the customer's attitudes and behaviours toward to the service. Iii) Emotional, which also affects behaviour and attitudes (Bitner, 1992; Nguyen, 2006). Attitudes and behaviour exert a strong impact on customer satisfaction (LeBlanc and Nguyen, 2006). Moreover, customer satisfaction is described as an important dimension of quality. Accordingly, the quality dimension is a key element that affects customer perceptions of the company, product and services (LeBlanc and Nguyen, 2006).

### **3.2.11. Architecture management construct**

The physical environment has an influence on customer behaviours by creating an overall aesthetic impression and corporate image, especially pertinent in a service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009). According to some authors (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999) the three main components of architecture are i) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, ii) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and iii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli that will be explained in the following sections. These factors are the main sufficient factors of the physical environment for customer behaviour research in a service context (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002).

#### **Architecture and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts**

Symbolic artifacts are “aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting” (Davis, 1984, p. 279) which particularly contribute to the attractiveness of the physical environment (Han and Ryu, 2009). Symbolic artifacts can be related to the aesthetics of the environment, which are intended to affect perceptions of culture (McElroy and Morrow) as well as have an effect on customer satisfaction (Han and Ryu, 2009). According to some authors (Han and Ryu, 2009; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1994) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts not only contribute to the attractiveness of the physical environment but also affect customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Han and Ryu, 2009). Furthermore, physical artifacts impact professional creative identities and personalities (Elsbach, 2009, p. 1065) and develop a complex representation of workplace identity (Elsbach, 2004, p. 99). However, there has been limited research on “how employees perceive to specific dimensions of workplace identities in work environments that limit the display of personal identity markers” (Elsbach, 2003, p. 623).

Symbolic artifacts consist of the features of the physical setting, which can be defined as the quality of the environment for company's employees (Davis, 1984, p. 278). Elsbach (2004) states that in corporate settings, "office decor sits on the front lines of social judgment processes" (p. 119). Company's artifacts are the visible display of an organisation that may induce employees to perceive pressure to express organisational attachment (Elsbach and Pratt, 2007, p. 201), employee thought processes, and behaviours, and feelings (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 613). Elsbach's (2004) study shows how corporate employees may interpret office decor as cues from the workplace in a corporation.

Corporations try to communicate status differentiation between employees by assigning higher ranked individuals better offices than their colleagues (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 619). Employees feel a loss of workplace identity because of their restricted ability to show uniqueness and status through the display of their personal artifacts (Varlander, 2012). Furthermore, employees build their own alternative means of signalling status through other physical markers, for instance, the number of personal artifacts shows the different levels of managers (Elsbach, 2003, p. 262). Employees personally select and display artifacts even though they are not related to work, however, these types of uniqueness categorisations are essential to an employee's core sense of self (Elsbach, 2003, p. 235). According to Elsbach (2004), a variety of "physical artifacts are examined and compared to specific managerial exemplars to develop a complex representation of workplace identity" (p. 99). Symbolic artifacts are "aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting" (Davis, 1984, p. 276) which is mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009). Furthermore, decor and artifacts influence, "the degree of overall customer satisfaction and subsequent customer behaviour" (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 489).

In addition, symbolic artifacts refer to the aesthetics of the office environment: the colours of the walls, type of flooring, pictures, flowers, floor, furniture style, and overall office decor which differentiate the company and place from its competitors (Han and Ryu, 2009). Davis (1984) states that physical structure and symbolic artifacts, "all tend to communicate information about the organisation and the people who work there" (p. 277). Physical structure, physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts are involved in the office re-design effort (Davis, 1984). The changes in the symbolic artifacts can improve positive reaction, for

instance, the natural lighting and the use of bright colours bring about a more pleasant work atmosphere as well as being intended to affect perceptions of culture (McElroy and Morrow, 2010).

### **Architecture and physical structure/spatial layout and functionality**

Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality can be defined as the architectural design and physical placement of furnishings in a building, the arrangement of objects (e.g. arrangement of the layout, machinery, furniture and equipment), the spatial relationships among them, physical location and physical appearance of the workplace which are particularly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006). Spatial layout influences or regulates social interaction (Davis, 1984, p. 272), intend to affect perceptions of culture (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 614), and influences customer satisfaction (Brennan et al., 2002, p. 288; Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 505; Fischer et al., 2004, p. 132; Oldham and Brass, 1979, p. 282), productivity (Ayoko and Hartel, 2003, p. 386; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011, p. 265) and motivation (Oldham and Brass, 1979, p. 282). Moreover, the structure of an organisation can affect the behaviour of organisational members and employees' comfort (Davis, 1984, p. 273). Comfort, overall layout, table/seating arrangements are the main elements of physical structure (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 496).

The physical structure of a workplace is expected by managers to impact on how people behave and interact (Davis, 1984, p. 272). The physical structure is essential in service settings, and is the purposeful environment that exists to aid the work of employees' and fulfil customers' specific needs and wants (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006).

According to McDonald (2006, p. 1) the exciting architectural expression, inspiring internal spaces and good functionality are an essential part of a work-place. Office designs need careful consideration of functionality because they have many consequences through a variety of functions (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007, p. 96). The functional features of an organisation are mainly based on the work-place in the office (Danielsson and Bodin, 2008, p. 641). Designers expose the functionality of the object (Fayard and Weeks, 2007, p. 610). The emphasis of modern design is primarily on the functionality of ergonomic design elements and employees are moved from private, enclosed offices to cubicle workspaces (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612).

The functionality of spatial layout is important and can be referred to as the ability of some items to facilitate performance and the accomplishment of goals (Bitner, 1992, p. 66). Many of the empirical studies that focus on organisational behaviour and psychology focus on the effects of the spatial layout and functionality dimension from the employee's perception and little research has been done on the effects of spatial layout and functionality on customers in the service sector (Bitner, 1992, p. 66). Bitner (1992) suggests that the efficiency of environmental functionality and layout are important especially to customers where they must be carried out on their own. For instance in self-service environments (e.g. ATM) a simple layout and clear directions help the customer in completing the transaction easily (Bitner, 1992, p. 67).

Melewar and Jenkins (2002, p. 82) state that the organisation's structure and physical location are component of corporate identity. Structure or climate of the organisation is normally interpreted to organisation's internal environment (Davis, 1984, p. 271). The physical structure of companies provides messages regarding the companies' capabilities and qualities for employees and outsider's alike (McElroy and Morrow, 2010 p. 610). Furthermore, it can be symbolised as something (Saleh, 1998, p. 161). Dixon and Durrheim (2000) argue that the psychological structure as an aspect of a sense of belonging (place-belongingness) is essential for place identity (p. 29). Saleh (1998, p. 153) states that place identity and visual image are not only connected to social and cultural influences but also linked to spatial organisation. In addition, identification with objects represents the distinctiveness and individuality of places, which can be related to the physical identity along with spatial components (Saleh, 1998, p. 161).

According to Varlander (2012) the physical structure is significant for a better understanding and conceptualisation of organisational flexibility and individuality which is mandated of top management to suitably design organisational structures that increase flexibility (p. 36) and can be the unintended consequences of planned spatial engagement (p. 35). Furthermore, there is no specific treatment of the function of spatial structure and context for impacting flexibility. Achieving long-term flexibility is "more costly than delivering short-term functionality, and planners are now more pragmatic, seeking an appropriate balance between cost and adaptability requirements" (McDonald, 2006, p. 4). For instance, designers create open offices as flexible spaces. The layout is more sensitive and results in changes to the

organisational structure and size since it is more easily reconfigured at minimal cost to meet changing needs (Brennan et al., 2002, p. 280).

### **Architecture and ambient conditions/physical stimuli**

Ambient conditions/physical stimuli are those aspects of the physical setting which are intangible background characteristics that intrude into the managers' or organisation members' awareness and are likely to have a pervasive effect on his/her behaviour (Davis, 1984, p. 274). The physical stimuli are the important factors in an environment to employees in many interpersonal service businesses such as banks, hospitals, and hotels (Bitner, 1992). Environmental psychology research suggests that employees need to have the opportunity to control task-relevant dimensions of their workplace environment (Elsbach and Pratt, 2007, p. 196) because employees spend long hours in their workplace (Bitner, 1992). The physical stimuli have a direct influence on employees' attitudes, behaviours, satisfaction (Brennan et al., 2002) that, in turn, improve job performance (Brennan et al., 2002; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011) and productivity (Parish et al., 2008, p. 222).

In addition, ambient conditions may need to be a major priority for many managers (Davis, 1984). Managers regularly introduce ambient conditions into the workplace environment to counteract negative influence as well as to remind themselves "of what needs to be accomplished" (Davis, 1984, p. 275). Ambient conditions/physical stimuli impact on physiological reactions, which can cause comfort or discomfort during the service encounter (Bitner, 1992; Griffitt, 1970; Nguyen, 2006). Importantly, managers need to be aware of employee's preferences must be balanced against customer needs (Bitner, 1992).

Furthermore, a physical stimulus has a significant role in forming customer perceptions and responses to the environment (Bitner, 1992) by encouraging customers to pursue service consumption. Ambient conditions/physical stimuli, generally has a subconscious effect on customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 487). Furthermore, it affects customers' attitudes and behaviours toward the company and can have an effect on consumers' perceptions and their experiences (Han and Ryu, 2009). The physical stimuli of an environment in service settings encourages stakeholders to pursue service consumption (Han and Ryu, 2009) and subsequently have an effect on employees' behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, and performance (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011;

Nguyen, 2006) toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006). Furthermore, it influences consumer satisfaction and predicts post-purchase behaviours (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 494).

The ambient features in office environments and the psychosocial characteristics of the office include background characteristics of the environment which affect the five senses which include elements such as temperature, lighting, existence of windows, noise, music, air quality, and scent/aroma/odour (Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011), and privacy (Brennan et al., 2002). All the features harmonising with other elements in a particular place are related to environmental satisfaction (Brennan et al., 2002) and job satisfaction (Kamarulzaman et al., 2011). In addition, physical stimuli in the environment may have an affect on consumers having more favourable perceptions, favourable behavioural responses, and favourable experiences (Han and Ryu, 2009). According to Bitner (1992, p. 64) people have emotional reactions to sensory stimuli, for instance, the natural scent such as the aroma of cotton flowers and increase the, “self-efficacy perceptions, goal setting, use of efficient work strategies, and less confrontational negotiation styles” (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007, p. 203). Noise can be defined as unwanted sound, which affects dissatisfaction of staff regarding the environment (Davis et al., 2010).

The total environment (e.g. noise, lighting, and temperature) can be problematic for office dwellers and studies have illustrated that the control over these factors are critical (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007) and that they constitute the “cues the customer in to what the service is and what the firm can do” (Bernard and Bitner 1982, p. 39). Noise is a psychosocial stress, which cannot not be avoided and should be taken into consideration by the top management of organisations (Davis et al., 2010; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011). Some authors (Brennan et al., 2002; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011) believe that noise has a direct impact on employees’ well-being, performance, efficiency and productivity. A low degree of noise and distraction shows the importance of architectural privacy (Brennan et al., 2002; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007, p. 185). Employees in an open plan workspace believe that noise is the main source of discomfort and reduced productivity (Bitner, 1992; Vischer, 2007, p. 178).



Another factor of physical stimuli is lighting which has ‘tangible cues’ (Leblanc and Nguyen, 1996, p. 48) which tell people, “how to move, how to speak, and how much intimacy is invited (candle light, strobe lights in a club, and brilliant sun on a beautiful beach with beautiful people)” (Kornberger and Clegg, 2004, p. 1107). Modern looking buildings use natural lighting and the use of bright colours results in a more pleasant work atmosphere, which elicits positive reactions (Parish et al., 2008; McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 613). For example, lighting can create a warm atmosphere in office environments (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 498). Natural light in a workplace decreases stress and improves productivity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007, p. 95). Day lighting improves, “comfort and productivity with window size and proximity, as well as with view out, control over blinds and shielding from glare” (Vischer, 2007, p. 178). Lighting can have a negative impact on people. According to Bitner (1992 p. 64) the glare of lighting can reduce the ability to see and induces physical pain. For example, “the lighting in the office gives me headaches” (Knight and Haslam, 2010, p. 723).

Other factors of physical stimuli, which can directly influence employee perception, performance and job satisfaction, are temperature (Nguyen, 2006). Temperature and air circulation need to be controlled (Davis, 1984; McDonald, 2006; Vischer, 2007) otherwise, it causes work-related injury or illness from exposure to pollution in the workplace (Davis, 1984, p. 278). Office workers prefer to change the temperature personally within their own working area (Knight and Haslam, 2010). For example, the air quality of the workplace can make it hard to breathe or the temperature of a room can influence people to shiver or perspire (Bitner, 1992, p. 64).

### **3.2.12. Defining the Architecture concept**

Despite the popularity of architecture, there exists no one definition of architecture (Unwin, 2009, p. 27). What exists is the general comparison of art and building. Just like language, architecture is made of different parts joined together in an artistic manner to give meaning (Unwin, 2009, p. 29). Building architecture is an art and it is a significant piece of symbolism that operates in a competitive environment (Balmer, 2005; Huppertz, 2005), which is associated with the image of the organisation (Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005). Architecture is overlapping symbolic and spatial elements (King, 2004). Generally, the term “architecture” is used to mean the science and the art of designing and erecting physical structures and buildings (Spinellis and Gousios, 2009, p. 7). It aids in solving problems by building houses,

networks and bridges that make them distinctive because of the characteristics they hold. It is also used to mean the style in which buildings are designed and constructed to give an aesthetic appeal. Specifically in building and construction, the term is used to imply the planning process, designing, as well as constructing structures to give an aesthetic appeal and functionality (Gruber, 2011, p. 9). Architectural characteristics make a structure fulfil, or fit, in with the definition of architecture (Unwin 2009, p. 27).

Architecture is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company (Jun and Lee, 2007) and is one of the key elements of a corporate visual identity (He and Balmer, 2005; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2006; Van den Bosch et al., 2006). Architecture is a sign system, and fundamental organisational identity behind the tangible manifestations (Olins, 1989) which can be decisive in facilitating employee and consumer-company identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010). The stronger the architecture, the stronger is the potential for customer and employee identification through the architecture (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009).

In addition, architecture can be defined as the science of designing and constructing a building, which incorporates an aesthetic design to into fully developed architecture (Conway and Roenisch, 1994, p. 21). The exterior and the interior walls of a building define the space which a building occupies (Meiss, 1990, p. 101). The space which the interior of a building encloses defines the space in which the architecture is influential. Architectural space, which emerges as a result of the relationship between planes and boundaries, define these limits. The limits may be continuous or bound to a specific boundary. By knowing the space, which surrounds a building, either externally or internally, an architect is enabled to employ architectural methods to come up with the required design. Wasseman et al. (2000, p. 36) note that architecture is the design and construction of buildings, which would offer human habitation as well as accommodation for human affairs. In the process, different materials are used which differentiate one building from another.

‘Architect’ is derived as a Greek word ‘archi’ which means a builder or a chef or ‘tecton’ (Ballantyne, 2002, p. 12). Therefore, architecture can be defined as the art or the process of designing and building houses and other structures. Hays (2000, p. 207) uses “design” to define architecture. The author notes that architecture is no longer viewed, explicitly or

implicitly, as the dominant system. Instead, it is viewed in terms of designs. Design in this perspective is seen as a sieve which distinguishes abstract from conventional art. Its elaborative nature provides a mechanism in which architecture is designed. Design makes buildings stand squarely on a piece of land.

Johnson (1955) describes architecture as “a veritable oratory of power made by form” (p. 44). The implication is that man’s triumph, man’s pride, and will to power are applied to realise a visible form. This can be elaborated using examples of the structural and physical construction of cathedrals or the buildings constructed during the Gothic times where solid stones were used (Johnson, 1955). In the modern times, hollow stones are used which define space in the structure. Because of human nature and the will to power, architects are able to create space by means of a range of devices from insulation panels to large open spaces in modern structures.

Gruber (2011, p. 9) defines architecture as the, “material structure that defines space and enables interactions”. This implies that the built environment is the space used to design a building or related constructions in different scales of architecture. Projects ranging from houses to urban planning are all defined in the context of architecture. In architectural projects, structures of different designs, proportions, heights, and materials are designed. The different elements of architecture are used in architectural projects to create a structure. According to Gruber (2011, p. 12) an architectural project should be designed in such a way that it meets all the conflicting requirements. The functional levels are not constrained to the internal space but also the external space. Intangible aspects such as geometric order, abstract concept, style, and aesthetic concept are intertwined with functional relationships of the external environment. The task of the architect is to integrate all the elements to bring a definite meaning to the architecture in the final completed project.

Architecture is used to mean “spatial planning on a larger scale” (Gruber, 2011, p. 8). Physical structures are designed through planning which may be developed on a large scale. This is achieved through the art of both design and non-design elements. Urbanism and traditional architecture share a symbiotic relationship where structural features defined by height, size and functionality emerge. Spatial modulation and structural systems give freedom to modern architecture (Gans, 2000, p. 23).

Although applied in the modern world, Lee (2010, p. 193) defines architecture as “the fundamental organisation of a system in its components, their relationships to each other, and to the environment”. In reference to building and construction, this implies that different aspects or elements are incorporated in a system to produce a complete project. The functionality of a system can be described using the works of Nesbitt (1996) who observes that architecture is not limited to the “superficial styling, applied cosmetically to the outside of buildings (p. 125). Instead, a focus should be on the enclosed space, which allows inhabitants to carry out or perform different tasks in that particular space. Most of the building constructed in the 20<sup>th</sup> century is based on the belief that functionalism is best served by a rectangular frame in the form of a concrete and steel frame used to form white stucco, glass, or grey walled buildings (Nesbitt, 1996, p. 125). The art of bringing out functionalism through design, space and structures brings out meaning in all buildings constructed whether in modern or in the traditional times.

Nesbitt (1996, p. 132) stated that architects like Domingo Alvarez found it hard to describe architecture but instead used a mirror to draw lines to define space. This was symbolic of what architecture was all about. In other words, spatial syntax was used to define architecture. Others architects like Philip Steadman and Lionel March used syntactic terms like grids, coordinates, and lattices to define architecture (Nesbitt, 1996, p. 132). Rules used in the division of space can be used to define architecture (Nesbitt, 1996). The rules are able to use size, heights, shape, position, aesthetic design, material, and physical structure to bring out a meaning in architecture.

Architecture is a reflection of man’s corporal essence of his habits, which expresses the *lebensfuhr* of an epoch. “*Lebensfuhr*” is means some kind of spirit which men seek while instilling aesthetic interest and its exceptional functionality. Furthermore, it gives the artistic value portrayed through space where new energy is created at that particular time. Therefore, architecture helps human beings see the world as they want it to be by creating harmony and order, which we find ourselves involved in. Man’s desire is reflected by the way space is divided in different sizes, heights, and proportions to satisfy the rational nature of human beings. For instance, in mediaeval France and Egypt, architecture was used to show the rationality of human beings. When a closer look is taken at the Gothic cathedrals, a divine perfection is shown which can be found in Renaissance churches and ancient Cathedrals

(Curl, 2002, p. 56). Although a disparity emerges in the styles adopted, the rule of proportionality and laws of mathematics remain. Laws of proportions, which are major principles of architectural practices, are more important than style. Therefore, contiguous sections and parts combined with mathematical laws bring out harmony in structural buildings, which predict a degree of aesthetic value or design.

Brandle (2002) notes “architecture is formed physical matter” (p. 37). The elements of space and function are widely pronounced in this definition. In the actual stages of design, the building is shaped and the process of shaping continues to fit functionality. For example, some of the architectural worlds of Le Corbusier have been reshaped to fit the function of a museum of national artifacts. Architecture is a national corporate collective identity (King, 2004). Gans (2000, p. 17) and Le Corbusier (2008, p. 102) notes that the writings and the architectural designs of Le Corbusier define architecture as the creation of the human mind which is embodied in spirit. During his tours of the Mediterranean, Le Corbusier acknowledged that he saw external monuments, which symbolised the human spirit. Gans (2000) observe that, “architecture is the coherent construct of the mind” (p. 18). Decorations are symbolic in architecture and are placed in both small and big buildings, in enclosure walls and in any modest or sublime structure, which is based on the basic principles of geometry and elements of architecture (Gans, 2000, p. 18). To Le Corbusier architecture cannot be seen as a replica or surrogate of revolution but creation of the human mind. Architecture is visual-symbolic and physical-spatial and it circulates in the discourses of geography and cultural research (King, 2004).

To sum it up, architecture has different meanings depending on the time the building was built or designed. However, an agreeable meaning based on this analysis is that architecture is the art incorporated in a building to give an aesthetic design and functionality (Gans, 2000). Although some elements like shape, position, aesthetic design, material, and physical structure are applied while defining architecture, space and function emerges as the most important elements followed by aesthetic design. These elements differentiate a mere building from a piece of architecture. The works of Le Corbusier have contributed significantly to architecture. Gans (2000) defines architecture as the work of the mind, and it is not necessarily a surrogate of for revolution.

Architecture is a signifier of economic, political and cultural power (King, 2004). From the ancient times of the Gothic buildings, Cathedrals, and Palaces, to the modern times culminating in the works of Le Corbusier among others, architecture is seen as more of an art combined with science. Other scholars and architects define architecture in the context of culture and the meaning it has to that particular group. Generally, architecture is the artistic and the aesthetic design combined with geometric and architectural laws to bring about a structure. All this as seen by Gans (2000) as the work or the construct of the mind aimed at satisfying inner feelings (See Appendix 3.2 presents a chronology of some of the key definitions of the architecture concept).

A close examination of the definitions of architecture reveals that the definitions corroborate the idea that the related literature incorporates many human metaphors such as identity and character. The complexity of the phenomenon is important to the dissimilar aspects of the variety of perceptions from different domains of knowledge which have persuaded us all that a possible definition can strip the phenomenon of valuable dimensions. A common treatment can be detected: the main definitions concern perception and communication of an organisation and its characteristics.

Drawing on this literature, it could be concluded that the definition of architecture as a visual presentation of a company (Jun and Lee, 2007) encapsulates the company's purpose and identity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006), set of elements (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) (Brennan *et al.*, 2002; Bitner, 1992; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2011; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) and which influence consumers' and employees' attitude, and behaviour (Alessandri, 2001; Bitner, 1992; Brennan *et al.*, 2002; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Rooney, 2010). It can be decisive in facilitating employee, consumer-company identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney *et al.*, 2010).

### **3.3. SUMMARY**

This chapter comprehensively reviewed the literature of corporate identity (Section 2.1) and architecture (Section 2.2) and identified research issues. The literature review has led to the

conclusion that the literature, to date, has not substantially explained, through empirical research, the relationship between the underlying nature of corporate identity, architecture and identification triad. In addition, based on the review of the related literature, it was found that a single, survey-based case study is appropriate. In doing so, the researcher recognised and identified four research questions which needed to be addressed: (i) what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?, (ii) what is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?, (iii) what is the relationship between architecture and identification?, and (iv) what is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?

Section II.1 reviewed the extant literature incorporating views from corporate identity and subsequent discussion of the construct to better understand the associations between the construct and the managerial variables. The review of the literature shows that study of identity has become a hot topic during the last two decades (Balmer and Greyser, 2002). Based on the main five approaches in the corporate identity domain, visual identity, integrated communication, marketing, organisational, and multi-disciplinary approach, this study takes the multi-disciplinary approach as corporate identity and its management is known to be a multifaceted phenomenon. In light of the multi-disciplinary approach which acknowledges overlap in various areas of knowledge and advocates a more eclectic view while studying corporate identity (See Section 2.1.5.4), the three main components of corporate identity as a widespread construct were recognised as (i) corporate visual identity, (ii) philosophy, mission, and values, and (iii) communication. In addition, the second section of the literature review looks at architecture, and shows its relationships with corporate identity.

Section II.2 reviewed the extant literature incorporating views from architecture and the importance of architecture in achieving business objectives as examined in this chapter. Based on the review of the literature from different disciplines such as design, management, organisational, psychology (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981), social identity (Bonaiuto et al., 1996; Speller et al., 2002; Stedman, 2002; Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003), this study found that in recent years, architecture has become particularly significant in service industries to create a sense of attachment for its employees and shape what stakeholders associate with it. Architectural design is defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacture of artefacts to create images of corporate

identity. The significance of designing a building with internal-stakeholders' perception in mind along with the interaction and behaviour of human beings with the environment of the organisations was demonstrated. This section was occupied with the importance of architecture in maximising the performance of employees. Moreover, the literature review illustrates the influences of architecture on the human interaction component, which has a significant effect on the stakeholders' perception, attitudes, values, and behaviour. In addition, it shows the concern with the role of the physical environment in corporate communication and its support of corporate culture and values are investigated. The most valuable physical asset of most corporations are the facilities of the corporation and facilities are functional in operation and are also habitual, symbolic, environmental, and habitual. Furthermore, the role of facilities as a means of communication of the organisational culture, values and policies were acknowledged. Importantly, the three main components of architecture were identified as (i) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, (ii) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and (iii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli.

Based on the review of the related literature (II.1 and II.2), ten gaps are identified. (i) there is an absence of research into employees and open offices relationship within the modern office environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 615); (ii) there is lack of empirical research into how architecture might be defined (Unwin, 2009); (iii) little is known about contemporary changes in office environments (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 612); (iv) there is lack of empirical research on how the introduction of new or re-designed offices may be successfully managed (Davis, 2010, p. 221); (v) little is known about the connections between place and the formation of these identities or how a connection to place influences responses to organisational change (Rooney, 2010); (vi) there is little study considering the different levels of importance among the components of the physical environment in predicting outcome variables (Han and Ryu, 2009); (vii) there is almost no research that has examined how employees perceive specific dimensions of workplace identities in work environments that limit the display of personal identity markers (Elsbach, 2003, p. 623); (viii) the marketing literature has no systematic study of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification; (ix) there is a lack of explanatory models and theory building studies in the area of architecture; and (x) the assumption of Elsbach (2003) and Rooney, (2010) that there is relationship between corporate identity and architecture has not been tested and validated yet. Having grasped a better understanding of the importance of the relationships between



these concepts, this research demonstrates the relevant mechanisms underlying the associations between corporate identity, architecture, and identification from a multi-internal stakeholder perspective of a middle-ranked and London-based Business School.

In the next chapter the research theoretical framework will be described on the basis of research hypotheses. The development of the hypotheses will be traced, with supporting theories. These hypotheses explore the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification triad.

**Table 3.1: Definitions of the research constructs and concepts**

<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY</b>
Corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and serves as a vehicle for expression of the company's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), mission and values (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005), communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995).
<b>Philosophy, Mission, and Value</b>
Philosophy is the core values and assumptions that constitute the corporate culture, business mission and values espoused by the management board or founder of the company (Abratt, 1989; Collins and Porras, 1991; Ledford et al., 1995; Melewar, 2003; Simoes et al., 2005; Wright, 1984).
Mission is the company purpose, the reason for which a company exists or objectives (De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar, 2003).
Value is the dominant system of beliefs and moral principles that lie within the organisation that comprise everyday language, ideologies, rituals and beliefs of personnel (Balmer, 1995; Campbell and Yeung, 1991; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003).
<b>Communication</b>
Communication is the aggregate of messages from both official and informal sources, through a variety of media, by which a company conveys its identity to its multiple audiences or stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar, 2003).
<b>Corporate visual identity</b>
Corporate visual identity is an assembly of visual cues to make an expression of the organisation (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) by which an audience can

recognise the company and distinguish it from others (Bernstein, 1984) in serving to remind the corporate real purpose (Abratt, 1989) in serving to remind the corporate real purpose (Abratt, 1989, Melewar, 2003).

## **ARCHITECTURE**

Architecture is a visual presentation of a company (Jun and Lee, 2007) encapsulate company's purpose and identity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006), set of elements (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) (Brennan *et al.*, 2002; Bitner, 1992; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2011; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006), which influence on stakeholders' attitude, and behaviour (Alessandri, 2001; Bitner, 1992; Brennan *et al.*, 2002; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Rooney, 2010). It can be decisive in facilitating employee, stakeholders' identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney *et al.*, 2010).

### **Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality**

Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality is the architectural design and physical placement of furnishings in a building, the arrangement of objects (e.g. arrangement of buildings, machinery, furniture and equipment), the spatial relationships among them, physical location and physical layout of the workplace which particularly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) and can be symbolise something (Saleh, 1998).

### **Ambient conditions/physical stimuli**

Ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment in service settings encourage stakeholders to pursue the service consumptions (Han and Ryu, 2009) and subsequently effect on employees' behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, and performance (Brennan *et al.*, 2002; Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Parish *et al.*, 2008) toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006).

### **Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts**

Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting (Davis, 1984; McElroy and Morrow, 2010), can be related to the aesthetics and attractiveness of the physical of the environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010), develop a complex representation of workplace Identity (Elsbach, 2004, p. 99) and mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009).

## **STAKEHOLDERS' IDENTIFICATION**

Identification is the degree to which stakeholders define him or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation (Dutton *et al.*, 1994, p. 239; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney *et al.*, 2010).

## **CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES**

### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

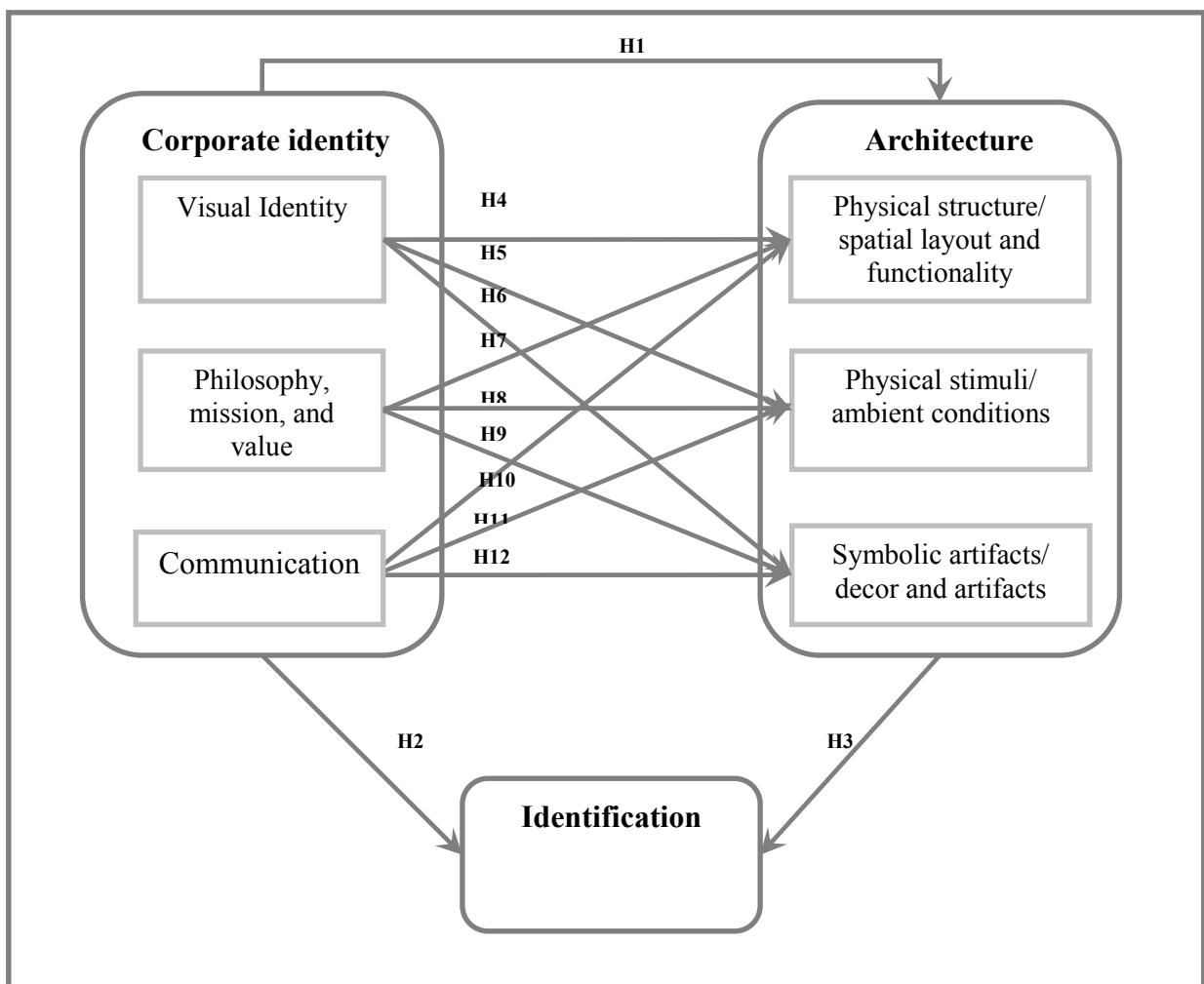
The previous chapter (Literature Review) which reviewed the literature on corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification triad illustrated that a good deal of the writing is conceptual, and there is no empirical research to address the relationships. Findings from the literature review recommend further study. The main elements of corporate identity were recognised as: (i) corporate visual identity, (ii) philosophy, mission, and value; and (iii) communication (Section III.1). In addition, the factors in which the influence of architecture was acknowledged as: (i) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality; (ii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli; and (iii) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts and illustrates simultaneously the relationship with stakeholders' identification (Section III.2). As a finding of the prior chapter, there is a need to examine the specific relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification triad. Hence this study will inspect the relationships between all these concepts.

In this chapter, the relationships between the constructs are hypothesised, with support from the literature, in the form of a conceptual model of the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification, the relationships between the corporate identity components and architecture components. Given the significance of the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification and building upon the evidence, this research responds to Elsbach (2003) and Rooney's (2010) call for examining the impact of the specific components of corporate identity and its relationship to architectural components on explaining variations in multiple internal-stakeholders' identification (Elsbach, 2003; Han and Ryu, 2009). The research conceptual model has been designed to scrutinise a number of associations, which are acknowledged in the literature (See Chapter III).

Generating a multiple internal-stakeholders' level conceptual framework based on attribution theory (to understand how people make sense of their world (Graham, 1991; Jones et al.,

1972; Weiner) demonstrates: (i) the association between the corporate identity, architecture, and identification concepts and their elements that foster or discourage identification; (ii) the relationships between other theoretically and empirically identified variables. The associations between the research concepts and the related hypotheses are explained in this section. In order to guide this study, Figure 4.1 illustrates the following multiple internal-stakeholders' level conceptual research model and identifies the key constructs. Then future research would be encouraged to empirically test the current field research, the research model, and various propositions in different contexts.

**Figure 4.1: The Research Conceptual Framework**



Source: Developed by the researcher

The relationships in the model and the research hypotheses (see Table 4.1, overleaf) will be further discussed in this chapter. Section 4.2 presents the research framework and hypotheses' development. Section 4.3 depicts the proposed direct hypothetical relationships between

corporate identity and identification. The relationship between architecture and identification will be discussed in Section 4.4. Section 4.5 illustrates the relationship between corporate identity and identification. The relationships between corporate identity components and architectural components are described in Section 4.6. Finally, Section 4.7 summarises the chapter.

## **4.2. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES' DEVELOPMENT**

Architecture as a substantial piece of symbolism can be defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacturer of artefacts to create an image of corporate identity (Alessandri, 2001; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997). For instance, a company's architecture plays a vital role in the way the company presents itself, both to internal and external stakeholders (Melewar and Saunders, 2000). This process plays a main role in shaping customers' respondents towards the company (Brown and Dacin, 1997). Architecture helps customers to focus on the corporation, what it stands for and what it communicators deliver, and it allows the organisation to send a more reliable message to stakeholders (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998). The marketing literature confirmed that managers focus on the company's architecture to create a strong corporate identity. The development of a corporate identity programme and its journey requires adopting a new visual identity for British universities, in their corporate architecture. In addition, a company's architecture and landscape often enhance a strong universal corporate identity (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Kennedy, 1977). Knight and Haslam (2010) state that managerial control of space directly affects consumers' and employees' identification with the corporate personality.

Nevertheless, based on the assumption of Elsbach (2003) and Rooney (2010) that there is a relationship between corporate identity and architecture this relationship has not been tested and validated yet. Nevertheless, there is still a lack of empirical study related to the corporate identity and its relationship to architecture at a stakeholders' level. Due to the lack of understanding of the subject 'architecture' from a multi-disciplinary approach made the researcher think about a pluralistic study where qualitative methods are used in conjunction with quantitative methods, in order to inspect a domain that is unknown or has received relatively little attention to date (Deshpande, 1983; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992). This research builds a conceptual model from the internal-stakeholders' perceptual view and attempts to clarify these causal relationships between the different variables and the role of

various factors affecting corporate identity and architecture, therefore, to conceptually illuminate ambiguities that exist in the related studies.

The conceptual framework will serve as a primary step of survey-based single study. Simoes et al. (2005) have measured corporate identity using quantitative research and architecture has been measured using lengthy but well validated questionnaires (Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008; Vischer, 2007; etc.).

#### **4.3. CORPORATE IDENTITY AND ARCHITECTURE RELATIONSHIPS**

As mentioned in the literature, authors (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) identified a strong relationship between corporate identity and architecture. Recent research (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) has discussed the importance for decision makers to focus on the company's architecture to create a strong corporate identity. For example, architecture, location, and the interior decor of offices play a vital role in the way companies present themselves, both to internal and external stakeholders (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002).

The marketing literature confirmed that managers should focus on architecture to create a strong corporate identity. Olins (1995) and Melewar et al. (2006) claim that an organisation's architecture is a major part of corporate identity. It is recommended that having a favourable location is essential for a successful organisation and firms spend a significant amount of money to acquire key sites to project the appropriate corporate image and corporate identity. Corporate identity can be viewed as the sum of all the factors which, when integrated, form a presentation of what a company is and how it is different from other companies (Downey, 1986, p. 7).

In addition, architecture is considered to be the expression of a company's internal creativity which communicates the company's corporate essence to the internal and external stakeholders. Therefore, this sense of corporate identity communicates the personality of a

company (Downey, 1986) and the impression that a public has of the organisation is also constructed at the same time (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001; Fillis, 2003; Gioia et al., 2000; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Nguyen, 2006). Schmitt et al. (1995) recommended that managers collaborate with consultants and architects to evaluate the styles (primary attributes, complexity, and representation), themes, and the aesthetic impression of the company as the basic elements for evaluation which are sensitivity to the customer; individuality from the competition and expression of corporate mission, values. To provide the value and mission of a company, the management of an organisation's aesthetics must go beyond a statement of one's 'corporate identity'. Corporate aesthetics must be managed and planned to provide clear guidelines on how to enhance a company's, and its products', appeal (Schmitt et al., 1995). Corporate identity comes from the organisation's products or services, its employees, its management, its attitude and work climate, and is originated in the positive and negative influences of communication between planned and perceived image (Northart, 1980, p. 29).

The development of a corporate identity programme and its journey requires adopting a new visual identity such as a favourable company's architecture. For example, company's architecture and landscape often enhance a strong universal corporate identity (Kennedy, 1977). In fact, visual dimensions are carefully re-designed and communicated to internal and external audiences in particular when companies need to change their visual identity, in order to achieve a higher market profile or to articulate new organisational forms such as mergers and acquisitions (Melewar et al., 2006). For example, Peugeot's headquarters are to be found just off the Champs Elysees in Paris, one of the most prestigious and expensive streets in the world. Melewar et al. (2006) recommended that having a favourable location is essential for a successful organisation and firms spend a significant amount of money to achieve key sites to project the appropriate image and a main location which has a significant element of visual identity (Kirby and Kent, 2010) provides the organisation with constant exposure to the general public.

The general public recognise the company and distinguish it from others by the company's visual cues such as building design. The power of visual cues resides in their ability to speak louder than words in forming and reinforcing corporate identity (Nguyen, 2006). The non-verbal cues communicate the nature of the service offering and the value of the service provider's reputation (Nguyen, 2006). For instance, when a customer visits a lawyer's office

for the first time, the architecture, decor and furniture quality may create an impression of the firm's success (p. 67). Architecture is demonstrated by the attention that firms give to the influence of architecture on how their identity is perceived (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). In addition, from an architectural perspective the environment of architecture and buildings have been understood to symbolise good taste, power, and status through the attention paid to the identity of the architect (Berg and Kreiner, 1990) and it can influence a company's prestige (Brauer, 2002; Kirby and Kent, 2010). Furthermore, a favourable architecture can have an influence on the rise of consumption. The ability of environmental elements to create and to communicate corporate image is well-recognised for companies, particularly in service sectors such as the financial, corporate headquarters and public institutional realms (Abratt, 1989; Bitner, 1990, 1992; Schmitt et al., 1995; Ward and Barnes, 2001).

Hence, despite the clear rationale that corporate identity has an affect on architecture, and architecture has an affect on corporate identity, there is limited discussion on how architecture contributes to identity and how identity contributes to architecture (Kirby and Kent, 2010) and it is hypothesised on an exploratory basis that:

***H1:** The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture.*

#### **4.4. CORPORATE IDENTITY AND IDENTIFICATION RELATIONSHIPS**

Corporate identity and identification are powerful terms as both concepts contribute to the very definition of identity of a person, a group, or an organisation. Identity and identification are root constructs in organisational phenomena and behaviours in contemporary organisations (Albert et al., 2000). According to social identity theory, people define themselves as members of certain social groups or by belonging to certain categories such as gender, ethnicity, political parties and people need to distinguish themselves from others in social contexts (Brewer, 1991; Kramer, 1991; Marin and de Maya, 2013; Tajfel and Turner, 1985). Identity and identification explain the means by which individuals act as members of the group or the organisation. Internal-stakeholders' identification with a company that has a favourable identity enables them to view themselves in reflected way which reflects favourably on the company, which enhances their sense of self-worth. Thus, the uniqueness of a company's identity is likely to be determined in part the perception of others (Bhattacharya



and Sen, 2003; Cheney 1983; Pratt 1998).

The organisational identification literature has assumed that greater attractiveness of the perceived identity of an organisation will lead to a strong identification with the organisation (Barney and Stewart, 2000; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Dutton et al., 1994). For instance, a company's internal-stakeholders who believe their organisation has a characteristic culture, structure, or some other characteristic compared to those of other groups, are likely to experience strong levels of organisational identification (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Some authors (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Mael and Ashforth, 1992) found that consumers who perceived their university as unique in attitudes values and practices had high levels of organisational identification. In addition, Dutton et al. (1994) state that those employees and customer's beliefs about the distinguishing, chief and enduring attributes of an organisation can provide an influential corporate image and have an impact on the degree to which internal-stakeholders identify with the organisation .

Following from the above, we assume that a strong identity will have a positive influence on organisational identification. Drawing on this argument, it is proposed that corporate identity that is an organisation's uniqueness is expressed in a set of distinctive attributes, which could affect internal-stakeholders' identification. Thus, this research has drawn a strong, direct connection between corporate identity and identification, therefore, it is posited that,

***H2:** The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more they identify themselves with that company.*

#### **4.5. ARCHITECTURE AND IDENTIFICATION RELATIONSHIPS**

The relationship between architecture and identification has been recognised by previous scholars (Knight and Haslam, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006). Scholars (Rooney et al., 2010) state that architecture can have different meanings for different employees and consumers, and the influences of these meanings will, in turn, cause different groups within a place to form different responses to changes to a place. The results show that place identity is an essential and different mode of place identification that leads different groups to understand the possibilities, values, and efficacy of places differently. People see different possibilities for building or defending their identities and esteem in a place (Rooney et al., 2010). Place identity theory argues that employees' identification with their place of

work influences their perceptions of large-scale organisational change (Rooney et al., 2010). Physical changes in the environment have an effect on stakeholders' emotional responses and feeling towards the organisation, which deepen as the relationship develops in two ways. Firstly, is the sense of identification with those with whom the clients had direct contact (Kioussi, 2008)? Secondly, is the identification developed beyond the attitudes and sets of individual associations with multiple internal-stakeholders to identification with the practices of the company as a piece of corporate branding which is embodied in various designs?

Based on social identity theory, which explains the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993), sense of place (Stedman, 2002; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003), and identification with a place (Uzzel et al., 2002), the organisation's stakeholders define themselves in relation to their own work-places/study (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996). According to Spencer (2002) the focus on place in the environmental perception should be seen as complementary and place can be seen as a social category to provide identity (Bonaiuto et al., 1996; Speller et al., 2002; Stedman, 2002; Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003). The perception of the environment is considered as a participatory experience between the physical setting and people.

In order to understand customers, managers should focus on the language of client identification at the client-architecture interface and emphasise how communication from the architectural practice affects and is affected by clients. Clients and end-users identify with buildings and those behind the design. Design can be seen by the clients as an expression of themselves, who they are and who they aspire to be. Brand management research into niche market architecture firms established important associations between the architectural process and client identification (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009). In addition, it also facilitates client identification through the building's design, which in some cases supports and develops client corporate branding. Architects and 'archistars' may assign most promotional resources to the visual language of organisations. Organisations are appreciating design quality in advertising and helping the sales of their services and products. Visual imagery is implicitly the doorway to stimulating client identification, originally on design merit, yet subsequently through relationship development. In addition, favourable design and service practices increase most in the context of brand management language, describing cutting edge design and a solid

professional image (Coxe et al., 1987).

In addition, for employees and customers place identification can influence employee's and customers' attitudes toward organisational change (Rooney et al., 2010). However, little is known about the connections between place and the formation of client identification and how a connection to place influences responses to organisational change (Rooney et al., 2010; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006). Organisational change occurs in places which are dynamically connected to social action and interaction. Based on place identity theory, stakeholders respond to physical changes in their environments to defend their sense of connectedness and self-efficacy in their environment, particularly when such changes are perceived as a threat to their identity (Bonaiuto et al., 1996). Furthermore, organisational change should be more alert to the role of place identification in employee's and customer's responses to change in their places. Large-scale organisational change often involves changing places in psychologically important ways. Organisational changes, such as the implementation of new ways of working or relocation to a new building, alter the ways in which employees relate to and identify with each other and the place (Elsbach, 2003, 2004; Rooney, 2010). Managerial control of workspace can compromise employees' organisational identification and lead to suboptimal work experiences.

Place identity can be defined as a “potpourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings as well as types of settings” (Rooney, 2010, p. 47). This association between the self and the setting can actively construct the individual's own positioning in his or her environment. As people form emotional attachments to places, research shows that they are more likely to resist changes to those places (Korpela, 1989; Proshansky et al., 1983). Positive and negative experiences in a place produce particular values, attitudes, feelings, and beliefs about the physical world which can define a person's place identity. Place identity is not only constructed through experience of the physical setting but also a function of what people do and communicate to each other and what people think is good or bad in a place (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996). Place identification would express membership of a group of people who are defined by location. If this position is taken, then place identification is a type of social identification (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996). The identification objects portray the places' distinctiveness and individuality and become its physical identity along with other spatial components. Their ties,

connections, and affiliations with the place and the larger culture are aspects of space identity (Saleh, 1998).

Thus, in line with the relationship between architecture and identification, this study argues that different groups of people with different experiences and histories of a place are likely to have different patterns of place identification that affect their perceptions of change and customer perceptions and meanings strongly resonate and align with the architecture and the intentions of the architects., Personal identification is reinforced as well as social identification amongst those representing the client organisation and end-users, so it is hypothesised on an exploratory basis that:

*H3: The more favourably the architecture is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more they identify themselves with that company.*

#### **4.6. CORPORATE IDENTITY DIMENSIONS AND ARCHITECTURE DIMENSIONS RELATIONSHIPS**

According to some authors (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Yee, 1990) architecture can establish a strong corporate identity. Discussion in the literature about the components of corporate identity is widespread. A number of studies in marketing and corporate identity usually assume that corporate identity management as a multifaceted phenomenon (Balmer, 1995, 1998) and also requires a holistic and multi-disciplinary as well as an integrated approach (Balmer, 1999; Bernstein, 1986). Corporate identity management constructs aims to recognise aspects of identity that are manageable and used to develop corporate identity. The domain of the corporate identity construct is concerned with the controllable aspects of corporate identity.

Corporate identity is “increasingly important for contemporary consumer marketing due to the post-modern levity resulting from globalisation of consumer markets, technologically savvy consumers” (Balmer and Greyser, 2002; He and Mukherjee, 2009, p. 3) and has been established as a source of competitive advantage. Corporate identity is imperative for consumer marketing, “because: (i) it defines the essence of a company (Albert et al., 2000) and accords economic, social and symbolic meanings to a company in the perception of the consumer; (ii) it situates the company at the fundamental level among the social and economic exchange networks of other organisations, e.g. competitors, suppliers, distributors,

buyers, governmental agents; (iii) it represents the basic subject for evaluation by consumers, which in turn has cognitive, affective and behavioural consequences by those consumers, such as consumers' perceptions, images, identifications and action for/against the focal company (e.g. Dutton et al., 1994; Pratt, 1998); and (iv) consumers with a more positive perception of corporate identity will, through association, have a more positive attitude toward the company's products, i.e. there will be a positive consumer response (be it cognitive, affective or behavioural) to the company's products" (He and Mukherjee, 2009, p. 2).

The company's products and services transmit the aggregate of message to group or groups over a period of time, which have influence in forming the company's corporate identity (Balmer, 1998). Corporate identity as a distinctive attributes of an organisation, is an "articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and the way it goes about its business especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment" (Balmer, 1995, 2001, 2008; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Bick et al., 2003; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; He and Balmer, 2007; Kottasz et al., 2008; Lambert, 1989; Topalian, 2003; Van Reekom, 1997; etc.). In addition, corporate identity (CI) refers to the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, Bick et al., 2003; He and Balmer, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009). Corporate identity is constituted of core values (e.g. operating philosophy, vision and mission, leadership) and demographics (e.g. business, size, age, competitive position, country of origin, location) of the organisation (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003).

Corporate identity is constituted by: soul (e.g. values, culture), voice (e.g. communication) and mind (e.g. vision and philosophy). Simoes et al. (2005) proposed that corporate identity reflects the three main dimensions: philosophy, mission, and values (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1994; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003) communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970). Managers play a significant role in the development and "management of corporate identity as it is inextricably associated with, "understanding how and why various constituents form corporate associations and the specific corporate associations that they hold" (Dacin and Brown, 2002, pp. 254-255). In addition managers use corporate identity to influence, "what employees and other

constituencies perceive, feel and think about the organisation” (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p. 363).

According to Van Heerden (1999) a well-organised corporate identity is one of a company’s most precious marketing assets (p. 495) and as an explicit combination of all the ways in which the organisation presents itself through experiences and perceptions to all of its internal and external audiences (Baker and Balmer, 1997, p. 373) to create a favourable basis for relationships with the groups upon which the company is dependent (Markwick and Fill, 1997, p. 411).

In order to account for the relationship, which seems to exist between architecture and the antecedent factors of interest (i.e. physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts), social identity theory which has been used extensively in marketing studies is applied (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996; Marin and de Maya, 2013). Given the scarcity of research reported in the marketing and design literature, there is a tremendous gap concerning the relationship between physical structure/spatial layout and functionality and architecture chiefly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006). According to this theory, members define themselves by the same criteria that they believe define the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994). A favourable architectural and design-led research study investigating engaging end-users in, and allowing them a degree of control over, the design process is beneficial for workplace design and for helping employee recognition as part of working practices (Davis et al., 2010). Also, the effects of new working practices may accompany re-designed or highly flexible open-plan office space (Davis et al., 2010). Office space re-design is often based upon managers’ own interpretations and experiences of employee work patterns, largely without specific research or professional input (e.g. Laing, 2006). In addition, the office design can be instrumental in affecting decision-making processes, and some significant decisions may not be given the thoughtfulness it deserves as a consequence (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007).

About spatial layout and functionality surprisingly little has been published on the effects of spatial layout and functionality on customers in commercial service settings. The spatial

layout and physical structure of companies symbolise something (Saleh, 1998) and provides messages regarding the companies' capabilities and qualities for employees and outsiders alike (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 610) and impact on how people behave and interact (Davis, 1984).

Studies show the complex relationship between office design and individual employee attitudes and behaviours as well as how time spent in the office can be crucial to creative work that builds on face-to-face meetings and interactions with idea-inducing artifacts (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). Architecture (physical environment) is considered to be the packaging of services and has three components: physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (Bitner, 1992). The major antecedents of corporate identity are those factors that predict, foster or weaken the perceived corporate identity during consumption. Based on the review of the related literature, three main factors in creating a favourable corporate identity were revealed. These factors are usually used by customers as cues to predict their impression of corporate identity such as: visual identity, philosophy, mission, and values, and communication. The relationship between the antecedents' factors of corporate identity and the antecedents' factors of architecture (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) will be discussed in this section.

**Corporate visual identity and Architecture** – corporate visual identity management has the principle that a company can use visual cues to project its quality, prestige and style to internal and external stakeholders (Melewar and Saunders, 1999). Corporate identity is the company' visual statement to the world of who and what the company is, of how the company views itself, and therefore has a great deal to do with how the world views the company (Selame and Selame, 1975) and how it influences internally and externally held perceptions of companies (Margulies, 1977). In addition, corporate identity is the degree to which it is conceptualised as a function of leadership and by its focus on the visual (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Olins, 1989).

Visual identity management has significant business implications (Schmitt et al., 1995). Conceptualising the management of corporate visual identity in terms of specific dimensions

is essential as it involves generating and implementing guidelines for the use of symbolism within the company. The internal purpose of corporate visual identity relates to employees' identification with the organisation through the ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment in service settings that encourage consumers and employees to pursue service consumption (Han and Ryu, 2009) and subsequently affect employees' behaviours, satisfaction, and performance (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006) and attitudes toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006).

Ambient conditions/physical stimuli such as visual openness, sound, and light, as well as ventilation and thermal comfort are similarly essential to employee productivity in many interpersonal service businesses (e.g. banks, hospitals, and hotels); in addition, employee preferences must be balanced against customer needs. Ambient conditions/physical stimuli, generally has a subconscious effect on customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 487). Furthermore, it affects stakeholders' attitudes and behaviours toward the company and can have an effect on consumers' experiences and perceptions (Han and Ryu, 2009). The outcome of the ambient conditions/physical stimuli present in the setting may cause comfort or discomfort during the service encounter, which support the customer to pursue or to interrupt the service consumption, and which subsequently may have an impact on their attitudes and behaviours toward to the service provider (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). Ambient conditions/physical stimuli generally have a subconscious effect on customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 487). Furthermore, the effect on stakeholders' attitudes and behaviours toward the company can have an effect on consumers' experiences and perceptions (Han and Ryu, 2009).

Stakeholders' perceptions of ambient conditions/physical stimuli and human responses to the environment have been studied by some authors (Bitner, 1992). Physical stimuli in the environment can activate behaviour (Davis, 1984) and need to be considered in theories of organisational behaviour, especially in models of motivation and goal setting. Stimulus cues frequently influence behaviour in unintended ways (Davis, 1984) and directly affect seemingly unrelated beliefs and feelings about the place and the people. People respond to their environments holistically (Bitner, 1992). Thus, managers must ensure that they create a reliable belief to communicate in the market (Van den Bosch et al., 2005; Gray and Balmer, 1998).



Companies' corporate identity field are most concerned with visual representations of the corporation emphasised through planned cues which constitute the organisation's visual identity, that is the designs and graphics associated with an organisation's symbols and elements of self-expression (Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Bernstein, 1986; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Gioia et al., 2000; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Olins, 1989; Van Heerden, 1999) to create physical recognition for the organisation (Carter 1982; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Dowling 2001; Melewar and Saunders 1999, 2000; Morison, 1997; Stuart, 1999; Olins 1991; Pilditch 1970; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and distinguish the firm from all others through the company's physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (Gioia et al., 2000; Onkvisit and Shaw, 1989).

A company's physical structure/spatial layout and functionality of the physical surroundings are particularly important elements of corporate visual identity (Bitner, 1992) and influence social interaction (Davis, 1984). A corporate visual identity consists of an exterior and interior of company buildings (e.g. headquarters, plants, retail stores, offices etc.), corporate name, corporate symbol/logo, typeface, colour, symbolism understanding, and staff appearance which express organisational characteristics (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 1994; Margulies, 1977; Melewar and Saunders, 1999; 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991, Pilditch 1970; Schultz et al., 2000; Van Riel et al., 2001), printed material e.g. stationery, promotional literature etc. (Schmitt et al., 1995; Topalian, 1984). Corporate visual identity provides recognisability (Abratt, 1989; Balmer and Gray, 2000) and evokes an emotional response towards the company (Bernstein, 1986; Van Riel, 1995).

Today's office re-design efforts are more purposeful with changes in physical structures and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts and can be related to the aesthetics of the environment, (McElroy and Morrow, 2010) as well as affect perceptions of customers (Han and Ryu, 2009). Architecture and office layout are considered to be a visible symbolic artifacts (Abratt, 1989). Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts and orientation signals are visual symbols, which are used to generate an appropriate atmosphere and direct customers throughout the service encounter (Nguyen, 2006). Architectonic details, which include colours and decoration, signage, artwork and design details, convey meaning and can have symbolic significance that affects people emotionally (Vischer, 2007, p. 179).

In the present value-image era, several researchers have underlined the very influential role of symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts in architecture (physical environment) in the process of managing the corporate image (Bitner, 1990; Nguyen, 2006; Schmitt et al., 1995). From the customer's perspective, decor and artifacts are "the degree of overall customer satisfaction and subsequent customer behaviour" (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 489). Behaviour and the distinctiveness of territoriality can be demonstrated by the relatively common occurrence of individuals who behave territorially over objects that are only symbolically or subjectively valuable. For example, university students, may expend effort to protect a particular seat in the classroom as their own, and similarly experience a sense of emotional indignation or loss if that seat is used by another, simply because of a sense that it belongs to them, independent of any material or strategic value it may have over any other carrel or seat (Brown et al., 2005, p. 580). It can highlight and explain some forms of consumers and employees behaviour, while at the same time examining and explaining what a distinct phenomenon is. The changes in the symbolic artifacts such as increased natural lighting and the use of bright colours results in a more pleasant work atmosphere, which elicits positive reactions (Parish et al., 2008).

The visual identity paradigm focuses on organisational nomenclature, company name, logos, buildings, company's architecture, and the design and decor of corporate retail outlets' architecture and exterior design, interior design, or anything that can be related to design (Bernstein, 1986; Carter, 1982; Hatch and Schultz, 2000; Ind, 1990; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1989, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Selame and Selame, 1988). For instance, architecture (physical evidence, environmental design, and decor) helps to convey tangible hints that impact customer behaviour (Bitner, 1990). The visual identity of an organisation can be viewed as identification (Downey, 1986). Furthermore, the design components indicate the company's culture and values and should be recognised by the organisation's consumers and employees (Berry, 2000). According to Bitner (1990) in a service encounter context, the physical environment can influence how consumers perceive service failure and should be used to differentiate a company's services from its competitors. Corporate visual identity assists a company to convey the company's visual identity through its buildings (Melewar, 2003). Decor and orientation are visual symbols used to create an appropriate atmosphere. Buildings, interiors and corporate building architecture can also be an important element in an organisation's visual identity (Van den Bosch et al., 2006).

Drawing on this conclusion, it is proposed that the corporate visual identity, as a main element of corporate identity, will influence architecture (components of architecture: physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts). Therefore, based on these findings, it is expected that,

*H4: The more favourably the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the spatial layout and functionality are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

*H5: The more favourably the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the ambient conditions/physical stimuli are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

*H6: The more favourably the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

**Philosophy, mission, value and architecture** – philosophy, mission, value and architecture are presented to the outside world through corporate identity (Balmer and Gray, 2003; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Kottasz et al., 2008; Powell, 2011). In the marketing literature, it is widely accepted that corporate identity (CI) refers to the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, Bick et al., 2003; He and Balmer, 2007).

Corporate identity management is concerned with conception and development, and serves as a vehicle for the expression of an organisation's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), mission, and ethos (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer, 1996, 2007, 2008; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Gray and Balmer 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005) which employees and managers associate with the company (Barnett et al., 2006; Fombrun, 1996) as well as reference to external constituencies (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p. 363). In addition, marketing and environmental psychology suggest that the physical environment can be used as a marketing tool to communicate the main tangible cues (Bernard and Bitner, 1982) and to communicate the company's philosophy, mission and values to the consumers. Since first impressions really count, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality can communicate information to the customer about how the firm sees it and about how it wishes its customers to behave. It has also been postulated that corporate identity is eclectic in that it draws on many

management and non-management disciplines and may in fact be regarded as an emerging philosophy or approach to management (Balmer, 1995 and 1998). The management of a corporate identity involves the dynamic interplay between the company's business strategy, the philosophy of its key executives, its corporate culture, and its organisational design.

Managing and evaluating an organisation's identity is complicated. It involves: understanding the company's philosophy, personality, identity, image and reputation; examining key internal-external-environment interfaces for signs of inconsistency and incompatibility; ongoing monitoring by senior management, with the chief executive taking a particular interest (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997). According to Simoes et al. (2005) the creation of a corporate identity often begins with the articulation of a business philosophy. According to Ledford et al. (1995) philosophy is to describe the 'right thing' in the minds of employees and managers alike, and managers and philosophy are a key to business success (Ledford et al., 1995).

In service marketing, the first impressions which can describe the 'right thing' in the minds of employees and consumers that really count are the company's physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (Bernard and Bitner, 1982). Favourable architectural designs are a highly regarded aesthetic element (Bateson, 1989; Bitner, 1992; Nguyen, 2006) in the creation of the corporate image which needs careful consideration of functionality because it has many consequences through a variety of functions (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007, p. 96). It should communicate the company's philosophy, the reason for its existence and may have a strong influence on the performance of contact personnel. It must be designed in response to two types of need: operational needs expressed by the maximisation of organisational efficiency, and marketing needs to create an environment which influences consumers' attitudes and beliefs toward the organisation and, consequently, its corporate image in the minds of customers and employees (Bateson, 1989; Bitner, 1992; Nguyen, 2006). Customers and employees form their expectations about services through tangible cues, such as architecture, lighting, layout, parking facilities temperature, furnishings, layout, and colour (Bernard and Bitner, 1982) and interactive quality relates to the interactions that take place between the customer and the contact personnel during the service encounter (Leblanc and Nguyen, 1996).

The corporate philosophy can be expressed in the mission statement (Collins and Porras, 1991; Simoes et al., 2005) to convey a sense of commonality and purpose (Cummings and Davies 1994). A corporate mission is a corporation's purpose and reason for the existence of the company and it is the most important part of the corporate philosophy (Abratt, 1989; De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanglu, 2006). Thus, an organisation's mission provides the basis for its identity and lays down core directions for employee conduct. Mission statements are very different and tend to stress value, positive behaviour and guiding principles within the company's belief and ideology, in order to promote corporate culture and philosophy. A company's mission statement functions as a principle of order (Primeaux, 1992, p. 78) and organises the company's principles (Fritz et al., 1999).

There is often some confusion between corporate mission and vision. De Witt and Meyer (1998) confirmed that the corporate mission is the basic point of departure, whereas a corporate vision is the desired future at which the company hopes to arrive (Melewar, 2003). Levin (2000) explains vision as "a high lucid story of an organisation's preferred future in action. A future can be described as what life will be like for employees, customers, and other key stakeholders" (p. 93). Cummings and Davies (1994) elucidate that, "the value of any statement of corporate mission or vision lies in fusing together a corporation's many elements by providing some commonality of purpose" (p. 150).

There is a relationship between vision and the values embedded in the organisational culture (Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Collins and Porras, 1994). Abratt (1989) argues that those values are at the heart of the identity formation process. The starting point for a company's philosophy is the company's vision (Collins and Porras, 1991) and values which play a significant role in the formation of its corporate identity, and are the beliefs and ethical principles that lie behind the company's culture, and are a major system of beliefs within a company that include daily language and ideologies (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Organisational values are fundamental to organisational culture, and values need to be understood and are necessarily actively shaped (Ledford et al., 1995). A corporate value belief system within the organisation includes language, rituals and ideologies that guide the company's culture and form the corporate identity. Furthermore, it is espoused by the managers or the founder (Balmer, 1995; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003). A corporate value, mission and philosophy should impact on design of ambient conditions/physical stimuli. The

physical stimuli/ambient conditions include background characteristics of the environment such as colour, light, temperature, lighting, noise, music, odour, and scent, however, sometimes such dimensions may be totally invisible such as gases or chemicals. All can have an impact on the customers and employees' five senses and influence their perceptions as well as their responses to the environment (Nguyen, 2006).

Architecture, workspace design and ambient conditions/physical stimuli assume more significance since employees and consumers tend to spend extended periods of time in the servicescape (Bitner, 1992). Their physical comfort (temperature level, lighting) and responses to noise level and/or music affect productivity and overall satisfaction. The ambient conditions are mainly vital in forming first impressions, for communicating corporate values, mission and philosophy, service concepts, reasons for repositioning a service, and in highly competitive industries where customers are looking for cues for differentiation and recognition of the organisation (Bitner, 1992; Parish et al., 2008).

Customers recognise architecture, location, and the interior decor of offices (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar et al., 2006), banks, retail stores, and hospitals (Baker, 1987; Bitner, 1986; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Kotler, 1973; Shostack, 1977; Upah and Fulton, 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1985). Weggeman et al. (2007) stated the significance of office decors or the location and style of office chairs as the main element of architecture and as a means of understanding the structuring of social relations within the workplace. Workplace identity refers to the symbolic self-categorisations used by individuals to signal their identities in a specific workplace (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). Employees can feel a loss of workplace identity if there is a restricted ability to show uniqueness and classification through the display of their personal artifacts (Varlander, 2012).

A symbolic artifact is the “aspect of the physical setting that individually or collectively guides the interpretation of the social setting” (Davis, 1984, p. 276) which is mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009). In addition decor and artifacts influence, “the degree of overall customer satisfaction and subsequent customer behaviour” (Han and Ryu, 2009, p. 489). Customers behave differently in different places due to the role of symbolic artifacts as each company should have distinctive corporate values, mission and philosophy. Symbolic artifacts refer to the aesthetics of the office environment: the colours of the walls,

type of flooring, pictures, flowers, floor, furniture style, and overall office decor which differentiate the company and place from its competitors (Han and Ryu, 2009).

Therefore, based on previous research (Alessandrini, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Gorman, 1994; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel et al., 2001), which suggests that the philosophy, mission and values dimension attempts to bring a strategic basis to the corporate identity construct and helps channel employee attention in a particular direction, shared goals and expectations, in order to understand how their individual roles fit within a larger picture (Ledford et al., 1995) as well as articulated by the company's audiences and employees. Corporate value, mission and philosophy have influence on architecture and its elements including physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts. Therefore, based on the discussion that highlights the importance of the philosophy, mission, and value, its ambiguous relationship within marketing research, and finally, relevance to the present context of the study, it is hypothesised:

***H7:** The more favourably the philosophy, mission and value are perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the spatial layout and functionality are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

***H8:** The more favourably the philosophy, mission and value are perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the ambient conditions/physical stimuli are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

***H9:** The more favourably the philosophy, mission and value are perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

**Communication and architecture** – an organisation's communication refers to the corporate identity (He and Mukherjee, 2009, p. 3) and forms a pivotal role which can influence the strategy content as well as providing a corporate communication system to stakeholders (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Markwick and Fill, 1997). Corporate identity is the signature that runs through the core of all a corporation does and communicates (Balmer et al., 2007, 2006). The notion of corporate identity is generally seen as belonging to the sender side of the communication process (Abratt, 1989; Christensen and Askegaard,

2001; Balmer, 1995; Olins, 1989; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Moreover, corporate identity is self-presentation via communication (He and Balmer, 2004; Van Riel, 1995). For instance, the physical structure/spatial layout and functionality are indispensable in service settings, which is the purposeful environment that aids the accomplishment of employees' and customers' specific needs and wants which affect the comfort of the customers and employees (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006).

Employees and customers experience their jobs differently in different environments. Architecture can provide spaces that offer different functionality that all workers and consumers can access as and when required (Davis et al., 2010). Physical space can be configured to make possible the communication and work patterns required by the job (Allen and Henn, 2007). Modern design is primarily on the functionality of ergonomic design elements which offer workers a variety of different types of workspace, dependent upon the characteristics of their job and work styles (Davis et al., 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010). For example, comforts, overall layout, table/seating arrangements are the main elements of physical structure (Han and Ryu, 2009). In self-service environments, such as Automated Teller Machines (ATM), the simple layout and clear directions assist the customer in completing the transaction easily (Bitner, 1992, p. 67).

Based on the environmental psychology research into workspace and architecture, which has focused on floor arrangement and furniture layouts, height and density of workstation partitions, the amount and convenience of file and work storage space, and furniture dimensions such as work surfaces, as being the elements of furniture and spatial layout which have the most effect on individual workers and users (Vischer, 2007). The physical structure and physical layouts and proximity to employees and consumers influence patterns of social interaction (Oldham and Brass, 1979; Zalesny and Farace, 1987) and thus shape the social and relational aspects of work (Grant and Parker, 2009; Kilduff and Brass, 2010) and people may craft their jobs to shape and change their environments. According to McDonald (2006), successfully combining exciting architectural expression, inspiring internal spaces and good functionality are essential. Physical structure/spatial layout and the functionality of design affect the accessibility of resources that organisations would like employees and consumers to rely upon when making important decisions. Furthermore, architecture, as a main element of corporate identity, is a tangible representation and is manifest in the behaviour and



communication of the organisation (Balmer, 1995; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000, p. 51; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

Markwick and Fill (1997) claim that corporate identity is a crucial factor determining the effectiveness of communication (Van Riel, 1995) and is a form of communication that conveys an image and seeks an integrated approach to articulate identity in coherent and harmonised messages through internal and external forms of communication (Pondar, 2005; Simoes et al., 2005). In addition, corporate identity is the instrument of management by means of which all consciously-used forms of internal and external communication are harmonised as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships with the groups upon which the company is dependent (Markwick and Fill, 1997, p. 411). Van Riel (1995) defines marketing communication as the form of communication targeted to support the products and services of the corporation.

Corporate identity has many ways to communicate to make the organisation distinctive (Balmer, 1995). Thus, in addition to services and products, advertising, sales promotion, sponsorship and direct selling (Barich and Kotler 1991; Van Riel 1995), corporate advertising (Argenti, 1998) and public relations activities (Hunt and Grunig, 1994), are directed at company familiarity and recognition rather than individual advertising communicating a company's identity. Authors (Barich and Kotler, 1991; Keller, 2001) assert that marketing communication activities not only aim to position a company's services in the market, but also to promote the company itself as well. Simoes et al. (2005) refer corporate identity to "the way in which an organisation's identity is revealed through behaviour, communications as well as through symbolism to internal and external audiences" (p. 341).

Service providers concerned about the relationship between architecture and the ambient conditions/physical stimuli in the workplace environment that counteract negative influences as well as to remind themselves 'of what needs to be accomplished' (Davis, 1984, p. 275) which is a major priority for many managers (Davis, 1984). Managers continually plan, build, change, and control an organisation's physical surroundings, but frequently the impact of a specific design or design change on the ultimate users of the facility is not fully understood (Bitner, 1992). Furthermore, managers, in essence, are ordering the information cues that

influence or control their behaviours through architecture (Davis, 1984). In addition, managers have to be able to differentiate among those aspects of the stimulus in the environment and architecture that can be ordered in advance; those stimuli that enter the office and that can be channelled (i.e., either to the waste basket, filing cabinet, tickler file, or other people); and those aspects of the stimulus environment that have to be responded to, acted on, or lived with (Davis, 1984). However, in some cases managers simply have to adapt to the architecture and physical environment, mentally block out irrelevant cues, and concentrate on their own work schedule of priorities. Significantly, the managers need to be aware that employee preferences must be balanced against customer needs (Bitner, 1992) and typically they take away people's rights to personalise their workspace and instead dictate how architecture should be used, and this can contribute directly to feelings at work (Knight and Haslam, 2010).

The stakeholders feelings at work and changes in the symbolic artifacts can produce a positive reaction, for instance, natural lighting and the use of bright colours make a more pleasant work atmosphere as well as affecting perceptions of culture (McElroy and Morrow, 2010). The office has become an important location for symbolic, learning, and creative interactions. A direct result of this trend is that the design and décor of offices has taken on a renewed importance for corporate managers (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007). Service business managers continually plan, build, change, and control an organisation's architecture design such as physical surroundings to influence behaviours and to create an image and have an effect on stakeholders' perceptions and satisfaction (Baker, 1987; Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Kotler, 1973; Shostack, 1977; Upah and Fulton, 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1985). In addition, managers need to be aware of the impressions they create and avoid presenting physical cues that can have negative or contradictory connotations (Davis, 1984).

In addition, corporate identity is the instrument of management by means of which all consciously-used forms of internal and external communication are harmonised as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships with the groups upon which the company is dependent (Markwick and Fill, 1997, p. 411). "The symbolic construction of corporate identity is communicated to organisational members by top management, but is interpreted and enacted by organisational members based on the cultural patterns of the organisation, work experiences and social influence from external relations

with the environment” (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p. 358). Consequently, it is concluded that the favourability of stakeholders’ perception towards a company will be enhanced by their perceptions of how well the marketing communication activities reflect the intended identity which a company wants to create in the minds of stakeholders. Therefore, based on previous research, which suggests that corporate identity is made manifest in communication of the organisation and everything in and about a company is communication and has a wide spectrum of influence, it is hypothesised on an exploratory basis:

***H10:** The more favourably the marketing communication of a company is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

***H11:** The more favourably the marketing communication of a company is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the ambient conditions/physical stimuli are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

***H12:** The more favourably the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably the symbolic artifacts are perceived by internal-stakeholders.*

#### **4.7. SUMMARY**

This chapter provides a detailed investigation of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders’ identification. In this regard, the researcher has developed a conceptual framework, which is based on different theories such as social identity and attribution. Corporate identity and the antecedents of corporate identity (philosophy, mission, and values; corporate visual identity, and communication) and architecture as well as the main underlying dimensions that constitute the construct of architecture (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) were identified. The researcher has, therefore, developed twelve hypotheses on the basis of the conceptual approach to examine the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. The study also highlights the impact of identification as consequence. An integrative and novel conceptual framework and set of hypotheses based on the research questions (Table 4.1) are discussed and developed.

Table 4.1: List of research hypotheses based on research questions

<b>RQ1: What is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?</b>	
	<b>H1:</b> The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders' have towards the architecture.
<b>RQ2: What is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?</b>	
	<b>H2:</b> The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the more they identify themselves with that company.
<b>RQ3: What is the relationship between architecture and identification?</b>	
	<b>H3:</b> The more favourable the architecture is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the more they identify themselves with that company.
<b>RQ4: What is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?</b>	
	<b>H4:</b> The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H5:</b> The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H6:</b> The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by consumers, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H7:</b> The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H8:</b> The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H9:</b> The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H10:</b> The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H11:</b> The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.
	<b>H12:</b> The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.

Source: developed by the researcher for the study

Chapter V presents the research methodology applied to investigate and examine the research hypotheses and answer the research questions. Furthermore, the research design, research setting and measurement scales development based on the outcomes of a literature search, semi-structured interviews, focus groups and a pilot study are discussed. In addition, the data collection process for the main survey is illustrated.

## **CHAPTER V: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter detailed the conceptual framework and the hypotheses while this chapter will discuss the research methodology and methods, which are employed in this thesis. Therefore, it requires a clear and comprehensive rationalisation of how the research is to be done and why particular procedures were preferred. This study has been developed on the basis of a literature review and conceptual approach, which was previously discussed. With the support of the conceptual approach ten hypotheses have been developed in relation to the independent and dependent variables. In order to select a methodological approach, initially, a philosophical stance was reviewed to understand the relationship and justification of approach, which has been adopted. This justification may lead to an explanation for the use of the methods adopted.

Following the introduction, the research methodology and selection of method for this study will be discussed in Section 5.2. Particularly, the research design and research setting, which were used in this research, will be deliberated in Section 5.3. Subsequently, the data collection as general approaches in theory construction will be presented in section 5.4. Section 5.5 considers the main ethical issues. Finally, the summary of this chapter will be provided in section 5.6.

### **5.2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHOD SELECTION**

Firstly, the methodology and approach to collecting and analysing the data will be justified. In order to develop the research and select a methodology, as well as methods for data collection and analysis, Crotty (1998) recommends two questions for researchers to answer at the outset: first, what methodologies and methods will be employed in the research; and second, what justification does this choice of methodologies and methods have? According to Crotty (1998) researchers use the terms ‘research methodology’ and ‘research method’ interchangeably. However, research method refers to “the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to some research question or hypothesis” (p. 3). However, in social research, the

research method has defined as a technique used for identifying research questions or the search for knowledge or as any systematic investigation to establish facts collecting and analysing data and presenting research findings (Payne and Payne, 2006). Crotty (1998) defines methodology as “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes” (p. 3). The research methodology is employed to “indicate a set of conceptual and philosophical assumptions that justify the use of particular methods” (Payne and Payne, 2006, p. 148). The philosophical foundation of the research must justify the choice of research methodologies and methods.

The philosophical foundation of this research sheds light on the selection of the research methodology (Crotty, 1998). The presentation of this philosophical assumption involves identifying a plan outlining the methods and procedures to be used in collecting and analysing the necessitated data (Burns and Brush, 2003; Malhotra et al., 2002). The plan or research design was needed in designing the type of research investigation. Research design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the research question and to the conclusion (Yin, 2009). According to Churchill (1999) a research design is a structure, which is needed to solve the study problem. The researcher tries to consider which method is suitable in order to answer the study questions (Lee and Lings, 2008). Thinking about the research design is a blueprint (Yin, 2009) and helps to avoid the situation in which the evidence does not address the main research question (Yin, 2009).

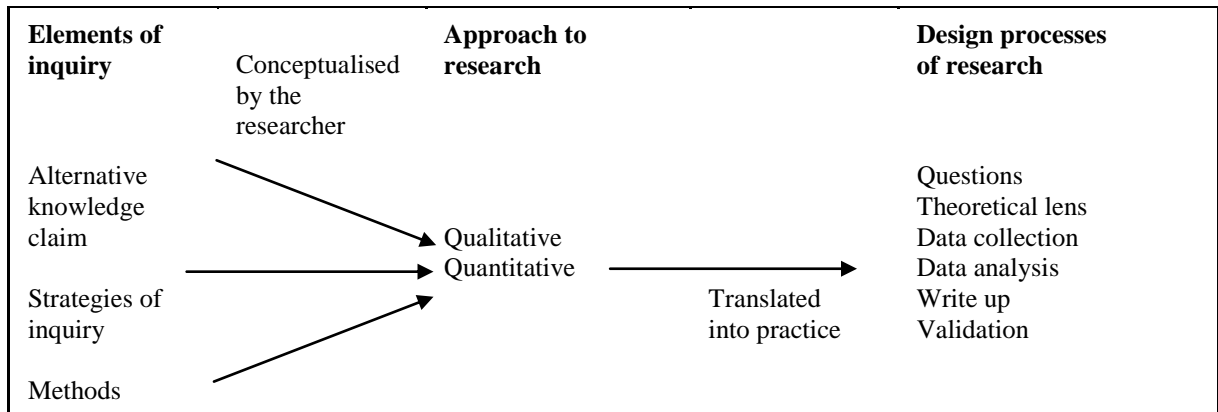
Subsequent to establishing a paradigm, which this thesis will adhere to, the development of a suitable research design is pursued. Research is a process of systematic detection to improve knowledge (Saunders et al., 2007) and is based on logical relationships. The research process should explain the methods of data collection and data analysis to answer the research questions or objectives (Saunders et al., 2007). The researcher initially started to explain the nature of the research objectives, which can be defined as “...a set of advance decisions that makes up the master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information” (Burns and Bush 2002, p. 120). According to Hair et al. (2003) to employ a suitable research design, it is needed to determine the type of data, data collection technique, and the sampling methodology (Hair et al., 2003) that help to align the planned methodology to the research problem (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004; Malhotra, 1999).

It is vital for the researcher to explain why he has chosen a particular research methodology or method which is shaped by the researcher's assumptions about the knowledge acquisition of a piece of research, or its 'knowledge claims' and is the first step to design a research project to evaluate the knowledge claims brought to the study (Creswel, 2003). According to Crotty (1998) it is necessary to identify the assumptions about what a researcher will learn during his research process. These claims might be called 'paradigms' (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Mertens, 1998); 'philosophical assumptions', 'epistemologies', and 'ontologies' (Crotty, 1998); or broadly conceived 'research methodologies' (Neuman, 2000). Though, several assumptions are possible concerning 'knowledge claims' (Creswell et al., 2003).

In designing a research proposal, the researcher considered five questions: (i), 'what is knowledge' (epistemology) which is the assumption about how people know things and the association between the researcher and the phenomenon studied (e.g. objectivism, subjectivism, etc.); (ii) 'how they know it' (epistemology); (iii) 'what values go into it' (axiology) or what philosophical stance (theoretical perspective) lies behind the methodology in question (e.g. positivism and post-positivism, interpretivism, critical theory, etc.)?; (iv) 'what methodology' (strategy or plan of action that links methods to outcomes) governs our choice and use of methods (the process for studying it, e.g. experimental research, survey research, etc.)?; (v) 'what methods' (techniques and procedures) do the researcher propose to use (e.g. questionnaire, interview, focus group, etc.)?; and (vi) 'how the researcher writes about it' (rhetoric) (Creswell, 2003).

Figure 5.1 illustrates three element of inquiry base on the Creswell's (2003) model (i.e. knowledge claim, strategies of inquiry and methods) pertaining to the design of the research. The researcher has followed the Creswell's (2003) model in order to illustrate the research design. The Figure shows how these elements merge together to outline the approach of the research and in turn, translate into processes in the design of the research.

**Figure 5.1: Knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, methods leading to approaches and the design process.**



Source: Adapted from Creswell (2003, p. 5)

The two dominant epistemological assumptions use by social researchers and marketers are ‘interpretivism/idealism/phenomenology’ and ‘positivism’ (e.g. Baker, 2001; Balmer, 2001; Cassell and Symon, 1994; Crotty, 1998; Corbetta, 2003; Deshpande, 1983; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) adopt ‘positivist’ and ‘constructivist’ as terms whereas; Guba and Lincoln (1988) use the terms ‘scientific’ and ‘naturalistic’. The main classification of each philosophical assumption is presented in Table 5.1, as well as discussed as follows,

- Positivism as the oldest and most widely used approach is defined as “a philosophy of language and logic consistent with an empiricist philosophy of science”. The positivist position is based upon the school of thought that the study of human behaviours and social phenomena should aim to be scientific (Malhotra and Birks, 2003), predominantly advocates value-free (i.e., objective) natural sciences methods to study social reality and beyond (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It is adopted by researchers to select a framework similar to those found in the natural sciences when explaining a particular phenomenon (Payne and Payne, 2006; Malhotra and Birks, 2003) and adopting scientific methods (Myers, 1997). The positivist view of the world is synonymous with ‘scientific deductive method’ to conduct empirical and quantitative research (Creswell, 2003). Then by examining assumptions in relation to the evidence or findings of the study, theories can be refined and enriched through the processes associated with inferential statistics, hypotheses testing and experimental and quasi-experimental design that allows for an objective conclusion to be extrapolated from reality (Creswell, 2003).



• Interpretivism (idealism) is “the dynamic, respondent-constructed position about the evolving nature of reality, recognising that there may be a wide array of interpretations of reality or social acts” (Malhotra and Birks, 2003, p. 193). Idealism as a paradigm is concerned with theory generation, and can often be achieved through the inductive theory building approach and views of the world as the qualitative paradigm (Deshpande, 1983). According to Malhotra and Birks (2003) the meaning of an individual’s behaviour needs to be elicited through interactions by using observation and questions to suit individual respondents. The perspective of both epistemologies implies a philosophical difference in the ways of researching and of presenting the research outcome presented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Paradigm features**

<b>Issue</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>
<b>Alternative paradigm names</b>	Quantitative Objectivist Scientific Experimentalist Traditionalist	Qualitative Subjectivist Humanistic Phenomenological Revolutionist
<b>Reality</b>	Objective and singular	Subjective and multiple
<b>Relationship of research and respondent</b>	Independent of each other	Interacting with each other
<b>Values</b>	Value-free= unbiased	Value-laden=biased
<b>Researcher language</b>	Formal and impersonal	Informal and personal
<b>Researcher/research design</b>	Simple determinist Cause and effect Static research design Context-free Laboratory Prediction and control Reliability and validity Representative surveys Experimental design Deductive	With free will Multiple influences Evolving design Context-bound Field/ethnography Understanding and insight Perceptive decision-making Theoretical sampling Case studies Inductive
<b>Preferred methods include</b>	Focus on facts Look for causality and fundamental laws Reduce phenomenon to simplest elements Formulate hypotheses and then test them Taking large samples	Focus on meanings Try to understand what is happening  Look at the totality of each situation  Develop ideas through induction from data Small samples investigated in depth or over time

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p. 27) and Malhotra and Birks (2003)

• Development of theory is ‘a central activity’ in management and organisational research (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 532) and is a crucial part of the design phase or when

testing developing theory (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 1994). Testing theory is “a cornerstone of the scientific method, it is only one aspect of the larger process of scientific inquiry; theory development and refinement are of equal importance” (Shah and Corley, 2006, p. 1822). The theory development is based on experiences with the researcher and collecting data is particularly essential to the development of organisations and management research (Shah and Corley, 2006; Van de Ven, 1989). A central mission of scholars is to conduct research, which contributes to scientific knowledge, and can be translated into skills and knowledge that advances practice in a profession (Van de Ven, 1989). “Appreciate and strengthen our skills in developing good theory so that research conducted about these problems will advance the knowledge that is relevant to both the discipline and the profession” (Van de Ven, 1989, p. 486).

This study employs a positivist perspective in order to verify the model hypothesised in Chapter III. The research problem of this study is developed from existing literature (what is already known) and as an outcome a theoretical model was developed as a starting point for the present research. The theoretical model illustrates the important variables, which can be claimed in fostering or discouraging multi-internal stakeholders in the Business School context. To achieve an appropriate research objective, it needs to consider the research method as an imperative to support the purpose and the research questions. When introducing the research design and justification the research methods, which are used in this PhD thesis, will explain in the following section.

### **5.2.2. Case study research**

The case study is a distinct approach to research created in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. According to Oxford English Dictionary the phrase ‘case study’ dates back to 1934. Case studies are often used to create new theory in the social sciences and Harvard Business School was the first Business School, which used the case study teaching method. A case study may be the best possible source of description of unique data about a particular case (Burns, 2000). According to Yin (2009) the case study method retains the holistic and meaningful characteristics of the real-life context, such as individual life cycles and is the best method to create and study (Melewar et al., 2008; Yin, 2009). Some authors (Balmer, 2006; Eisenhardt, 1989; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Miles and Huberman, 1984; Yin, 2009) have employed case

studies as a useful research technique. This study employed a survey-based case study approach as an in depth research tool for the examination of the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and internal stakeholders' identification in a middle-ranking Business School as a contemporary service organisation in its real life context. According to Yin (1999), "a case study inquiry may be defined as a technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points (p. 230).

The aim of this section is to provide a background to this case study research. Also, it reviews the case study, which was carried out in this research and explained why a specific single case study was chosen. The most important questions are how to define the case study, how to determine the relevant data to be collected and what to do with the data. According to Urde et al. (2007) "case study research allows the investigation of complex, fuzzy and dynamic phenomena where context is essential, and there is no limit to the number of variables and links. It further allows one to be inductive and not be coerced by received theory, instead letting reality emerge from the empirical data, thus generating new theory.

### **Case study type**

There are many types of case study such as exploratory, descriptive and explanatory and can use quantitative, qualitative or mixed-method (Yin, 2009). The research question is the deciding factor when considering the differentiation between these types. From this classification of case study types, this research considers the explanatory case study. This is because the focus is on the questions 'what' (Q1) what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?; (Q2) what is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?; (Q3) what is the relationship between architecture and identification?; and (Q4) what is the relationship between the corporate identity dimensions and architectural dimensions, in conducting this research.

In addition, this study utilises the explanatory case study because the analyst's objective should be to pose competing explanations for the same set of events and to indicate how much explanations may apply to other situations" (Yin, 2009, p. 16). This is an explanatory case study because the thesis aims to establish how and why the key research variables are related. The aim goals of explanatory research are (i) to investigate the nature and degree of

association between the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification as the main variables, (ii) decide if additional variables are needed to provide a more accurate description of the phenomena, and (iii) offer theoretical explanations of observed relationships. In addition, it addresses the issue of causality between variables (Snow and Thomas, 2001). Miles and Huberman (1994) believe there is no clear boundary between describing and explaining and data should be more coherent for understanding what, how, and why. A case study is suitable for qualitative or quantitative methods, for testing and building theory from an empirical evaluative study (Cavaye, 1996; Eisenhardt, 1989; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 1993). Gherardi and Turner (1987) state that data are used to fill in gaps in a puzzle. As a result, new concepts of the relationships between the research constructs are defined and developed; also these support the theory and the case for further research.

In this research, a case study “provides an effective means by which theorists and practitioners can engage in intellectual collaborations so as to improve strategies and policies for organisational development” (Osugwu, 2002). A case study is one of the most challenging of all social science endeavours (Yin, 2009) and is a valuable method for business study, the distinctive quality of it has the limitation of orthodox social and behavioural practices (Osugwu, 2002). In addition, a case study is a way of doing research whether it is social science related, or even socially related. Bell et al. (1984) present a definition of a case study as “a systematic investigation of a specific instance” (p. 74). Case study is defined by Burns (2000) as a method, which is preferred when the relevant behaviours cannot be manipulated. The case study defined by Bell et al. (1984) as,

... “An umbrella term for the family of research methods having a focus on enquiry about a particular instance” (p. 94).

Moreover, a case study should be defined as a research strategy (Robson, 1993) and is an empirical study to investigate a contemporary phenomenon in depth when the boundaries between the phenomenon and unique context (Bassey, 1999). Bonoma (1985) states that a case study research is a valid research strategy in marketing studies because it provides human interest (Burns, 2000) and also can be distinguished from the practical business survey (Osugwu, 2002). A case study is a valuable research tool as a preliminary to investigating

the relationship between corporate identity, company's architecture and to contribute to the knowledge about an organisation's stakeholders (Burns, 2000; Yin, 2009).

In this study, case study research contributes to theory testing. Within the literature there are examples where the primary mode of data collection in a single case study has used a quantitative methodology (Powell and Butterfield 1997; Marin and de Maya, 2013). The design of a case study was customised to address a wide range of study questions and it incorporates a variety of data collection and, analysis techniques. Case study research describes the design, implementation or evaluation of some intervention, or illustrates the usefulness of a theory to approach a BBS as a particular company (Dul and Hak, 2008). Case study protocol contains the process and rules, which are used in the research to increase the reliability of the study (Yin, 2009). The protocol contains the purpose of the research, the issues, the setting, the propositions, the introduction letter and review of theoretical basis, operational procedures for collecting data, source of information, questions, guideline and a relevant report (Burns, 2000). The main part of the protocol was a set of substantive questions reflecting the actual line of inquiry (Yin, 2009). The key purpose of the protocol question was to keep the investigator on track as data collection proceeds (Yin, 2009). Each question was accompanied by list of likely sources of evidence (Yin, 2009). The basic outline of the case study report was part of protocol (Yin, 2009).

Given the part of the purpose-designed methodology and research question, the author employed a single case in this study because it afforded the opportunity to explore relationships between the research constructs in exceptional. A single case study provides the statistical framework for making inferences from survey-based case study data. In this setting, different views and perspectives of the corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification were examined and consolidated. The objective of case study research is to examine the dynamics of some single bounded social entity (Welman and Kruger, 2002). According to Yin (2009) research components are i) study questions, ii) study propositions, iii) study unit of analysis, iv) the logic linking the data to the propositions, and v) the criteria for interpreting the study findings.

In addition, BBS would constitute a key case study for in-depth organisational analysis as it has a leading role in the UK education sector and has a distinctive and modern building.

Using Yin (2009), there are three reasons why the single case study is appropriate in terms of theory development. (i) First rationale of the case study represents a unique case. (ii) Second rationale for a single case study is to represent a critical case in testing a well-formulated theory by means of a clear set of propositions. As such, this case study confirms and extends social identity and attribution theory. As therefore, the case study makes a significant contribution to knowledge and theory building. (iii) Third rationale of the case study is a revelatory case; where the observer has access to a phenomenon that was previously inaccessible. In addition, a case study helps to understand firm social phenomena (Yin, 2009, p. 61).

**Unique case** - This research represents a unique case of Brunel Business School (BBS) as a middle-ranked London-based Business School, which is the focus of this PhD thesis. BBS tends to be ahead of other academic schools regarding multiple-internal stakeholders. Besides, the Business School was chosen because it was felt that, in a highly competitive environment, they, like other service providers, would work to develop and protect their identity and brand by communicating the messages consistently (Punjaisri and Willson, 2007). Thus, the multiple-internal stakeholders of the School are a group of respondents who have experience in receiving internal messages in their school and are representative of internal stakeholders in providing information about different aspects of the concepts in the study. This study is the first systematic research to have conceptualised and operationalised the relationship between the concepts of the corporate identity/architecture/identification triad within a Business School. This assessment is expected to be of value in advancing current knowledge by offering a theoretical contribution to the literature.

**Critical case** - This case study confirms and extends social identity and attribution theory by means of a clear set of propositions. The researcher has developed a conceptual framework, based on social identity and attribution theory. Based on social identity theory, this study explains the symbolic meaning of buildings (Sadalla and Sheets, 1993), sense of place (Stedman, 2002; Twigger-Ross et al., 2003), and identification with a place (Marin and de Maya, 2013; Uzzel et al., 2002), the organisation's stakeholders define themselves in relation to their own work-places/study (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Gioia and Thomas, 1996). In addition, attribution theory confirms how people understand and make sense of their world (Graham, 1991; Jones et al., 1972;

Weiner). As a result, this case study makes a noteworthy contribution to knowledge and theory building.

**Revelatory case** - This case study is a revelatory case as the conclusions from this thesis was shed light on the phenomena of corporate identity/architecture/identification triad, although, to a lesser degree, insights into part of a middle-ranked British institution: Brunel Business School. Brunel Business School was therefore chosen as a context for this study because of the fact that it provides a vast array of opportunities for internal-stakeholders in relation to architectural interaction. The likelihood of revelatory material is heightened by the fact that the researcher had access to three years meeting between designers and school managers, over 25 meetings and confidential design documents.

According to Urde et al. (2007) the degree of generalisation is “the result of a primarily inductive, theory generating study such as ours is related to the concepts emerging from the fieldwork. It is important to note that the individual cases are specific or substantive, while the derived concept, grounded in empirical data, may be general or universal” (p. 8). It is precisely this ‘intimate connection with empirical reality that permits the development of a testable, relevant, and valid theory’ (Eisenhardt, 1989 p 532). This objection arises when a case provides a basis for discussion of points not directly demonstrated. Based on Gummesson (1993), the current study used a single case study for a marketing study to examine the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and internal stakeholders’ identification in a middle-ranking London Business School. The ‘case’ is described as a single setting, single location (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Lee and Lings, 2008; Yin, 1994). Moreover, a London-based Business School as a single case allows generalising to other cases that represent similar theoretical conditions (Yin, 1998).

### **5.3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND SETTING**

After discussing the methodology of the single case study and justifying its appropriateness in this research, in the previous Section, this Section presents the design which guides the data collection methods and discusses the research setting and unit of analysis of this study. This study is survey-based single case study and employed a qualitative study in the first stage of the research, which involves the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998) in order to gain a broader and more complete understanding

of the research phenomenon (Veal, 2005) and confidence in the findings (Webb et al., 1966).

In an attempt to accomplish the research objectives, which are stated in previous section, the researcher faced the challenge of examining the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and multiple-internal stakeholders' identification and decided to carry out a quantitative study of the middle-ranked and London-based Business School as the context of the study. It is important to discuss the context of where research has been conducted. However, in view of the limited available timeframe to investigate this research, this approach is not considered feasible. Furthermore, the need to be context-specific leads the researcher to make a decision that one sector would be adequate, particularly for a service industry. A middle-ranked London-based Business School was considered to be a good place to carry out this research since there is a close relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification in the Business School. Usually companies make an attempt to strengthen their relationships with their internal-stakeholders. This research has been conducted within Brunel University, London. Particularly, this research was focused on the new building of the Brunel Business School (BBS) as an in-depth case study. Brunel Business School in Uxbridge in the UK was therefore chosen as a context for this study because of the fact that it provides a vast array of opportunities for internal-stakeholders in relation to architectural interaction.

Whetten (1989) states that the condition of the research is the set of boundary for the theory and is aid the generalisability of the findings (Whetten, 1989). The middle-ranked London-based Business School was chosen by a preliminary literature review on this sector for several reasons. First of all, according to patterns and trends in UK higher education, UK higher education institutions have seen rapid growth in the sector, with total student numbers rising from just under 2 million in 2000 - 2001 to around 2.5 million by 2010-2011. The majority of provision continues to be delivered in higher education institutions in receipt of public funding from the government funding councils. About 93% of higher education provision has been delivered in publicly funded institutions throughout the past five years. Recent policy changes, however, may lead to a shift in the balance between higher education and further education. In addition, the government has recently signaled its intention to support the entry of new providers to the market (p. 5).



Along with the expansion at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, growth in student numbers has largely come from a significant increase in the number of international students studying at UK universities. The UK has been a popular international destination for students (Larsen and Vincent-Lancrin, 2002) and has been well established in the history of higher education and international reputation (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007). According to Bolsmann and Miller (2008), the higher education industry has been identified by governments as a strategic sector to attract more foreign students. The English language is an important competitive advantage and the UK has been identified as one of the main exporters of higher education services (Bolsmann and Miller, 2008, p. 284-286). For two decades or so, the provision of education for international students has emerged as a prominent growth area in the service sector. By 1997, British exports of education and training accounted for over 9 billion pounds (Bennell and Pearce, 2003) and the growth increased from 2.5 percent between 1999 and 2000 to 5 percent between 2001 and 2002. In addition, not only is there an increasing proportion of the UK population that holds a higher education qualification, but also, the percentage of the UK labour force aged 30 to 34 with a higher education qualification has increased from 30% to 50% between 2001 and 2011 (patterns and trends in UK higher education, 2012). These changes in the market encourage competition in the higher education market in the UK (Tooley et al., 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010). To improve performance and budget allocations, university ranking tables are used by universities to improve performances and budget allocations.

To explain ranking patterns of UK Business Schools, institutional theory was used (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). The UK schools that were recognised as centres of national excellence for management education in the 1980s are all represented in the 2010 Financial Times global ranking (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). In the 2010 ranking, institutions from 20 different countries were represented, but 56 of the top 100 schools were US-based and 17 UK-based (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). One of the greatest influences on league table positions is research performance. It is high quality research (research output assessed by peers on the basis of traditional academic criteria: theory-based, contributing to scientific knowledge, published in top-journals) that achieves high research rankings (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012).

Surveys have found that school rankings have more influence on the decision-making process. There is a clear relationship between school rankings and student performance

(Elbeck, 2009, p. 84), and, upon graduation, students from the top schools secure the highest paid jobs (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). Rankings have a significant impact on a school's ability to attract the top scholars, the most able students and research funding (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). Schools use rankings to support claims of excellence and 'world class' status (Peters, 2007). These candidates are more attractive prior to their course and are logically more attractive with the added value of their course (Peters, 2007). Not only are they inherently more attractive, but, of course, recruiters also read rankings and will recruit from highly ranked schools. Since there are simply too many schools to choose from in the total pool, recruiters select 10-15 schools that fit the profiles which they seek (Peters, 2007). In 2010, there were over 250,000 full-time equivalent students taking a business or management programme, which accounted for 15% of all students in UK higher education (Williams, 2010).

Research has shown that leaders in higher education are concerned about the impact of rankings and they are increasingly responsive and reactive to them. Brunel University's mission and vision is driven by the dedication to excellence and quality in everything the University does. The Strategic Plan for 2012-2017 points the way to the realisation of an ambitious set of Priorities and Objectives. It has been designed to confirm Brunel's place in the top third of UK Higher Education Institutions, as a University with a robust plan of development, a strong aspiration to greatly improve its educational and research activities, and a clear sense of self-determination ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction), 2014). The pathway that runs through the plan is characterised by the desire to consolidate our strengths, to integrate further our research and educational activities, to optimise our infrastructure and accelerate our success. All of the activities are underpinned by a single Mission, which acts as the guiding principle behind what the University does as a Higher Education Institution.

Given the significance of UK higher education, Brunel Business School was chosen as the setting for the present research. The history of Brunel University is a story of exponential growth and consistent academic development. Receiving its Royal Charter in 1966, Brunel will be celebrating its 50th anniversary in 2016. Over the past 45 years, the University has firmly established itself as a dedicated provider of quality higher education allied to industry, with a strong culture of research, and a constant focus on work-relevant study through its

work-placement system. Brunel has always been a dynamic place to work and study, constantly reinventing itself, whilst managing to remain true to its origins and relevant to the needs of the wider society. Brunel is a vibrant international community of students and academics from 110 countries worldwide. Brunel's research addresses real-world issues and has found truly life-changing solutions. In addition, Brunel graduates are amongst the most employable – and most highly paid – in the UK. Also, Brunel has outstanding facilities and services on a single modern, self-contained campus ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs), 2014).

Brunel University's mission is to create knowledge and advance understanding, and equip versatile graduates with the confidence to apply what they have learnt for the benefit of society. Brunel University's vision is to be a world-class creative community that is inspired to work, think and learn together to meet the challenges of the future ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction), 2014).

As a research-intensive university, Brunel places great value on the usefulness of the research, which improves the understanding of the world around Brunel and informs up to the minute teaching. Research is responsible for much of the collaborative work with business, industry and the public sector, providing opportunities for work experience, and demonstrates the commitment to producing professionally-minded graduates that employers want to recruit. The 2008 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) judged 82% of our research to be of international standing, leading to a 54.5% increase in its research funding from the Higher Education Funding Council, compared to the sector average increase of 7.8% ([brunel.ac.uk/about/campus](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/campus), 2014).

In support of the Brunel Mission, Brunel adheres to a set of core values. These 'ethical guidelines' give meaning to what the university does, and provide each and every member of the Brunel community – whether staff or students, academic or non-academic – with a sense of what they consider to be the most desirable way of working together: quality, excellence prevails in the education Brunel offers, in the research that Brunel conducts and in the services that Brunel provides: (i) ideas, creativity, invention, innovation, and a general spirit of discovery are fostered in all aspects of Brunel work; (ii) Brunel acts with integrity and treats each person with dignity and respect, and is committed to fairness in all practices, policies and procedures; (iii) clarity, openness and clarity of purpose are key to how Brunel

communicates internally and with the outside world; (iv) Brunel encourages, support and empowers members of its community to achieve individual and collective goals; (v) Brunel has a shared responsibility for developing the University, and they want everyone to feel that they can contribute to their success; (vi) partnerships, collaborations within the University, and between the University and external partners, are enriching and rewarding; (vii) planned sustainable development (financially, socially and environmentally) is crucially important to securing the future; (viii) Brunel has the confidence to be the architect of Brunel's own future, and to be proactive in improving the professional environment ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/core-values](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/core-values), 2014).

Brunel has always had a strong sense of self-determination and autonomy, which has enabled it to develop and grow from its early beginnings into a highly respected research-intensive university, with a broad portfolio of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes attracting staff and students from across the world and increase the attractiveness of the institutions in the international markets (Bradshaw, 2007). According to Bradshaw (2007) while recruiters and students use the rankings to help select programmes and managers, Business School rankings are probably here to stay (p. 60). The main object behind all subsequent degree rankings from the Financial Times has determined the three planks on which the rankings are based on: (i) the career progress of alumni; (ii) the international focus of the programme; and (iii) the idea generation (research capabilities) of the school.

There is nothing quite as likely to raise a Business School dean's blood pressure as the topic of media rankings (Bradshaw, 2007). The different rankings can produce very different results. Business Schools promote themselves through media rankings – be it Business Week, The Economist Intelligence Unit, the FT, Forbes or US News and World Report – produces surprising results. In addition, the Business School deans use their ranking position most actively in their marketing and promotion. The challenge for Business Schools is to develop ways of best using the data published (Bradshaw, 2007). Rankings are significant drivers of a school's reputation. Good performance can double inquiries and applications and allow schools to charge prestige premiums (Peters, 2007). According to Peters (2007) positive university/school rankings improve quality. The increased selectivity at admissions allows schools to pick the best possible candidates. Business Schools globally operate in a market-

driven environment and rankings are very much part of that environment (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012).

The latest Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), carried out in all UK universities in 2008, judged 82% of Brunel research to be of international standing. As a result of this success, the university secured a 54.5% increase in the level of its research funding from the Higher Education Funding Council, rising to £12.9 million for 2009/10. The higher education sector averaged an increase of just 7.8% ([thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel](http://thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel), 2014). Brunel Business School is a dynamic and ambitious environment that fosters and promotes world class learning, excellence in teaching, whilst creating a global professional advantage for all its students. BBS is well recognised by numerous international bodies and features prominently in many league tables ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings), 2014). Evidence of esteem is demonstrated in the following:

- Brunel Business School won the Business School of the Year Award by the Times Higher Education Awards, held in association with Santander Universities and supported by the Higher Education Academy in 2013.
- In top 7 best Business Schools in London.
- The Complete University Guide 2014 ranked Brunel Business School 3rd in London for student satisfaction and 6th in London for business studies.
- Sunday Times University Guide 2013 ranked Brunel Business School 4th in London and 21st in UK for business and management studies.
- The Times Good University Guide 2013 ranked Brunel Business School 6th in London and 45th in UK for business and management studies.
- Financial Times ranked Brunel Business School 6th in London, top 20 in UK and in the top 75 in Europe in 2011.
- Guardian University Guide 2014 ranked Brunel Business School 7th in London and 44th in UK for business and management studies.
- Brunel Business School has been shortlisted for the Business School of the Year Award by the Times Higher Education and Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) in 2012.
- Brunel University has been ranked 1st in London, 6th in UK and 35th in the world in a new world ranking of the top 100 universities founded in the last 50 years by Times Higher Education.

- The Financial Times placed our Masters in Management programme at 8th globally for Career Progression in 2011.
- The Masters in Management programme was in 56th place globally according to the Financial Times in 2011.
- Brunel University is ranked 5th in London for student satisfaction according to National Student Survey.
- Brunel has gone up by 20 places in the 2013 QS World University Rankings and is now in position 331 in the world.
- Brunel University has been awarded one of the most prestigious awards – the Queen's Anniversary Prize for Further and Higher Education for its ground-breaking research
- The last Research Assessment Exercise (2008) placed Brunel Business School in the top 25% of UK Business Schools, with 80% of our staff deemed to be producing work of international excellence ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings), 2014).
- Brunel maintained a good performance overall in the 2013 NSS with outstanding success for the Library and Academic Skills Service ([thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel](http://thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel), 2014).

Brunel Business School (BBS) moved to a new building in 2012. Brunel Business School (Eastern Gateway Building) is located on the north side of the campus and creates a stunning entrance to the University Campus. This £32m building has state of the art facilities with 7000m<sup>2</sup> over four floors to house the Business School faculty, students and leading edge research activities as well as an art gallery. The Beldam Gallery which is the University's art gallery and regularly displays exhibitions of local and national artists, as well as the work produced by members of the Brunel Art Centre and cafeteria in the building atrium (please see BBS visual audit) (Top UK and US Business Schools Picture are illustrated in Appendix).

**VISUAL AUDIT: BRUNEL BUSINESS SCHOOL PICTURES**

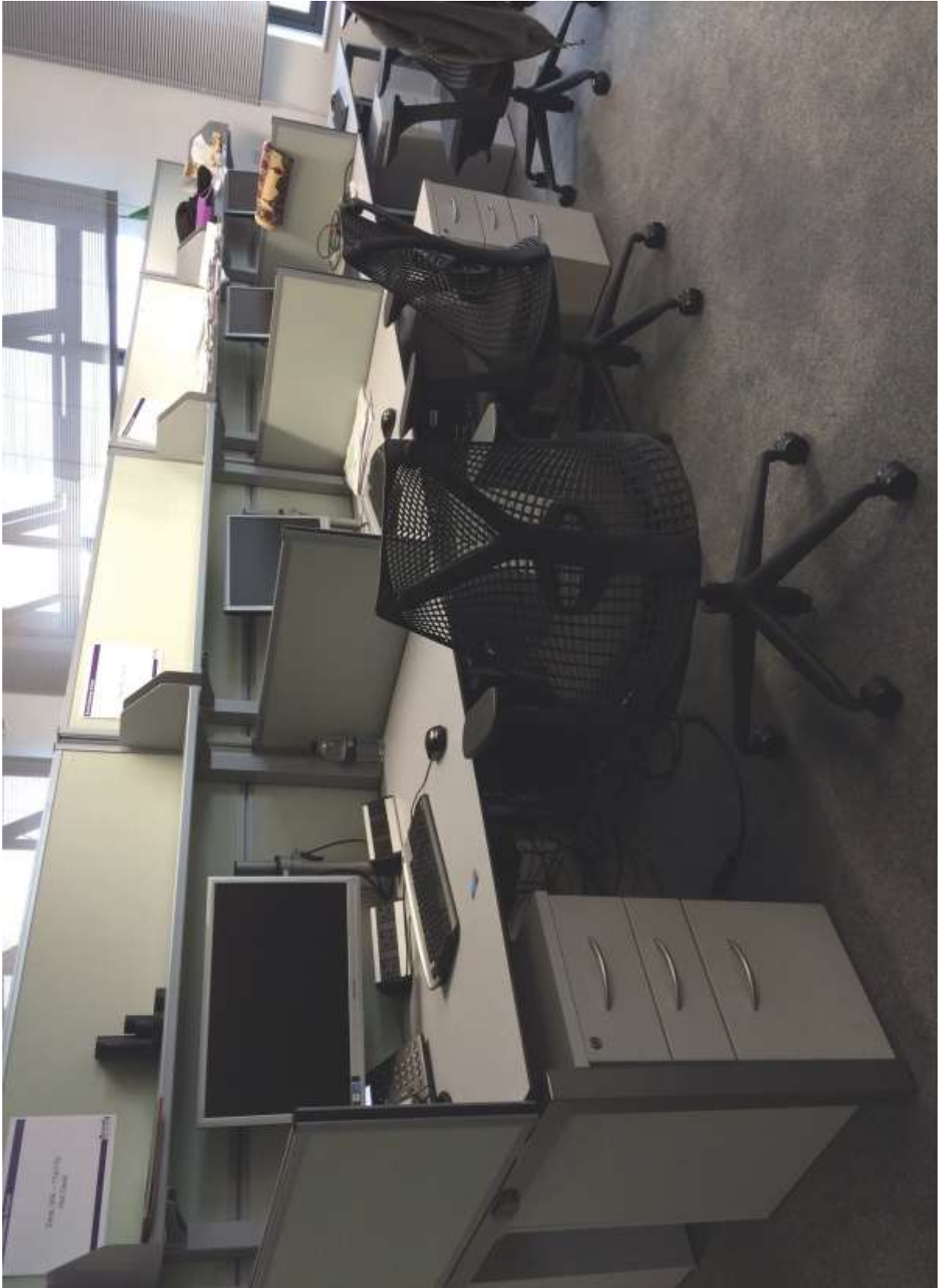




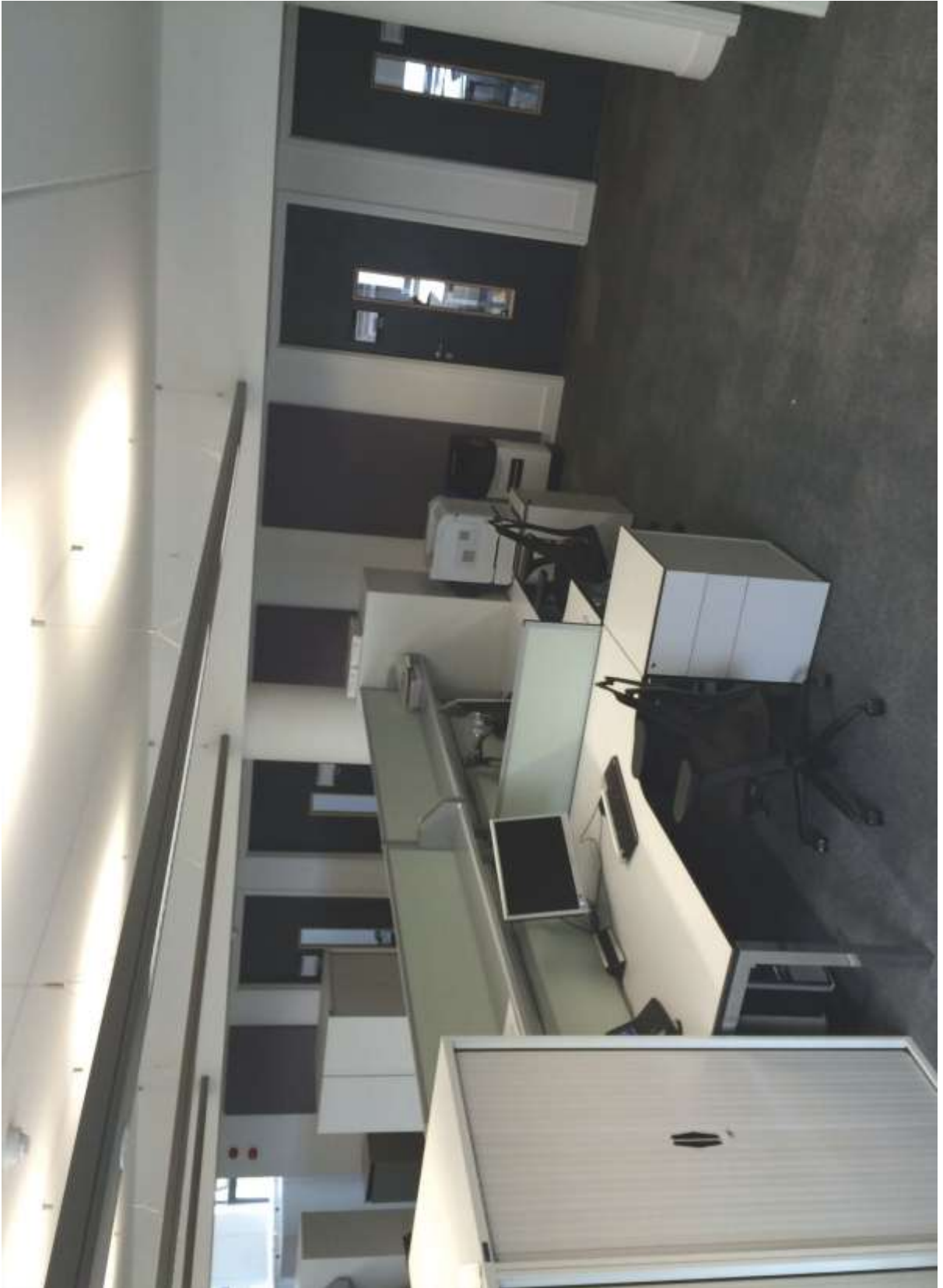
























At the centre of the building is the large 400+ seat multi-purpose auditorium which is zinc-faced on a structural framed system retained in place by a steel frame and is designed to provide a mixture of natural ventilation using the stack effect together with controlled ventilation/heating systems when required.

The Brunel Business School is environmentally friendly and has a strong focus on energy saving through biomass heating, which is provided by a wood pelleting boiler and much of the building uses natural ventilation. Constant monitoring and control of Co2 levels by both the natural and mechanical systems provide an ideal environment to work in. The main office areas are precast concrete frame, walls and plank flooring, finished with a render system of insulation. Control of internal offices and open areas is provided by local 'airside fan coil units' whilst perimeter areas utilise automatic window control to provide natural ventilation. Dedicated programmed software routines for Variable Pre-Heat, Pre-Cool and Night Free Cooling periods provide additional means to conserve energy during initial building start-up whilst maintaining optimum control of the building's environment for its occupants (making the new home a very green environment to work and study in); in addition many elements of the building are factory-controlled environments.

The lecture theatre offers flexible teaching areas; from single stand-alone rooms to integrated spaces with room join options for maximum variability. In addition, the lecture theatre comprises both natural and mechanical ventilation systems, with the natural ventilation taking priority to maintain the desired temperature. Lecture Rooms feature unique curved presentation walls, so each room has been equipped with bespoke engineered frames for mounting equipment on walls. The automatic window control to provide natural ventilation is punched through the render system while the main entrance is one imposing glazed wall which emphasises the centre of the building. The walls separate visually the rendered office and teaching spaces from the zinc-cladded auditorium. In addition, the new building has an influence on students' and employees' satisfaction and performance.

Research performance influences Brunel institutional performance in undergraduate, postgraduate/MBA teaching and research rankings. Brunel Business School as a higher education sector institution was considered adequate for this research because it is the home to over 2,200 students and is ranked in top 20 Best Business Schools in UK (according to the

Financial Times)<sup>1</sup> and is ranked in the top 75 European Business Schools<sup>2</sup>. BBS is not only located in the top ranking of the league table nor in the bottom of the ranking table. Following the recognition of its research excellence, and the quality of the experience that it offers to the students, Brunel is now ranked 260th in the world, and climbed 78 places in the 2011 National Student Survey, to 45th out of 141 Higher Education Institutions. In the Times Higher Education Top 100 ranking of Higher Education Institutions that are less than 50 years old, Brunel is ranked 35th in the world, and 6th out of 20 institutions in the UK. During this planning period it will aim to secure and consolidate its place in the top third of UK institutions ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/context](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/context), 2014). Furthermore, it is ranked at number 8 in the world for career prospects and is in the top Ten Management programmes in the UK (according to the Financial Times)<sup>1</sup>. Brunel Business School is one of the largest schools at Brunel University, London, it is vibrant, innovative, forward-looking and with ambitious plans for the future ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs), 2014). Brunel Business School has won the Times Higher Education Awards Business School of the Year 2013 ([brunel.ac.uk](http://brunel.ac.uk), 2014). In addition, Brunel graduates enjoy the 13th highest starting salaries in the UK, according to the recent Sunday Times Good University Guide. Their average salary of £22,323 is almost £3,000 more than the national average ([brunel.ac.uk/about/campus](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/campus), 2014).

Middle-ranked London-based Brunel Business School was chosen to be ahead of other academic schools regarding multiple-internal stakeholders. Besides, this Business School was chosen because it was felt that, in a highly competitive environment, they, like other service providers, would work to develop and protect their identity and brand by communicating their internal messages consistently (Punjaisri and Willson, 2007). Thus, the multiple-internal stakeholders of the school are a group of respondents, which is expected to have experience in receiving internal messages in their school, and are representative of internal stakeholders in providing information about different aspects of the concepts in the study.

Finally middle-ranked London-based Brunel Business School was considered for three main reasons: i) it was possible to get some access to the school and the building when it was under construction from the first day and the access was with no limitation to the top management

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.accessmba.com/mba-schools/brunel-business-school/index.html>

<sup>2</sup> <http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/brunel-university>

team of the school, which increased the credibility of this study; ii) access to all the weekly meetings and records of all the meetings, which were held between designers and the school's managers; and iii) the personal relationship between the researcher and the researcher's supervisor with the site managers and the school manager were also a facilitator.

#### **5.4. DATA COLLECTION**

Rigor and systematic data collection are significant. The main objective of this study is to theoretically investigate architecture (the focal construct) and, its relationship to corporate identity (as antecedent) and multiple internal-stakeholders' identification (as an outcome) in a service setting – namely a middle-ranking London-based Business School by relying on a single case. To accomplish the aims of this research, this empirical study employs an explanatory case study (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010), with a dominant quantitative component concerning a main survey as well as semi-structured interviews and focus groups and a pilot study to collect data for the re-development of measurement scales (Chisnall, 1991; Churchill, 1979; Connel and Lowe, 1997).

Predominantly, the value of the data for the purposes of the evaluation is essential (Robson, 1993). This section will explain the components of the data collection which were employed in this study as: i) sampling, ii) data collection methods (qualitative and quantitative), and iii) process of data collection. The following section explains the qualitative study, which was employed in the first stage of this study to: i) attain a more profound understanding of the topic, (ii) refine and revise the preliminary research model and hypotheses, (iii) purify measures for the questionnaire, and iv) increase the validity of the findings as well as the richness of the conclusion (Baker, 1994; Churchill, 1979; Deshpande, 1983; Saunders et al., 2007). It followed by the quantitative study in the second stage.

##### **5.4.1. Preliminary Data collection stage**

This study is survey-based single case study. However, based on Urde et al.'s (2007) recommendation, qualitative study was used in the first stage of the research to decrease possible bias caused by a specific method or technique. In alignment with this, the main source or method for the data collection in the qualitative stage was semi-structured interviews and focus groups in order to gather qualitative data in order to determine which are

important in the context of the research and why (Patton, 1990) which is explained in the following sections.

### **Semi-structured interviews**

Semi-structured interviews served as a necessary source of case study evidence to gain insights in depth and provide the most relevant information (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Yin, 1994). Semi-structured interviews used as the selected appropriate technique, since the research is explanatory in nature. An interview is a conversation with a purpose (Robson, 1993). To facilitate the efficiency of interviews, an interview protocol was designed and used which served as a guide for the present study where semi-structured interviews were conducted. The interview protocol consists of an explanation of the research topic, and several open interview question guides such as the informants' description and perception of the interplay between Business School identity, architecture and identification within the Brunel Business School. In addition, each interviewee was also promised confidentiality (See the interview protocol in Appendix 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3). The semi-structured interview was the main source of data for qualitative research to gain a better understanding of the research phenomenon, and also to substantiate any verbal statements made (Cresswell, 2005).

The main strengths of the semi-structured interview are: firstly, the data from the semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of the research phenomenon and when interesting avenues that were not directly related to the interview guide arose, the line of questioning surrounding these issues was pursued, and comments noted during the process of conversation. Secondly, the semi-structured interview allows modification and addition of interview questions to suit each interviewee in the course of the fieldwork.

Sensitising questions (which are on what the data might be indicating) such as why did the Business School change its corporate identity and why did the Business School change the building? What are the messages of the new corporate identity? How does the building link to the Business School's corporate identity? How do they describe themselves in relation to the school (e.g. are you proud to be part of the school, the school's successes is your successes)? The researcher kept asking what the association was between emergent categories and concepts during the axial and selecting coding stages. Practical and structural

questions (which are parts of the process of reflection on further sampling and data collection) were asked; for instance, the researcher always asked himself where, from whom, and how he should get the data; and whether the data for the issue of a new corporate identity is adequate. Guiding questions were asked (which were asked during the process of interviewing, observing, and analysing of documents) for example, throughout the interviews, in addition to the designed questions in advance, prompting questions arose from the conversation with the informants.

During stage one, fifteen interviews were conducted as the criminally research stage and the interviewees were mainly the School Manager, Administration team and academic staff of the Business School. Of those, one School Manager, Operations Administrator, Operations and Finance Manager, Research Student Administration, who were working at the Business School, were interviewed on a face-to-face basis. The other two interviewees, who were a Senior Lecturer and a Lecturer, contributed a wide range of information through face-to-face interviews. There are multiple reasons for selecting experts as the informants. First, the employees of Business Schools are likely to have more experience and knowledge about the school's identity and architecture of the building than the academic staff of other schools. Second, the respondents were chiefly desirable as they are likely to be able to verbalise their perception towards the building and the Business School identity and can provide more reliable organisational and industrial information. Third, senior managers and academics are mainly responsible for organisation and identity decision-making (Balmer, 2001). Fourth, it is essential to incorporate the Business School members' perception about their feeling towards the workplace. Moreover, the academic staffs of Business Schools were a group of respondents whom the researcher could easily access. Therefore, the information obtained from managers and middle managers and academics at Brunel Business School was expected to gain insight into the investigated phenomena, which was deep and rich as well as facilitating the generation of measurement dimensions. Table 5.2 illustrates the details of in-depth interviews.

**Table 5.2: Details of in-depth interviews**

Interview date	Interview position	Interview duration	approx.
6. 3. 2012	School Manager	65 min. 46 min.	
16. 3. 2012	Operations Administrator	55 min. 33 min.	
16. 5. 2012	Operations and Finance Manager	44 min.	
17. 5. 2012	Research Student Administration	35 min.	
	Professor	174 min. 112 min.	
17. 5. 2012	Senior Lecturer	25 min. 18 min.	
17. 5. 2012	Lecturer	37 min. 25 min. 17 min. 22 min. 15 min.	

Source: Developed by the researcher

To gather the data the researcher, firstly, interviewed all top management, middle management members of the Business School, and then, numbers of academics were interviewed. The interviews were a face-to-face interpersonal role situation designed to elicit answers pertinent to the research hypotheses (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996, p. 232) and in order to establish a clear overview of the interplay of corporate identity, architecture, and identification to give the opportunity of obtaining a deeper understanding of the research objective. The researcher first contacted the respondents in Brunel Business School by sending an email to explain about the research and asked whether they would like to take part. The timing and interviews took place in a location chosen by the participant (Ritchie et al., 2003). To facilitate the informants' focus on the issues and topics of the study, the researcher sent them the topic guide via email. It helps the informants' familiarity with the conception of the current study and for them to express the issues that they felt were most relevant. The interview contains the main eleven to eighteen questions. The researcher used a topic guide to check whether all the areas of interest were covered during the interviews (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Each interview took approximately 15 to 174 minutes and was recorded and transcribed verbatim to ensure reliability (Andriopoulos and Lewis, 2009).

### **Focus groups**

Focus groups were conducted to understand the views of individuals about the subject, when little is known in advance of the investigation; the focus group may provide extensive

information (Byers and Wilcox, 1991). The focus group interview was employed in this study as a 'self-contained method' of research, which is a multi-method study in conjunction with individual interviews, participant observations, and surveys (Morgan, 1997). Using this technique allowed the researcher to gain further insights into what people think about the school's architecture and its identity and identification (Churchill, 1979; Fern, 1982; Krueger, 1994). Furthermore, it enabled the researcher to obtain a large amount of information on the topic in a limited amount of time (Morgan, 1998). The qualitative stage takes the form of interviews and focus groups and it aims to augment items, grounded in the literature, whilst enhancing face and content validity.

Focus groups have been heavily employed in marketing research for several years as an excellent source of qualitative data (Byers and Wilcox, 1991). Furthermore, focus groups give a chance to the researcher to view transactions between participants and how they respond and react to topic of interest. Moreover, a focus group is a "unique and independent" technique of qualitative data gathering and "can add to other qualitative or quantitative data collection strategies" (Morgan and Spanish, 1984, p. 253). Byers and Wilcox (1991) asserts that focus group is, "a chance to experience the flesh and blood of a consumer" (p. 68).

The main benefit of the focus group was explained by Byers and Wilcox (1991) as: i) "people are a valuable source of information", ii) "people can report on and about themselves, and that they are articulate enough to verbalise their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours", iii) "the facilitator who "focuses" the interview can help people retrieve forgotten information", iv) "the dynamics in the group can be used to generate genuine information, rather than the 'group think' phenomenon", and v) "interviewing a group is better than interviewing an individual" (p. 65). Adopting focus group can improve the reliability of the information. Ping (2004) states,

"Focus groups can reveal the specific language the study population uses to communicate regarding these constructs. This information is then used to improve the phrasing of the item stems, and thus reduce measurement error" (p. 134).

The research conducted six focus groups with a total of 36 academics (21 men and 15 women) to produce a wider range of information (Malhotra and Birks, 2003, p. 163) to



encourage a sufficient level of group interaction so as to foster discussion (Greenbaum, 2000; Krueger, 1994) and examine more directly the concept of the school identity, architecture, and identification. The participants' social background was homogenous (Greenbaum, 2000) while between-group and in-group heterogeneity (e.g. age, gender, marital status, and occupation) were allowed (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The age of the respondents ranged from 23 to 41 years with the different ethnicities.

Accordingly, the members of Business School as well as PhD researchers were contacted by email and were asked to suggest other colleagues who might be interested in contributing. Open-ended and unstructured questions were employed and asked the participants to discuss their perceptions, opinions, beliefs and attitudes towards the building of the Business School's new building and their relationship to the school's identity and their identification (See the focus group protocol in Appendix 5.4). Focus groups provided the opportunity to gather information about architecture, which is not germane to any specific group or setting (Byers and Wilcox, 1991). Furthermore, this method of data collection helped the researcher to gather a large amount of information on the topic by a range of responses, in a shorter time by adding the bonus of the group dynamic. The details of the focus group interviewees are illustrated in Table 5.3. The venues and timing of focus group interviews were chosen by participants as a comfortable environment to generate a debate where respondents felt relaxed enough to express their feelings and behaviour via their language and logic (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Importantly, the focus group discussions supported the findings from the interviews.

**Table 5.3: Details of focus group and the core points discussed**

Date	Group size	Profile of participants	Session duration (approx.)	Age range
18. 4. 2012	6	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	95 min.	25-42
27.4. 2012	6	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	60 min.	30-37
27. 4. 2012	5	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	65 min.	23-32
17.11. 2014	6	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	45 min.	29-41
17.11. 2014	7	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	57 min.	30-40
18.11. 2014	6	Staff of Brunel Business School, Doctoral Researchers	69 min.	24-35

Source: Developed by the researcher

The current study used QSR NVivo software for qualitative data analysing to support developing the coding system for data analysis. The use of NVivo software for this research made the manipulation and analysis of the data easier, more reliable, more accurate and more transparent (Gibbs, 2002). NVivo is useful for data storage and retrieval (Esterberg, 2002). Moreover, it is helpful for mapping out diagrammatically and assisted the researcher with viewing the whole text, enabling the inter-relationships of the codes to be seen at a glance (Welsh, 2002). The collected data from the interviews were grouped according to the relevant codes. Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software was used to review the text, code the data by assigning text to free nodes, build tree nodes which connect the free nodes into themes, reviewing the tree nodes (themes) for consistency, and proceeding through the qualitative data analysis (Esterberg, 2002).

Welsh (2002) recognised the importance of the value of manual and electronic tools in qualitative data analysis and management. Furthermore, it ensures that the researcher is working more methodically, more thoroughly, and more attentively (Bazeley, 2007). This study utilised multiple methods to enhance the credibility of the findings. In addition, the use of both tools increases the validity and reliability of the study results (Urde et al., 2007).

In order to judge the quality of the research, the two factors reliability and validity should be determined. “There is no validity without reliability, an expression of the former validity is sufficient to establish the latter reliability” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 316). Reliability refers to the extent to which assessments are consistent and sustainable. However, validity refers to the accuracy of an assessment, which defines the strength of the data (Patton, 2002). To verify the reliability of the study, an evaluation of ‘trustworthiness’ is important. The notion of determining truth through measures of validity and reliability are substantiated by the view of trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

According to Seale (1999) the “trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability” (p. 266). Strauss and Corbin (1998) recommended the use of a theoretical sample rather than a statistically random sample, which “maximise opportunities for comparing concepts along their properties for the similarities and differences enabling researchers to define categories, to differentiate among them, and to specify their range of variability” (p. 149). Some authors (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Glaser,

1992; Strauss and Corbin, 1998) state that an interpretive study such as one using grounded theory has its own set of criteria for testing the trustworthiness of the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended a set of trustworthiness criteria for examining interpretive research, namely credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested techniques to improve trustworthiness (Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4: Meeting the criteria of trustworthiness**

<b>Traditional criteria</b>	<b>Trustworthiness criteria</b>	<b>Techniques employed to ensure trustworthiness</b>
<b>Internal validity</b>	Credibility	Quality access (the researcher was provided with an office desk, computer, access to company intranet, email address, freedom of talking to and interviewing anybody, freedom of getting any company documents, including lots of confidential strategic documents.) and extensive engagement in the field. Multiple methods Peer debriefing Constant comparison
	Transferability	Detailed description of the research setting Multiple cases and cross-case comparison
<b>External validity</b>	Dependability	Purposive and theoretical sampling Cases and informants confidentiality protected Rigorous multiple stages of coding
<b>Reliability</b>	Confirmability	Separately presenting the exemplar open and axial codes. Word-by-word interview transcription Accurate records of contacts and interviews Writing research journal Carefully keeping notes of observation Regularly keeping notes of emergent theoretical and methodological ideas
<b>Objectivity</b>		

Source: Based on Lincoln and Guba (1985)

#### **5.4.2. Main data collection stage**

This research is predominantly based on the quantitative research. Quantitative method is the most important method used mainly in business research and can be defined as explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods in particular statistics. Quantitative methods developed in natural science to study natural phenomena are generally used in natural science and in social psychology. Furthermore, quantitative methods initiated the enthusiasm to test unconfirmed theories with the facts.

A quantitative method is “an only way to obtain data on many area of social life not amenable to the techniques for collecting quantitative data” (Glaser, 1968, p. 17). Quantitative methods offer a more independent approach to testing verifiable hypotheses and are a more positivistic

mode of inquiry. In addition, “quantitative research is generally labelled ‘unsystematic,’ or ‘exploratory,’ and the flexible quantitative research ‘sloppy’ or ‘unsophisticated’” (Glaser, 1968, p. 223). Deshpande (1983) notes that quantitative methods are more appropriate for theory testing than theory generation. Easterby et al. (2002) and Easterby et al. (1995) describe in-depth interviewing as the most fundamental qualitative method. The qualitative and quantitative research methods are compared in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5: Key features of qualitative and quantitative paradigm and chosen mix approach**

	<b>Quantitative Research</b>	<b>Qualitative Research</b>
<b>Nature of the reality</b>	Objective, tangible and singular	Subjective and multiple and holistic
<b>The role of values</b>	Inquiry is value-free	Inquiry is value-bound
<b>Process</b>	Deductive and logistic	Inductive and dialectic
<b>Element of analysis</b>	Hypotheses testing	Hypotheses generation
<b>Process</b>	Hypothesis	Research questions
<b>Purpose</b>	Deductive: verification and outcome oriented Precise measurement and comparison of variables Establishing relationships between variables Interface from sample to population	Inductive: discovery and process oriented Meaning Context Process Discovering unanticipated events, influences and conditions Inductive development of theory
<b>Research questions</b>	How many, strength of association? Variance questions Truth of proposition Presence or absence Degree or amount Correlation Hypothesis testing Causality (factual)	Process questions How and Why Meaning Context (holistic) Hypotheses as part of conceptual framework Causality (physical)
<b>Theory</b>	Test theory Measureable	Develops theory Interpretive
<b>Researcher role</b>	Reduction, control and precision	Discovery, description, understanding and share interpretation
<b>Relationship</b>	Objectivity/ reduction of influence (research as an extraneous variable)	Use of influence as a tool for understanding (research as part of process)
<b>Sampling</b>	Probability sampling Establishing valid comparisons	Purposeful sampling
<b>Data collection</b>	Measures tend to be objective Prior development of instruments Standardisation Measurement/testing-quantitative/categorical	Measures tend to be subjective  Inductive development of strategies Adapting to particular situation Collection of textual or visual material
<b>Data analysis</b>	Numerical descriptive analysis (statistics, correlation) Estimation of population variables Statistical hypothesis testing Conversion of textual data into numbers or categories	Textual analysis (memos, coding, connecting) Grounded theory Narrative approaches

<b>Language</b>	Detachment and impartiality	Personal involvement and partiality
	Formal	Informal
<b>Time consuming</b>	Cause and effect	Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors
	Static design	Emerging design
	Context-free	Context-bound
	Strives for generalisation	Strives for uniqueness
	Variables can be identified and relationships measured	Variables are complex and difficult to measure
	Reliable through validity and reliability	Reliability through verification
	Numbers and statistics	Words and ideas
	More efficient	Rich time consuming
<b>Reliability/Validity</b>	Reliable	Valid
	Technology as instrument (the evaluator is removed from the data)	Self as instrument (the evaluator is close to the data)
<b>Generalisability</b>	Generalisable	Ungeneralisable
	The outsider's perspective	The insider's perspective
	Population oriented	Case oriented

**Source:** Barlett and Payne (1997); Creswell (2003); Maxwell and Loomis (2003, p. 190); Silverman (1993); Steckler et al. (1992)

### **Domain of the constructs**

The initial approach to the development of measures is specifying the domain of the construct (Churchill, 1979), which involves identifying the dimensions of the focal construct and operational definitions. The researcher reviewed the related literature when conceptualising the research constructs and specifying their domains. The researcher defined clearly the delineation of “what is included in the definition and what it excludes” (Churchill, 1979, p. 67). To determine the main indicators for the research construct, the current research captures all the prior literature review in the marketing field, and recognised the main items that previous scholars have used (Churchill, 1979). Given the aim of the present study, the literature review includes studies in the fields of corporate identity, organisational identity, architecture, design, corporate visual identity, and identification to conceptualise the constructs and specify the research domains. Based on the conceptual framework, (See Figure 5.1) Table 5.6 illustrates the main constructs and their definitions.

**Table 5.6: The main constructs and their definitions**

Constructs	Definitions and Major references
	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Corporate identity (domain)</b></p> <p>Corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and serves as a vehicle for expression of the company’s philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), values, and mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005), communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995).</p>
<b>Corporate visual identity</b>	<p>Corporate visual identity is an assembly of visual cues to make an expression of the organisation (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) by which an audience can recognise the company and distinguish it from others (Bernstein, 1984) in serving to remind the corporate real purpose (Abratt, 1989) in serving to remind the corporate real purpose (Abratt, 1989, Melewar, 2003).</p>
<b>Communication</b>	<p>Communication is the aggregate of messages from both official and informal sources, through a variety of media, by which a company conveys its identity to its multiple audiences or stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar, 2003).</p>
<b>Philosophy, mission, and value</b>	<p>Philosophy is the core values and assumptions that constitute the corporate culture, business mission and values espoused by the management board or founder of the company (Abratt, 1989; Collins and Porras, 1991; Ledford et al., 1995; Melewar, 2003; Simoes et al., 2005; Wright, 1984).</p> <p>Mission is the company purpose, the reason for which a company exists or objectives (De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar, 2003).</p> <p>Value is the dominant system of beliefs and moral principles that lie within the organisation that comprise everyday language, ideologies, rituals and beliefs of personnel (Balmer, 1995; Campbell and Yeung, 1991; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003).</p>
	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Architecture (domain)</b></p> <p>Architecture is a visual presentation of a company (Jun and Lee, 2007) encapsulate company’s purpose and identity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006), set of elements (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) (Brennan <i>et al.</i>, 2002; Bitner, 1992; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman <i>et al.</i>, 2011; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006), which influence on internal-stakeholders’ attitude, and behaviour (Alessandri, 2001; Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Rooney, 2010). It can be decisive in facilitating employee, internal-stakeholders’ identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney et al., 2010).</p>
<b>Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality</b>	<p>Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality is the architectural design and physical placement of furnishings in a building, the arrangement of objects (e.g. arrangement of buildings, machinery, furniture and equipment), the spatial relationships among them, physical location and physical layout of the workplace which particularly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) and can be symbolise something (Saleh, 1998).</p>
<b>Ambient conditions/physical stimuli</b>	<p>Physical stimuli/ambient conditions of an environment in service settings encourage stakeholders to pursue the service consumptions (Han and Ryu, 2009) and subsequently effect on employees’ behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, and performance (Brennan et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and</p>

	Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008) toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006).
<b>Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts</b>	Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting (Davis, 1984; McElroy and Morrow, 2010), can be related to the aesthetics and attractiveness of the physical of the environment (McElroy and Morrow), develop a complex representation of workplace Identity (Elsbach, 2004, p. 99) and mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009).
<b>Identification (domain)</b>	
Identification is the degree to which internal-stakeholders define him or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney et al., 2010).	

Source: Developed by the researcher

### **Initial pool of items**

The initial pool of items was generated through a systematic review of the literature of empirical studies. The researcher developed the scales by avoiding exceptionally lengthy items, readability level of each item, double-barreled items, ambiguous pronoun references and positive and negatively worded items (DeVillis, 2003).

A multi-item scale was used for each construct (Churchill, 1979). The initial item-generation produced 99 items: 6 items for the corporate identity, 20 items for the corporate identity elements, 73 items for architecture (Physical structure/Spatial layout and functionality (29), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (16), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (28), and 6 items for identification. Table 5.7 shows the constructs and the number of initial items. Table 5.8 illustrates the main constructs and their measurements from the literature (See also Chapters III and IV for the literature review).

**Table 5.7: The constructs and the number of initial items**

Constructs		No. of initial item	
Corporate identity		6	
Corporate identity elements	Visual Identity	4	
	Philosophy, mission, and value	9	
	Communication	7	
Architecture	Physical structure	Layout	8
		Location (outdoor)	12
	/spatial layout and functionality (29)	Location (entrance)	5
		Special comfort	4
		Ambient conditions/physical stimuli (16)	Light/music/noise/temperature
	Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (28)	Security/privacy	8
		Art	18
Interior design/plants/flowers/ paintings/pictures/wall/floor/ colour/technology		10	
Identification		6	

Source: Developed by the researcher

**Table 5.8: The domain and items of construct in extant literature**

Constructs	Items	Major references
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY</b>		
	To what extent do BBS's administrators have a sense of pride in the school's goals and missions.	Cole and Bruch, 2006; Gioia and Thomas, 1996; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
	To what extent do top administrators feel that BBS has carved out a significant place in the higher education community.	
	To what extent does BBS have administrators, faculty, and students who identify strongly with the school.	
	To what extent the BBS administrators are knowledgeable about the institution's history and traditions.	
	To what extent do the top management team members have a well-defined set of goals or objectives for the BBS.	
	To what extent do the top management team members of BBS have a strong sense of the school's history.	
<b>VISUAL IDENTITY</b>		
	A visual audit of our facilities is undertaken periodically.	Melewar and Saunders, 1999 and 2000; Simoes et al., 2005; Stuart, 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1985
	BBS has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements.	
	BBS transmits a consistent visual presentation	



though facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication material.	
BBS stationeries are designed to match the overall visual elements/image of our BBS unit.	
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE</b>	
BBS's values and mission are regularly communicated to employees .	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997
All employee/students are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave, and appropriate attitudes).	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Employees/students view themselves as partners in charting the direction of the BBS.	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997
There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Managers periodically discuss BBS's mission and values	
Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees/students.	
BBS has a well-defined mission.	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997
There is total agreement on our mission across all levels and BBS areas.	
All employees are committed to achieving the BBS's goals.	Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
<b>COMMUNICATION</b>	
Much of our marketing is geared to projecting a specific image.	Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985
Employees are dressed in a manner to project the BBS image.	
Our employees and staff understand symbols (or visual branding) of our school.	
BBS name is part of school image.	Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
BBS corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours/visual style, and signage) are constituents of school image.	
BBS facilities are designed to portray a specific image.	
Merchandising and brochures are an important part of BBS marketing.	
<b>ARCHITECTURE</b>	
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>	
<b>Layout</b>	
My department's physical layout supports collaborative work/study.	Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Simoes et al., 2005; Varlander 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Wasserman, 2010; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Table/seating arrangement gives me enough space.	Nguyen, 2006; and also enhanced by the qualitative study

My work/study area is located close to people I need to talk to with my job/study.	Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The general office work/study-place layout facilitates teamwork.	Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Simoes et al., 2005; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Wasserman, 2010; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The physical layout of my department helps make this a nice place to come to work/study.	Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007
Overall, layout makes it easy for me to move around.	Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007
I like the way my department's offices/rooms are configured.	Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Simoes et al., 2005; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Wasserman, 2010; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Confidential and/or sensitive information is handled well in the present office layout.	Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980;

	Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007
<b>Location (Outdoor)</b>	
Outdoor space is uninviting.	Friedman et al., 1978 (p. 133); and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Outdoor space is attractive.	
Building exterior is attractive.	
Building exterior is inviting.	
The school is well-located.	
Enough space and easy access to parking.	
Outdoor space is comfortable.	Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The location of the building is attractive.	
Outdoor space is alien.	Friedman et al., 1978 (p. 133)
Outdoor space is ugly.	
Outdoor space is suitable.	
Outdoor space is ordered.	
<b>Location (Entrance)</b>	
The entrance of the building is convenient.	Bitner, 1992; Davis, 1984; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; McDonald, 2006; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The entrance of the building is safe.	
The entrance of the building is attractive.	Nguyen, 2006
Attractive interior decor and pleasant atmosphere.	Friedman et al., 1978 (p. 133)
Personal traffic corridors are well defined.	
<b>Spatial comfort</b>	
The size of staff office corresponds to their position in the BBS hierarchy.	Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Friedman et al., 1978; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Hasam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Schmitt et al., 1995; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
I have enough storage space at my work/study-place.	
Conditions at work/study are appropriate to my activities.	
I have enough work surface area at my work/study-place.	
<b>AMBIENT CONDITIONS/PHYSICAL STIMULI</b>	
<b>Light/Music/noise/ Temperature</b>	
The noises (e.g., phones, other people talking) are not bothersome.	Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001;

Temperature is comfortable.	Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Vischer, 2007; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999; Zalesny and Farace, 1987
There is enough natural light at our work/study-place.	Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Friedman et al., 1978; Han and Ryu, 2009; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The lighting is appropriate.	
Given the option, which light do you prefer for work/study	Frankel, 2001
Mixture of incandescent/fluorescent	
Daylight	
Incandescent	
Fluorescent	
Mixture of all three	
Lighting creates a warm atmosphere.	Baker et al., 2002
Background music is pleasing.	Baker et al., 2002; Wakfield and Baker, 1998
Aroma is enticing.	Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006
<b>Privacy/ Security</b>	
I find it hard to concentrate on my work.	Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The noise level makes me irritable and uneasy.	
I can talk privately and not be overheard.	Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
My area provides the quite I need to do my work.	
I am aware of others passing nearby.	Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
I feel personally safe and secure coming to and going from BBS.	
The visual privacy I need to do my work/study is favourable.	
I am aware of others working/studying nearby.	

**SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS**

The BBS's size viewed as a symbolic artefact.	Davis, 1984; Kotler, 1974
The overall design of the BBS building is interesting.	Baker et al., 1994; Bitner, 1992; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999; Wakfield and Baker, 1998; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The design of BBS is inviting.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
I like the design of BBS.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
I like the design of BBS as a piece of sculpture.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
Appearance of building and ground are attractive.	Baker et al., 1994; Bitner, 1992; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999; Wakfield and Baker, 1998
The design of BBS is in scale with rest of campus.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
The design of BBS fits the site.	
I like the material the BBS is made off.	Schmitt et al., 1995; Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
The design of BBS is functional.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
The design of BBS is cold.	
The design of BBS is dynamic.	
I think the design of BBS is symbolic of something.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The BBS has a symbolic exterior.	Elsbach and Pratt, 2007
The design of BBS is attractive.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; Zube et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The design of BBS is beautiful.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The design of Business School is a focal point.	Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978
The BBS's height is appropriate.	
<b>Interior Design Plants/flowers/ Paintings/pictures/Wall/Floor/ Colour/technology</b>	
Ceiling decor is attractive.	
Paintings/pictures are attractive.	Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009
Wall decor is visually attractive.	Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Sundstrom et al., 1980; White, 2004; Zalesny and Farace, 1987
Plants/flowers make me feel happy.	Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and

	Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Lambert, 1989; Schmitt et al., 1995; Zalesny and Farace, 1987
Colours used in the wall or ceiling create a warm atmosphere.	Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Karaosmanoglu et al., 2011; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Kotler, 1974; Lambert, 1989; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Wasserman, 2010
Floor is of high quality.	Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Porter, 2004; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
Colours used in the building create a warm atmosphere.	Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Karaosmanoglu et al., 2011; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Kotler, 1974; Lambert, 1989; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Wasserman, 2010
Tables used in the building are of high quality.	Bitner, 1992; Bloch, 1995; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2003; Elsbach, 2004; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Gieryn, 2000; Han and Ryu, 2009; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Porter, 2004; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
The chair is used in the building is of high quality.	
The BBS has up-to-date equipment (e.g., computer).	Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Giles-Corti and Donovan, 2002; McDonald, 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Saleh, 1998; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
<b>IDENTIFICATION</b>	
When I talk about the BBS, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’.	Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Dukerich et al., 2002; Keh and Xie, 2009; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
If a story in the media criticised the BBS, my school would feel embarrassed.	

When someone praises the BBS it feels like a compliment of my school.	Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dukerich et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001; Keh and Xie, 2009; Mael and Ashforth, 1992
When someone criticises the BBS, it feels like a personal insult.	Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dukerich et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; and also enhanced by the qualitative study
I am very interested in what others think about the BBS.	Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Dukerich et al., 2002; Mael and Ashforth, 1992
This BBS's successes are my successes.	Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dukerich et al., 2002; Elsbach and Bhattacharya, 2001; Keh and Xie, 2009; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; and also enhanced by the qualitative study

Source: Developed by the researcher

### **Content adequacy assessment**

To purify the measurement scales, a pilot study was conducted (De Vellis, 1991; Malhotra and Birks, 2000) to generate reliable and valid measures. The main purpose of a pilot study is to create an effective questionnaire so that respondents have no difficulty answering (Saunders et al., 2007) and creating a more effective field survey for the study. According to some authors (Churchill, 1979; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988) adherence to traditional methods for scale purification assures researchers that a reasonably reliable and valid measure will emerge. McDaniel and Gates (2006) state validity is the degree to which what the researcher was trying to measure was actually measured. By the subjective nature, content and face validity is useful which provides an indication of the adequacy of the questionnaire. Content validity is basically judgemental (Kerlinger, 1973) and refers to “the extent to which a specific set of items reflects a content domain” (DeVellis, 2003, p. 49).

To determine the content validity, the researcher asked 7 academic members of the marketing department at Brunel Business School, who are already familiar with the topic, to assess the measurement items and designate when the measures appear to be face/logical valid or not (Bearden et al., 1993; Zaichkowsky, 1985). The academics were asked to judge the suitability of the items and check the clarity of wording, and state which items should be retained (Lichtenstein et al., 1990). According to Green et al. (1988) the results of this procedure

reflect the ‘informed’ judgments of academics in the content field. The academics’ feedback was employed to edit, add, or delete items on the scale. Table 5.9 illustrates the summary of benefits and limitations of content analysis.

Following revision of the items, 7 academics scrutinised the item scales questionnaire for face validity. In order to establish the face validity, the researcher asked for feedback from academics that filled out the questionnaire and commented on whether the questionnaire appeared to measure the intended construct and on wording, layout, and ease of completing. Generally, the experts agreed that the research items were suitable for measuring the constructs in the service context. The academics commented on the items ‘outdoor space is uninviting’, ‘building exterior is attractive’, ‘outdoor space is attractive’, and ‘the building exterior is inviting’ that they are very similar and suggested a change to ‘outdoor space is attractive’. The item ‘outdoor space is alien’ could have been modified to ‘outdoor space is familiar’. According to the academics’ suggestion, ‘Outdoor space is ugly’ was changed to ‘outdoor space is attractive’; ‘outdoor space is ordered’ was changed to ‘outdoor space is well-designed’. The item ‘Background music is pleasing’ was not related to the BBS and was removed.

**Table 5.9: Summary of benefits and limitations of content analysis**

<b>Benefits</b>	<b>Limitations</b>
<b>Flexibility of research design i.e. types of inferences</b>	Analyses the communication (message) only
<b>Supplements multi-method analyses</b>	Findings may be questionable alone, therefore, verification using another method may be required
<b>Wide variety of analytical application</b>	Underlying premise must be frequency related
<b>May be qualitative and/or quantitative</b>	Reliability – stability, reproducibility, accuracy of judges
<b>May be automated – improves, reliability, reduces cost/time</b>	Validity – construct, hypothesis, predictive and semantic
<b>Range of computer software developed</b>	Less opportunity to pre-test, discuss mechanism with independent judges
<b>Copes with large quantities of data</b>	Undue bias if only part data is analysed, possibly abstracting from context of communication
<b>Unobtrusive, unstructured, context sensitive</b>	Lack of reliability and validity measures reported, raising questions of credibility

Source: Harwood and Garry (2003, p. 493)



As there is no aroma in BBS the item ‘aroma is enticing’ were removed based on the experts’ suggestions. The item ‘the design of BBS is inviting’, ‘I like the design of BBS’, ‘I like the design of BBS as a piece of sculpture’ is similar to ‘the overall design of the BBS building is interesting’ and can be deleted. The item ‘the design of BBS fits the site’ has the same meaning as the item ‘the design of BBS is in scale with rest of the campuses and can be eliminated from the list. Furthermore, the item ‘the BBS has a symbolic exterior’ and ‘I think the design of BBS is symbolic of something’ are alike. In addition, ‘the design of BBS is beautiful’ can be removed because of the similarity with the item ‘the design of BBS is attractive’. The item ‘the design of Business School is a focal point’ does not make sense in this context and it was suggested that it be taken out of the list of items. However, following their suggestions, the language of some items was re-arranged. Table 5.10 shows the constructs and the number of items after content and face validity.

The final version of the instrument was arrived at through a pilot test designed to refine the measurement items and enhance the construct’s reliability and validity. Most items used interval scales and were measured on seven-point Likert-type scales (anchors of 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). According to some authors (Bagozzi, 1994; Zeithaml et al., 1990) a Likert-type scale is the most commonly used scale in services marketing research methodologies and provides satisfactory properties with regard to the underlying distribution of responses. The respondents of the current study were multi internal-stakeholders, of Brunel Business School. Based on the results of content and face adequacy assessment, some items were modified (See Appendix 5.5).

**Table 5.10: The constructs and the number of items after content and face validity**

Constructs		No. of initial item	
<b>Corporate identity</b>		<b>6</b>	
<b>Corporate identity elements</b>	<b>Visual Identity</b>	<b>4</b>	
	<b>Philosophy, Mission, and Value</b>	<b>9</b>	
	<b>Communication</b>	<b>7</b>	
<b>Architecture (73)</b>	<b>Physical structure /Spatial layout and functionality (26)</b>	Layout	<b>8</b>
		Location (outdoor)	<b>9</b>
		Location (entrance)	<b>5</b>
		Special comfort	<b>4</b>
	<b>Ambient conditions/physical stimuli (16)</b>	Light/music/noise/temperature	<b>6</b>
		Security/privacy	<b>8</b>
	<b>Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (19)</b>	Art	<b>10</b>
Interior design/plants/flowers/paintings/pictures/wall/floor/colour/technology		<b>9</b>	
<b>Identification</b>		<b>6</b>	

Source: Developed by the researcher

### **Pilot study**

The purpose of the pilot study (pre-test) was to eliminate possible weaknesses and flaws in the first draft of the questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). A pilot study is common practice in business and marketing research for developing the instrument, which shows the survey instrument's reliability and validity. According to the authors (Denscombe, 2007; Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Ticehurst and Veal, 2000 and 2005), the pilot study aims to assess the important requirements during instrument purification e.g. testing the questionnaire wording, questionnaire sequencing, questionnaire layout, training fieldworkers, fieldwork requirement, analysis procedure, gaining familiarity with respondents, estimating questionnaire completion time, response rate. In order to create the final questionnaire for the main survey, this study provides a preliminary evaluation and refinement of the measurement (Zikmund, 2003).

Questionnaires were distributed between September and October 2012. By the cut-off date, 3 questionnaires were excluded due to the large quantity of missing data and the low quality of responses. As a result, the pilot study sample size was 54 survey questionnaires in accordance with previous literature which suggested the pilot test sample size to be generally small (20 to 40 respondents) (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). The demographic profile of the internal-

stakeholders pre-test sample is shown in Table 5.11. The survey questionnaire was examined for the pilot study by 54 multi internal-stakeholder respondents who are academics (lecturers and doctoral researchers). Furthermore, the respondents included in the pilot study were not invited to participate in the main research (Haralambos and Holborn, 2000).

The next stage was a purification process for the questions within the instrument. A pilot study was carried out before the main survey process in order to test its feasibility in terms of reliability and validity to improve the design of the questionnaire (Zikmund, 2003) and ensure that “measures are free from the error and therefore yield consistent results” (Peter, 1979, p. 6). According to Melewar (2001), before conducting the main survey, it is important that “the measures used are developed and investigated for the reliability” (p. 38). Reliability helps the accuracy, the consistency of measures and avoids the bias (error-free) of the measurement instruments within the different sample and time horizons. According to Cronbach (1951) reliability extends to whether a set of variables is consistent for what it is intended to measure and was assessed via Cronbach’s alpha. Cronbach’s alpha is mainly used as an internal consistency method used by researchers, which indicates how the different items purport to measure different aspects of a construct (Carmines and Zeller, 1979; Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al, 2006; Litwin, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). In assessing a multi-item scale, internal consistency reliability assessment is used to avoid additional dimensions produced by factor analysis due to garbage items (Churchill, 1979). The Cronbach alpha statistics were 0.916 and higher for both data sets, which is greater than 0.70 and is highly suitable for most research purposes (De Vaus, 2002; Hair et al., 2006; Nunnally, 1978) (Appendix 5.6).

Furthermore, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed in the pilot study in order to investigate the dimensionality of each construct and reduce the number of factors to a more manageable set (Chandon et al., 1997; Hair et al., 2006). EFA was checked to make sure that each item is loaded on corresponding factors as intended. Four items were excluded for multiple loadings on two factors, low reliability, and the item to total correlation is less than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2006) (Table 5.12).

**Table 5.11: Demographic profile of the internal-stakeholders' pre-test sample (N=54)**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>No. of respondents</b>	<b>%</b>
Female	29	53.7
Male	25	46.3
No answer		
<b>Age</b>		
18-23	2	3.7
24-30	18	33.3
31-39	25	46.3
40-59	7	13.0
60-above	1	1.9
No answer		
<b>How often do you visit BBS?</b>		
Never	4	7.4
A few times year	40	74.1
A few times a month	4	7.4
A few times a week	2	3.7
Five times a week	50	92.6
No answer	4	7.4
<b>Level of education</b>		
Postgraduate student	1	1.9
PhD student	45	83.3
Doctorate	5	9.3
Professor	3	5.6
No answer		
<b>Are you</b>		
Lecturer	1	1.9
Student	45	83.3
Admin	5	9.3
No answer	3	5.6

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

The reliability test was assessed as to whether “measures are free from random error” and “provide a consistent data” (McDaniel and Gates, 2006, p. 222). The questionnaire is also known as an examination of psychometric properties, which require an acceptable reliability and validity (Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2006). Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  coefficient was 0.919 and 0.987, which is above the acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2003) (Appendix 5.6).

**Table 5.12: A summary of item purification process**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Items dropped</b>	<b>Reasons for dropping the items</b>
<b>Corporate identity</b>	CI3	Multiple loadings on two factors
<b>Communication</b>	COM3	Multiple loadings on two factors, Item to total correlation is less than 0.5
<b>Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts</b>	ART9	Multiple loadings on two factors, Item to total correlation is less than 0.5
<b>Ambient conditions/physical stimuli</b>	PHS1	Multiple loadings on two factors, Item to total correlation is less than 0.5

Source: Developed by the researcher

Based on the EFA, the questionnaire design was finalised with 89 items.

### **Main survey**

The main study was followed by a pilot study presumed to have high external validity of survey instrument and the results were generalised to the population. The main study was conducted with multi-internal stakeholders of a middle ranking Business School in London between 2012 and 2013. In the following paragraphs, population and sample, targeted samples and the data the collection procedure will be defined.

### **Target population and sampling**

“The segment of population that is selected for investigation is defined as the sample” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 182). An appropriateness of the sample size is a set of elements selected within the context of the population (Malhotra and Birks, 2000) and is important to ensure that a sample is representative of the whole target population (Churchill, 1999). Sampling is essential for empirical research that employs a positivistic approach (Hussey and Hussey, 1997) and is presumed to have a high external validity (Churchill, 1999). A population has been defined by Bryman and Bell (2007) as, “the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The term ‘units’ is employed because it is not necessarily people who are being sampled and the researcher may want to sample from a universe of nations, cities, regions, firms, etc. Thus ‘population’ has a much broader meaning than the everyday use of the term, whereby it tends to be associated with a nation’s entire population” (p. 182).

Salant and Dillman (1994) state that the sample should be determined by four main factors: i) how much sampling error can be tolerated; ii) population size; iii) how varied the population

is with respect to the characteristics of interest; and iv) the smallest subgroup within the sample for which estimates are required.

Sampling methods were classified into two types: probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is: “a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected. It is generally assumed that a representative sample is more likely to be the outcome when this method of selection from the population is employed. The aim of probability sampling is to keep sampling error to a minimum” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 182). Bryman and Bell (2007) described a non-probability sample as “a sample that has not been selected using a random selection method. Essentially, this implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others” (p. 182). The current research is primarily based on a ‘convenience’ sample, namely, a non-random sampling technique. In the field of business and management, “convenience samples are very common and indeed are more prominent than are samples based on probability sampling” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 198).

The population for this research included students of higher education institutions in the United Kingdom. The main focus of this research was internal-stakeholders’ perception of architecture and its relation to corporate identity and identification in the Brunel Business School between September 2012 and October 2012. The data was collected by using different methods of collection. The researcher contacted the respondents before sending the questionnaire for any queries regarding the instrument and privacy. The survey questionnaire was handed over either by personal visits or sent by email. A total of 309 questionnaires were used through scale validation and model testing. According to Van Heerden and Puth (1995) “students as a fairly heterogeneous group, can be regarded as a very important target group of banks, albeit in state of transition and they are future managers and decision makers” (p. 13). Churchill (1999) declared that face-to-face questionnaire collection is the most used sampling methods in large-scale surveys. The face-to-face questionnaire guarantees that the questionnaire was completed by the respondent who was targeted. The main study survey questionnaire consisted of 6 pages with a covering letter stapled to the front cover following the recommendations of Dillman (2000).

According to Stevens (1996) for a rigorous statistical analysis, the data sample should be more than 300 respondents. Furthermore, Bentler and Chou (1987) state that five cases per parameter is acceptable when the data is perfectly distributed and has no missing or outlying cases. A total of 327 questionnaires were collected and 18 were excluded due to large amounts of missing data. Taking into account all considerations above, the sample size targeted in this study is 309 respondents.

### **Appropriate number of participants**

Choosing the appropriate number of participants in a sample size is a complex and tricky task. Some authors (Hair et al., 2006; Raykov and Widaman, 1995) have identified the main five considerations that affect sample size in structural equation modelling (SEM) in order to obtain reliable estimates. First, 'multivariate distribution of the data', in the case of non-normal data the ratio of respondents to parameters needs to be higher (i.e. 15:1). Second, 'estimation technique', sample size should be between 150 and 400 responses if researchers use structure equation modelling (SEM), which is based on the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method. The MLE method becomes more sensitive and the results of the goodness-of-fit measures become poorer, if the sample size exceeds 400, (Hair et al., 2006). Third, 'model complexity' provides suggestions on sample size based on a model complexity as follows: SEM with five or fewer constructs can be estimated with a small sample size 100 to 150, if each construct is measured by more than three items and the item communalities are higher than 0.6. If any of the communalities are modest (0.45 to 0.55), or the model includes a construct with fewer than three items, the required sample size is 200 (Hair et al., 2006). When the number of factors in the model is larger than six, some constructs are measured by less than three items and the communalities are low, then a large sample size that may exceed 500 is required. Fourth, 'missing data', if more than ten percent of missing data is expected, the sample size should be increased. Fifth, 'average error variance of indicator', larger sample sizes are required when the constructs communalities are smaller than 0.5.

Roscoe (1975) suggests four rules of thumb to decide an appropriate sample size (n). First, the number of participants should be larger than 30 and the less than 500. Second, when researchers have more than one group (e.g. male and female); it needs more than 30 participants for each group. Third, in the case of using multivariate analyses, the sample size should be at least 10 times or more than the number of variables used in the analysis. Bentler

and Chou (1987) recommended determining the sample size based on the number of parameters. Bentler and Chou (1987) posited that if the data is normally distributed, then at least five cases per parameter are adequate. Fourth, when researchers conduct a laboratory experiment, then the appropriate sample size should be between 10-20 participants (Roscoe, 1975). Other scholars (Comrey and Lee, 1992) assert that a sample size of 50 is very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1,000 as excellent.

There is no existing empirical study documented about the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification from multi internal stockholders' perception. Based on the above discussion, this study employs SEM; an empirical ratio of at least 5 observations per estimate parameter (Bollen, 1989) and communalities 0.5 (equals 0.7 standardised loading estimates) has also been proposed (Hair et al., 2006).

After the initial analysis, the questionnaire was refined so the respondents could complete the questions without confusion (Saunders et al., 2007; Sekaran, 2003). The final questionnaire had seven pages with a covering letter on the front cover to increase the response rate (Schaefer and Dillman, 1998) (See Appendix 5.7). The front sheet contained the general instructions for the fieldworkers and a confidentiality guarantee was also given. The questionnaire layout was tested by expert judges. The present study intends to achieve at least 309 usable questionnaires (after treating missing data) to test the paths proposed in the model with reliable estimates.

### **Assessment of factor structure and reliability**

Factor analysis (FA) was undertaken to test of the measurement items, which were employed in this study. The role of factor analysis is to understand the underlying structure. Factor analysis is useful in developing and assessing the research theory and the subsets of variables that are relatively independent from one another (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to authors (Gorsuch 1983; Rummel, 1970) the main goal of factor analysis is to reduce the information contained in a number of measuring items into a smaller set of new composite factors.

The analysis of data consists of a three-step approach in this study. In the first stage, the content and the relevance scales were refined on the basis of qualitative and quantitative data



(exploratory factor analysis). In the second stage, the scales were validated based on the quantitative data from the different population samples (confirmatory factor analysis). Lastly, the model was tested (structure equation modeling). The three-step approach is explained as follows,

i) Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to identify the number of possible factors that best represent the data (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Exploratory factor analysis was employed to inspect the factorial structure of the measurement scales in the pilot study and the main study (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). A Cronbach's coefficient  $\alpha$  was applied to check the reliability of multi-scale measurement scale (Carmines and Zeller, 1979; Cronbach, 1951; Peter, 1979; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) and quality of the instrument (internal consistency) (Churchill, 1979; Parasuraman et al., 1998; Peter, 1979).

ii) Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out to assess the measurement properties of the existing scales' validity in the main study (Churchill, 1979; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Hair et al., 2006; Peter, 1979 and 1981). According to Hair et al. (2006) CFA is useful to confirm the theory of the latent variables.

iii) Structure equation modelling (SEM) was employed to validate the conceptual framework and test the research hypotheses (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2006).

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) has been accredited by many scholars (Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) for a number of purposes: firstly, coding, editing, the treatment of missing data; secondly, assumptions of normality, linearity, multi-collinearity, and outliers; and, thirdly, mean, the standard deviation, and analysing frequencies were calculated to illustrate the central tendency and dispersions of the variables. Descriptive statistics for the entire sample were initially conducted by using SPSS 20 to provide an overview of the sample. Furthermore, the reliability test is applied to the data of the main survey to assess the validity and reliability of the instrument (Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2006; Peter, 1979; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Churchill (1979), EFA investigation is to test the scales, which are used to measure the constructs and refine the

measures. Analysis of Moment Structure (Amos) 18.0 was employed to perform the confirmatory factor analysis (SEM) and hypotheses structural model testing (Hair et al., 2006).

The next sections will discuss the rationale for the selection of the above techniques.

### **Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and coefficient alpha**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) analysis is a fundamental and useful method of factor loading into groups to extract underlying latent factors (Aaker, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Exploratory factor analysis is a data simplification technique and is functional for reducing the number of indicators to a controllable set (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Chandon et al., 1997; Hair et al., 2006). EFA ensures that “any individual factor should account for the difference of at least one single variable” (Hair et al., 2006, p. 103). EFA is a technique which has been used widely in social science research to recognise the latent factors, summarising, as well as reducing a large set of observed factors to a smaller number of variables that best represent the data (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). EFA is useful as an initial analytical technique to prepare data for SEM (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991).

In order to reduce the number of items, the principal component analysis (PCA), the most common and the default in the SPSS programme, was employed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The collected data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis by employing principle component analysis (PCA) to explain common, specific and random error variance (Hair et al., 2006). The Varimax rotation method was used to achieve the best possible interpretation of the factors. According to Hair et al. (2006) rotation means discriminating between factors exactly where it implies. The Varimax rotation method is used to analyse orthogonal factors and maximize the variance of factor loading by making high loadings higher and low ones lower for each factor (the factor loadings above 0.50 are considered significant (Hair et al., 2006). To identify the number of factors to extract, Eigenvalues were employed (Hair et al., 2006; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) and defined on the latent root criterion (eigenvalue >1.00).

In addition, Cronbach’s alpha technique was applied to measure the scale reliability (Churchill, 1979; De Vaus, 2002; Litwin, 1995; Peter, 1979). Furthermore, it is used to assess

the scale validity. According to some authors (De Vaus, 2002; Nunnally, 1978) the values equal or above 0.70 were considered to be an acceptable level of reliability.

### **Structural equation modelling (SEM)**

Structural equation modelling (SEM), also known as ‘path analysis with latent variables’ (Bagozzi, 1984), was used to validate the theoretical model and test the causal relationships between the latent constructs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000) by employing Analysis of Moment Structure (Amos) 18.0. “Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) provides the appropriate and most efficient estimation technique for a series of separate multiple regression equations estimated simultaneously” (Hair et al., 2006, p. 17). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) “Structural equation modelling is also referred to as causal modelling, causal analysis, simultaneous equation modelling, analysis of covariance structures, path analysis, or confirmatory factor analysis. The latter two are special types of SEM” (p. 676).

Structural equation modelling was used in this study for seven reasons. First, the research phenomena is multidimensional and complex and structural equation modelling is the only technique which allow simultaneous and complete some dependent relationship between observable variables and the latent indicators (i.e. by using the measurement model), and to examine the relationship between latent variables (i.e. by using the structural model) by calculating multiple regression equations greater than other statistical packages (i.e. SPSS), that test only one single relationship at a time. Second, structural equation modelling is a confirmatory rather than an exploratory technique. Third, structural equation modelling estimates unidimensionality, reliability and validity of each construct independently. Fourth, SEM calculates indirectly and directly, which increases the advantage. Fifth, SEM provides specific estimates of measurement errors, and allows hypothesis examination for inferential purposes. Sixth, allows questions to be answered that involve multiple regression analyses of factors. Last, SEM uses latent variables to account for measurement errors to provide the overall goodness-of-fit to test the measurement model.

## **Stages in structural equation modelling**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a statistical technique to bring the data and underlying theory together (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2006). Based on the previous section, the current research followed two stages to analyse the structural equation modelling data. SEM contains two interrelated models explicitly defined by the researcher, namely, a measurement model and a structural model (Hair et al., 2006). The first stage tests the measurement model known as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) underlying latent variables that the model was used, and allocates observed variables to each construct. The second stage is a structural model which is also known as regression or path analysis defines the hypothetical relationship between the latent variables (Hair et al., 2006). This study employed a measurement model for the following reasons,

i) Confirmatory factor analysis is also referred to as the evaluation of the inner-model, which is practical when one dependent construct becomes independent in a subsequent dependence relationship (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Confirmatory factor analysis examines the uni-dimensionality of a scale, which was developed by exploratory factor analysis (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991). CFA was employed to examine the uni-dimensionality of a scale, which is significant for two reasons. First, according to the literature (Clark and Watson, 1995) coefficient alpha is significant only for a uni-dimensional set of items. Second, when items are uni-dimensional, the calculation of composite scores used in a covariance structure model (Floyd and Widaman, 1995). Confirmatory factor analysis provides a test of unidimensionality that presents a better estimate of reliability than coefficient alpha (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991). According to Anderson and Gerbing (1982) CFA is to examine whether the theoretically imposed structure of the underlying constructs exists in the observed data. Furthermore, it is CFA as a technique used to evaluate the construct validity and ensure that the theoretical meaning of a construct is empirically captured by the research indicators (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991).

ii) The reliability and validity of the research construct is important for further theory testing. After EFA, confirmatory factor analysis allows the calculation of an additional estimation of a construct's reliability, namely composite reliability (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988, Hair et al., 2006).

At the second stage, a structural model is used to test the hypothesised or casual relationships between the latent construct and its indicators and assessment of the structural model to demonstrate the casual relationship between latent constructs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1982).

### **Assessment of factor structure and reliability**

The current study uses Amos software (analysis of moment structures) to assess the quality of the proposed measurement model and hypothesised structural model. The analysis was conducted with 89 observed variables loading on 3 main constructs and 6 subs constructs. Therefore, the research model was utilised by selecting a number of goodness-of-fit indices.

### **Fit indices selection**

The purpose of assessing goodness-of-fit indices is to test the fit of the hypothesised research model and evaluate the measurement model and its specification (Hair et al., 2006). It is essential to select appropriate goodness-of-fit criteria in SEM because the empirical evaluation of the specific model being examined is an important facet in the process of theory development (Gerbing and Anderson, 1993). The current research focused on three types of goodness-of-fit including: absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices and parsimony fit indices. The goodness-of-fit indices are used to examine the nomological validity of the measurement models. The selected fit indices are explained below.

Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) is the most significant indices of absolute fit. Chi-square is related to “the fit between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated population covariance matrix” (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 715). Chi-square statistic is a goodness-of-fit (or badness-of-fit) to measure instead of regarding it as a test statistic (Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw, 2000). Chi-square statistics is “a test of perfect fit in which the null hypothesis is that the model fits the population data perfectly” (Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw, 2000, p. 83) and is highly sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) particularly if the observations are greater than 200. Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) is the first measure of fit included in the Amos output. The statistically significant result specifies that the null hypothesis rejected, representing poor model fit and possible rejection of the model (Byrne, 2001).

The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is the most important indices of absolute fit. The goodness-of-fit index is “adjusted by the ratio of degrees of freedom for the proposed model to the

degrees of freedom for the null model” (Hair et al., 2006, p. 657). The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was introduced by Joreskog and Sorbom (1982) as an early attempt to create a fit statistic, which is less sensitive to sample size. The GFI is considered as an absolute index of fit because it compares the hypothesised model with no model at all. Values ranging from 0 to 1 with values equal to or greater than 0.9 are considered to be a good fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). A model with a GFI less than 0.8 should be rejected (Tanaka and Huba, 1985).

The Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) is an extended version of GFI that is adjusted by the ratio of degrees of freedom for the proposed model to the degrees of freedom for the null model (Hair et al., 1998, p. 657). AGFI values ranged from 0 to 1 with values equal to or greater than 0.9 considered as good fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Values ranging from 0.80 to 0.89 are indicative of a reasonable fit (Doll et al., 1994).

Root-mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) presents how well a model fits a population (Hair et al., 2006, p. 748). RMSEA expresses fit per degree of freedom and it is sensitive to the number of parameters (MacCallum et al., 1996). RMSEA represents closeness of fit and measures the extent to which the model approximates to the data (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Root-mean square error of approximation takes into account the error of approximation in the population and asks the question: how well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available? (Byrne, 2001 p. 84). A value of less than 0.05 indicates good fit. Values from 0.05 to 0.08 are acceptable, and with values more than 0.08 considered as poor and unacceptable fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Lower values indicate a better fit (Hair et al., 2006, p. 748).

Incremental fit indices calculate “how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model” (Hair et al., 2006, p. 749). The current study used several incremental fit indices.

The normed fit index (NFI) is one of the most common incremental fit measures. The normed fit index (NFI) or Bentler-Bonett index compares nested models (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) with the suggested model without considering the degree of freedom (Hair et al., 2006).

According to Hair et al. (2006) NFI measures the proportion by which a model is improved in terms of fit compared with the base model. NFI compares the  $\chi^2$  value of the model to the  $\chi^2$  value of the independence model (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). NFI can be valued in a range between 0 and 1.00. The values equal to or greater than 0.9 are considered as a reasonable fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). An improved version of NFI is the CFI (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

The comparative fit index (CFI) is another relative fit index and is directly based on the non-centrality measure. CFI involves a mathematical comparison of a specified theoretical measurement model and a baseline null model (Hair et al., 2006). The comparative fit index values between 0 and 1 indicate a very good fit (Bentler, 1990). The values equal to or greater than 0.9 are considered as a good fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Goodness-of-fit criteria are used in this research has summarised in Table 5.13.

**Table 5.13: Goodness-of-fit criteria used in this research**

Fit indices	Abbreviation	Type	Acceptance level in this study
Coefficient alpha	$\alpha$		$\alpha > 0.7$ adequate and $> 0.5$ is acceptable
Standardised Regression Weight	$\beta$	Uni-dimensionality	Beta $> 0.15$
Chi-square (with associated degrees of freedom and probability of significant different)	$\chi^2$ (df, p)	Model fit	$p > 0.05$ (at $\alpha$ equals to 0.05 level)
Normed chi-square	$\chi^2/df$	Absolute fit and model parsimony	$1.0 < \chi^2/df < 3.0$
Normalised fit index	NFI	Incremental fit	Values above 0.08 and close 0.90 indicate acceptable fit
Non-normalised fit index	NNFI	Compare your model to baseline	
Comparative fit index	CFI	independence model	
Goodness-of-fit index	GFI		$> 0.90$
Adjusted goodness-of-fit	AGFI	Absolute fit	$> 0.90$
Root mean square error of approximation	RMSEA		$< 0.08$

Source: Developed from Hair et al. (2006)

Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI), also known as the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), compares the  $\chi^2$  value of the model with that of the independence model and takes degrees of freedom from both models into consideration (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

TLI relates to the average size of the correlations in the data. The Tucker-Lewis index ranged from 0 to 1, with values equal to or greater than 0.9 considered as a good fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) and a value of 0.8 is considered acceptable (Gerbing and Anderson, 1993).

### **Uni-dimensionality**

The uni-dimensionality of a construct is the first step, which should be achieved initially before any attempt at further theory testing (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991). The uni-dimensionality of a construct illustrates that the multiple indicators of a construct are internally consistent and externally distinct from other measures. Cronbach (1984) states that “items is ‘unidimensional’ if their order of difficulty is the same for everyone in a population of interest” (p. 116). According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) uni-dimensionality with structural equation analysis, is used in order to separate measurement issues (i.e. the relationship between a construct and its observed variables or indicators) from model structural issues (i.e. the relationship or paths between constructs). CFA examines the uni-dimensionality of a scale initially developed by exploratory factor analysis (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991).

### **Composite reliability assessment**

Confirmatory factor analysis allows the calculation of a ‘composite reliability’, also called ‘construct reliability’ (Hair et al., 2006). Composite reliability is a principal measure used in assessing the overall reliability of the measurement model, for every latent construct in the model. Composite reliability is a measure of reliability and internal consistency of the measured variables represents a latent construct (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988, Hair et al., 2006). Composite reliability measures how well constructs were measured by its assigned items (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). According to authors (Hair et al, 2006, Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) composite reliability should be 0.7, which indicates that the measures all consistently represent the same latent construct.

### **Average Variance Extracted (AVE) assessment**

Average variance extracted (AVE) is a measure of “the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error” (Fornell and



Larker, 1981, p. 45). AVE is “a summary of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained among the items” (Hair et al., 2006, p. 773). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) the average variance extracted symbolises a stronger indicator of the construct reliability compare to the composite reliability. The average variance extracted (AVE) should be equal to or exceeds 0.50 to justify using a construct and ensure the validity of the scale under investigation (Hair et al., 2006). “If it is less than 0.50, the variance due to measurement error is larger than the variance captured by the construct, and the validity of the construct is questionable” (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, p. 46). Construct validity can be examined through convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity (Peter, 1981).

Nomological validity, also known as nomological validity (i.e. hypothetical relations), is an essential step to examine to achieve construct validity (Bagozzi, 1980; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Nunnally, 1978; Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991). Nomological validity is employed to examine the hypothesised relationships between different constructs and the empirical associations between indicators and their underlying dimensions (Peter, 1981; Peter and Churchill, 1986). The utilisation of the goodness of fit indices is useful for assessing the nomological validity of the measurement models (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991).

Convergent validity (CV) refers to the homogeneity of the constructs and is the extent to which independent measures of the same construct converge or are highly correlated (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Furthermore, convergent validity connected to the internal consistent validity between construct items (i.e. high or low correlations) (Fornell and Larckers, 1981). According to some authors (Anderson and Gerbings, 1988; Babin et al., 2000; Fornell and Larcker, 1981) convergent validity assesses by the same measurement scale reliability, composite reliability (coefficients of each measurement scale), average variance extracted and Cronbach alpha. Convergent validity assesses the t-values and level of significance of the factors (Chau, 1997). Nunnally (1978) states that a 0.7 or higher reliability implies convergent validity.

Discriminant validity (DV) assesses the degree to which a construct is truly distinct from another construct (Hair et al., 2006) and assesses construct validity in confirmatory factor analysis (Bagozzi, 1994). Discriminant validity can be measured by the average variance

extracted (AVE) for each construct and compared with the square correlation between them (Fornell and Larcker, 1981 and Hair et al., 2006). Authors (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi et al., 1991) state that the presence of discriminant validity is indicated, when the relationship between two constructs is significantly lower than 1.00.

## **5.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

In business and social science research, academics need to consider the ethical issues behind the research activity. By following Sekaran's (2000) recommendation, the researcher protects human rights by considering ethical considerations for six reasons: first, to guarantee respondents that their information is kept strictly confidential; second, to promise respondents that their personal information will not be solicited; third, to promise respondents that their information will not be distorted and misrepresented in the research; fourth, the researcher clearly defines the aim of the study with no misrepresentation of the objectives; fifth, the researcher never violates the self-esteem and self-respect of the respondents; finally, the researcher gets consent prior to collecting the data and should not force respondents to become part of the survey (Sekaran, 2000, pp. 260-261). In addition to Sekaran's (2000) recommendations, the current study followed the Brunel Business School ethics form. The researcher created a consent form, which informs the participants that their participation in the research is voluntary and they can withdraw at any for any reason, as well that they free to decline to answer any question. All interviews were recorded unless the participant disagreed. Based on the above, Brunel Business School granted its approval to conduct this study.

## **5.6. SUMMARY**

The objective of this chapter was to describe and discuss the methodology and methods used to test the operational model and hypotheses presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV provided the rationale behind positivism research paradigm. In addition, this chapter discusses the research design at each stage of the study including details of how the survey-based case study research was implemented. This chapter has reported the main issues connected with data collection in the main study. The unit of analysis, the development and administration of the survey, instrument, and sampling were explained in this chapter. Qualitative research was used in the first stage of the research, since little is known about the perceptions of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and multiple-internal stakeholders' identification in the service sector – middle-ranked London-based Business School. To

answer explanatory research questions, a case study was employed.

In order to develop a measurement scale for the constructs in the model, the procedures for developing measurement suggested by Churchill (1979) were mainly employed. The research design incorporated information from the qualitative research in the first stage of the research through the use of in-depth interviews and focus groups. A pilot study was conducted. The data from the pilot study were subject to a reliability test and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in order to purify the measurement items. Then, questionnaires containing the purified items were prepared for the main survey.

In the next chapter, the findings from the qualitative and quantitative data of the current research are presented and discussed in detail.

## **CHAPTER VI: INITIAL QUALITATIVE INSIGHTS AND THE MAIN (QUANTITATIVE) FINDINGS**

### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology and methods, which are employed in this research, which leads to a survey based, single case study. In the preliminary stage of the study, a qualitative research was an appropriate research to: (i) attain a more profound understanding of the topic, (ii) refine and revise the preliminary research model and hypotheses, (iii) and purify measures for the questionnaire, since little is known about the perceptions of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and multiple-internal stakeholders' identification in the service sector – in this case, a middle-ranked London-based Business School. In the second stage of this study, the quantitative method (i.e. a positivist paradigm) was employed to examine the proposed hypotheses and their causal relationships and the scale validation.

This chapter has two Sections: (i) results of preliminary qualitative study (Section 6.1) and (ii) results of quantitative study (Section 6.2). Section 6.1 describes the main results of the qualitative research and provides an explanation of the results of focus groups and interviews (enhances the credibility of the data). The focus groups and interviews are based on a programme of fifteen interviews with the School Manager, Operations Administrator, Operations and Finance Manager, Research Student Administration, Senior Lecturer, and a Lecturer and the observation of three focus groups (containing seventeen participants) with Staff and Doctoral Researchers at Brunel Business School (BBS). Based on the literature, research on corporate identity concept calls for an interpretive approach, nevertheless it is not always the case, and interpretive research is more about qualitative data and case studies (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Ashforth and Mael, 1989 and 1996; Gioia et al., 2000; Mead, 1934; Tajfel and Turner, 1985; Whetten and Godfrey, 1998; etc.). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000) “qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the

meanings people bring to them (p. 3). Also, the qualitative study aims to gather more in-depth information to advance the understanding of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification.

After, describing the findings from the qualitative phase of the research the findings supporting the conceptual framework and the qualitative insights which are supplementary in Section 6.2. The main findings from the quantitative phase (supporting the conceptual framework of the study) illustrate in Section 6.3 and Section 6.3.1. The steps of preparing, editing, coding and screening the data delineates in Section 6.3.2. Section 6.3.3 explains the Treatment of missing data analysis. Based on the reliable survey instrument, Section (6.3.4) presents the screening of the data with essential statistical techniques and their output, such as normality, linearity, multi-collinearity and outliers of the collected data. Section 6.2.5 explains non-responses biasness. Section 5.2.6 explains the resulting solutions, which were re-assessed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This Section outlines the introduction of the structural equation modelling (SEM) techniques which was used to assess the hypothesised associations between the research constructs as postulated in the conceptual framework and followed to examine the overall goodness-of-fit among the proposed conceptual model and the collected dataset. Finally, conclusions are drawn in the last section (Section 6.4).

## **6.2. RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY**

An important aspect of conducting the current qualitative study is that the researcher does begin with a theory in mind to test the data in relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification enactment, and verification in the workplace and raises questions yet to be answered by current research.

These points follow from these results: i) corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification which are mutually influential. The association between these concepts are reciprocal. Corporate identity can drive, guide, facilitate, prevent, and constrain identification while architecture can support, shape, dilute, and blur identification. ii) The relationship between identity and architecture is more complicated than mutual influence. For example, architecture and corporate identity are linked and are significant factors affecting internal-stakeholders' perceptions of identification and corporate image (Nguyen, 2006). The changes

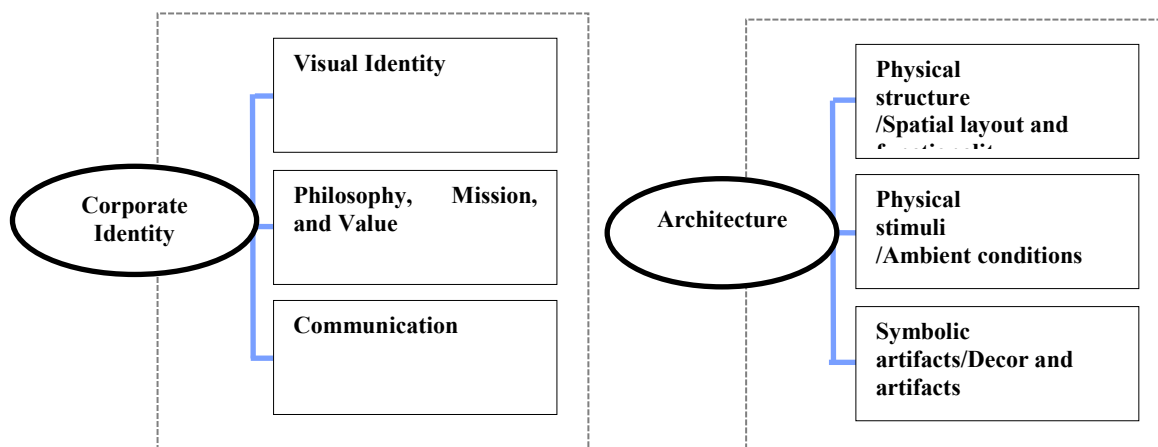
in the social, physical, and psychological work environment affect identification, self-verification, and identity enactment (Thatcher and Xhu, 2006, p. 1082) and this interplay between the concepts becomes more salient and significant. iii) Identity, architecture, identification are symbiotic, and related to each other. Identification can be inferred from and enacted by identity and architecture. Moreover, the symbiosis of corporate identity, architecture, and identification can be suggested by managerial cognitive reconciliation of perceived corporate identity, architecture, and identification dissonance.

The content analysis of this research has identified that corporate identity, architecture, and identification are interdependent in that they are mutually influential, mutually reliant, and temporally dynamic, which this study labels as corporate identity/architecture/ identification interplay patterns (CIAI).

### 6.2.1. A priori dimensions supported

There are numerous dimensions of corporate identity, architecture, and identification that characterise the perception of multi-internal stakeholders of an organisation. Though the scope of this inquiry is limited to only those dimensions are mentioned in related literature and confirmed by the participants in interviews and focus groups. An analysis of the findings from the qualitative study support the previous dimensions generated from previous study findings which are discussed in the following section. Figure 6.1 illustrates the three dimensions (themes) of corporate identity and three dimensions of architecture in the current study. The diagram presents the open coding process that contributes to the development of the corporate identity/architecture/identification interplay patterns (CIAI) theme.

**Figure 6.1: The three dimensions (themes) of corporate identity and architecture in the current study**



### 6.2.2. Corporate identity

Corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Barnett et al., 2006; Gray and Balmer, 1998; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; He and Mukherjee, 2009; Fombrun and Van Riel, 2004; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and serves as a vehicle for expression of the company's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), values, beliefs, and mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005), communications (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995). The richness and complexity of corporate identity is reflected by the existence of multiple types of identity within an organisation. A model which has been developed by Balmer and Soenen (1999) is a sophisticated model of corporate identity management was modified and improved by Balmer (2001) and Balmer and Gray (2003). The five identities have been termed in this model as: actual identity, communicated identity, conceived identity, ideal identity, and desired identity are supported by the focus groups and interviews in the research at Brunel Business School (BBS).

An academic defines corporate identity as “the family of things that are unique. The name, the logo, the slogan, many things that really differentiate the company from other company ... It kind of organisational culture. Each organisation has their own strategy, view and vision and it impacts their behaviour. I'm not sure about corporate identity but for me it's the same”. The following comments illustrate participants' assessment of this source of finding,

*“I think possibly the first association that springs to my mind is brand, which is very similar I think to corporate identity. If you take the brand of the business is about what the members of that entity think about the brand, what it means to them. Internal to me about corporate identity is the way something feels about itself. But I realise there is external perceptions of the brand as well. The first thing that came into my mind was about internal perception of the brand ...”*  
(School Manager).

*“... I think it is related to the company's' goals and missions, ... is aspirational, how you want your company to be perceived by internal and external, it must be perceived clearly and accurately in order to achieve the organisation's goals,*

*mission and objectives. Corporate identity should communicate a company's unique attributes and values very very clearly to stakeholders. Every organisations, regardless of size, already has a corporate identity, planned or unplanned which should manages its identity in a purposeful manner” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

The above quotation is consistent with corporate branding corporate identity, and organisational behaviour authors (Abratt, 1989; Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 1998, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; Olins, 1990; Van Riel, 1995, etc.). They emphasise that corporate identity is ‘the sum of all the factors that define and project what an organisation is’ (Downey, 1986, p. 7) and management is responsible for fostering a culture of adaptability and flexibility. Management should be quick to respond when changes need to be made, quick to spot the need to do things differently, very flexible, quickly change procedures to meet new conditions and solve problems as they arise (McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Patterson et al., 2005). Furthermore, actual identity is rooted in corporate ownership, the leadership style of management, organisational structure, business activities and markets, the quality of products and services, and business performance (Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2003). An employee states that he is inclined to adopt the most meaningful vision and identity that are aligned with his belief structures. “It might actually be the one of the Brunel University’s school. For some reason, it just appears to have a strong defined goal and you know, you can see some sort of value in what BBS doing, like something that’s valuable being achieved”.

Management should convey the same message to the internal and external audience. Moreover, a consultant participant stated that “management of corporate identity is very significant for any organisation; it helps to promote an image, change the reputation and also in the process of communication to people and employees. It can help organisations to motivate us an employee and also motivate students as our main stakeholders. Our organisation has its own brand, BBS which contains new building, Brunel logo and other branding items to reflect our identity. All can created to keeping the target audience in mind. Our School tried to express the personality through a clear identity. The revised identity includes building, culture, values and mission of BBS. However, still I believe needs more time to transmit the revised identity”. Furthermore, a Lecturer states,

*“I believe, the reason of improving the ranking the university is related to the management of corporate identity of BBS which is used as a tool to*



*systematically and consistently communicate a company's unique attributes and values. As the evidence recently shows, management tried to ensure that all corporate communications reflect and reinforce the company's attributes and values in a consistent and positive manner through internal and external consumers" (Senior Lecturer).*

The findings are consistent with research by Balmer and Grayser (2002). They confirm that corporate identity is a hot topic for company management and those who advise them as well as for academics studying/working in the field. Management must make a judgment as to which groups' perceptions are most important. They recommend that managers should be sensitive to these variations, but should be cognisant of the single identity type of which they all are a part (Balmer and Grayser, 2002). The participants state that management "should aware that corporate identity manifested through histories, look at Brunel, it back around 18<sup>th</sup> century. Our old logo is the key element of our corporate identity. Over the years, it has become a symbol for our reliable services"... it's the image of corporation, organisation that differentiates it from the other company, in terms of its image and reputation". The following quotes reflect this idea:

*"I think from where I am sitting my ambition of the school is to embody its mission, its strategic vision. I have quite an idealistic perception and I think, we quite successful to explaining to staff what mission of the school is but only to some extent. Academics are highly independent and only have limited aliments purely to the school because they have many aliens and networks outside the school. My ambition will be too completely get them aligned and on-board with the mission and the vision, but I realised we are not entirely successful. And I associate that with the identity" ... I think the main purpose of BBS is related to its mission statement and it's aligned with university mission statement, and we have a substantial strategic plan to try to implement that"... "Regarding to corporate style and ethos, in order for it to be attractive for academics we have to emphasise on collegiality and we have to emphasis on support for their ambitions and there activity. It's how we reward either explicitly through paying conditions or implicitly by recognition. So I like for the school to establish the culture with that level of collegiatly and respect what people do" (School Manager).*

Corporate visual and verbal elements are used to contribute to the corporate identity, corporate image, and corporate reputation; they may even reaffirm trust in the organisation (Dowling, 1993). Corporate visual identity is the foremost element of corporate identity that a company employs to project its prestige, quality, and style to stakeholders (Melewar and Saunders, 1999). Furthermore, corporate visual identity is a vehicle to form an organisation with a modern touch and the organisation employs graphic language to specify its modernity

(Henderson and Cote, 1998; Martinez, 2006). Some authors believe that corporate visual identity should be up-to-date and modern (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Olins, 1978, 1989; Van den Bosch et al., 2005). Some authors state that when the company changes its strategy, it needs to change or update the organisation's visual identity (Brun, 2002; Olins, 1978; Van Riel and Van Hasselt, 2002). Corporate visual identity uses tangible clues to differentiate its services (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1989) and is essential for the well-being and communications mix (Melewar, 2001) to make an expression of the organisation (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) in serving to remind the corporation's real purpose (Abratt, 1989). Some authors (Abratt, 1989; Melewar, 2003; Melewar and Saunders, 1998 and 1999) define corporate visual identity as an assembly of visual cues by which people can recognise the company and distinguish it from others. These explanations emerged from the in-depth interviews during the exploratory stage, when the respondents commented on the BBS visual identity:

*“... wish the corporate visual identity guideline was provided to all employees as well as students. It really influence that we are part of a family, we are belong here, then all of us could have a signature of BBS. I think it has a big big impacts on outsiders and could attract more students. If they feel we are proud of where we studying, it motivates them to join” (Lecturer).*

The results are consistent with the authors Balmer (2001) and Balmer and Gray (2003). Corporate identity used in an organisation as a trustworthy and reliable indicator to reinforce the market leadership and brand strengths of the organisation (Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Kirby and Kent, 2010). For instance the statement, “I think the relationship between BBS architecture and corporate identity is the fact that anything bearing the building automatically inspires feelings of reliability and trustworthiness to me and my colleagues”, illustrates this point. A focus group participant stated that “there are many opportunities to learn and there is a lot of information in the website but just promising not organising. For this reason, I had to attend some relevant to my PhD workshops at Oxford University. I believe Brunel just promising to us as students and not delivering their promising which affect our perceptions. For example, they more should be given the students academically, more academic support, rather than only building. I can see they are struggling to raise their standard”.

Conceived identity covers corporate image, corporate reputation, and corporate branding, which are the perceptions of various stakeholder groups (what BBS is seen to be). In the

respondents' opinion, what BBS is seen to be is shown by what a lecturer states, "I witness a progress I could see it improving the students, the quality of research, for three years it's a nice and tough but nice atmosphere and easy going ... They form their idea on what school and we communicate to them. I think its PR, I think they communicate quite well but I'm not sure people invested lots of time to think about the school. But I think people would have another way of thinking if the school would really stressed on some unique points ,like we moved to new building and very accessible to airport, variety of people with different culture and unique MBA programme. It should communicate in the right way to be in the people head. It's not really the classical things. But in general I never met anyone who came here and they had a negative opinion, always positive opinion form people. Well, its education institution part of the larger institution were they are teaching group of related (more or less) topics at different levels Masters, Undergraduates , PhD ... The main activity is about education and teaching but they are also very active in terms of research and projects. So I would say it's quite active institution mainly working in education, research and also collaborating with industrial projects". It can be explained more by the next comments,

*"The bottom line is I wouldn't work here if I didn't want to. I'm happy to go to my job. I have a positive view of the school. People are doing the best to work for the Business School. That is one side, on the other side, in order for us to achieve everything we want, there are a lot of constrains in fulfil our mission, mostly external constraint-financial constraints, because of volatility of the sector at the moment. There are limits because of our positioning on the calibre of people that we can attract, so we found it difficult to attract high rate 4 start researches but we have quite a solid research, so in general it is a quite good place to work" (School Manager).*

Regarding what respondents think other people think about the school, the majority believe that they are part of Brunel and they receive favourable comments from the University. For instance, some of the respondents note the sense of favourability of corporate image to corporate identity,

*"I would hope that majority of people are relatively positive about it. If they won't it would be because of constraints of expenditure and I guess it has a lot of fall out in terms of people have to work hard in many cases and not seeing an immediate future and support which they feel they need. This are thought times people working very hard for the same rewards as a last year. If we are wanted to improve we will have to increase our profitability as university" (School Manager).*

*“I think Brunel Business School are working very hard and they are better than before. However there are middle and a bit above middle but didn’t reach a level of top universities yet ... There are 2 types of friends that going to high-ranking universities, they don’t think very high about Brunel Business School. But my other friends that are study in lower ranking universities, they said Brunel is very good university. It’s not easy to get to Cambridge ... Value for money-education-it’s not bad but it’s not very great either ... I associated with Brunel quit long and I can relate myself to Brunel ... I get good response, people like it. Most of people think that it is in the middle of London ... I think they like it. We have such a big campus and so many students. When I talking to people, they know someone who doing degree here or done degree here. So I think it’s quite popular” (Focus Group 2).*

Communicated identity includes controlled and non-controlled communications, called by Balmer and Gray (2000) total corporate communications (primary, secondary, and tertiary communications). To understand what BBS tries to communicate to people, a lecturer said, “as a school it has to prove its identity on different levels, to its customers which are the students and the parents of students and the corporations for employees to sign contracts etc. and how good it is to advertise to public and it’s important to have a certain rankings. The budge for libraries and everything goes for ranking, but it mainly don’t affect the customers, it affect the other peers for investment or sharing resources but not to customers ... But there is the point research wise, when we introducing to each other we need to give a background about the BBS and the university and the facilities this is the other type of identity”. In addition, manager confirmed that BBS is “trying to communicate to people that the student here achieve a lot at the end, and what you paying for it and the degree it’s all worth. At the end you leave Brunel should have a good job and brunet is there for you. They work towards improving image. It’s good ... It’s about what its mission and the vision is. You might have the opinions differ from it because they not aware of the mission or the vision of the school and rather focus narrowly in their particular role” (*School Manager*).

*“How I see it there is a lot of promises and I just get used to frustrated, always constantly we end up with the second best. Even when we moved in to this building, the space given to PhD students at least there was a dedicate space, every desk had a machine. There were a lot of unfulfilled promises. I don’t meet the staff here, they don’t like their offices, and their noisy and etc. civil staffs were straying to take university court because of heating when we first move in here. A lot of happy people and they voted by not coming in. MBA is quite*

*happy, they got not much associated space. Our culture didn't become very interactive and you can argue for all sorts of reasons how much it was due to the building. When we were in a tin building we used to get frustrated by the lack of staff interaction. This building to me is not a friendly building, it never served its key point the staff and the students interactions, in fact undergraduate students we lost contact with them, we lost them a long time ago, but it is not a building thing. As a PhD student I never meet the PhD student. They weren't strongly interactive with staff; we never found the way to get people regularly meet".*

Participants commented on advertising and public relations as communication tools,

*"We do have a lot of advertising but not traditional print media. It's a static media like websites and we also use social media-twitter, LinkedIn and etc. with a consistent set of images ... I distinguish between advertising, communication and public relation. When it comes to what classically relates to public relations then the university retains the PR Company as a needed basis and it has a contract with PR Company. Their job is to promote us as a classic role. The looking in promotes us to the magazines, radio, and media" (Operations Administrator).*

*"I think BBS doing quite good in PR and they have dedicated people to do that and they doing quite well" (Lecturer).*

*"I think within the school you can see some ads but nothing special, it's keeping up. Like other schools I assume ... They are doing some PR on Facebook, I add them as a group but I don't use it" (Operations Administrator).*

### **6.2.3. Architecture**

Architecture is a visual presentation of a company (Jun and Lee, 2007) encapsulating company's purpose, identity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006), and culture (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005) which influence stakeholders' attitude, and behaviour (Alessandri, 2001; Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Rooney, 2010). It can be decisive in facilitating employee' and stakeholders' identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010). Previous studies have highlighted the importance of

architecture in sustaining a competitive advantage in today's global market (Kirby and Kent, 2010), as discussed in Chapter Two.

Several studies have developed the three main components of architecture which are i) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, ii) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and iii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999). The focus group interviewees made some comments on their feelings, experience, and the atmosphere of the current building of the school: "I think the building is very good, very nice, very convenient and better compared to the other Business Schools and the previous building".

Another interviewee added, "I think BBS is the best building in the university. It's a good place, the location is perfect. Everything is ok, except sharing desk. Only our BBs share desk". Furthermore, another interviewee said, "... BBS is very comfortable place I think high technology, and secure. Well organised".

I really like this building, it has influenced on the students and lecturers behaviour and attitude, for example, they used to come with slippers to their office but since we moved to this building, everyone are dressed up, perfumed, and chic, also girls wearing makeup, I feel I belong to this building than the old one". "I prefer this building much more than the previous old ugly one. I would like to see a bit of light in this building. This building is for PhDs and postgraduates. Inside it should be more lively and more space to socialise". "First of all in terms of location, I would say it's acceptable. It's not near library or other university facilities. But in terms of parking I don't drive. The important thing I notice there is so much noise in this area. Many cars make a noise for the students here are this building". A PhD researcher states "... BBS is a part of Brunel University which is more research base university than teaching. They focused on developing students to develop our skills in general, many workshops and courses, but in BBS there is no large room with many computers for the workshops, I think it is a beautiful building but not practical as such". Employees' comments stated,

*"I see BBS architecture as a product' which change the shape of uni, in general I do like the building. It has 1 floor which is quite important to recognise, it wasn't design to provide academic as all of the academics or office space.*

*There was a design parameter that wasn't particularly useful. If you have open plan space you have to put security measures, which put a distance between typical students and undergraduate or postgraduate students and the offices of the space where the staff is sitting" (School Manager).*

*"... from outside it's quite nice. Personally they covered some mistakes from other building such as not too much glass now and not everyone can see what's going on inside. Located on the main entrance to the university is means a lot. So every visitor will notice this building is the Business School. Architecturally it's nice from outside. But from inside out could be better" (Lecturer).*

### **Physical structure/Spatial layout and functionality**

Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality can serve as an integral part of supporting the architecture, even though it may not act as a primary factor. It has the most effect not only on the satisfaction of individual workers but on the performance of teams (Vischer, 2007). Comments about the physical structure/spatial layout and functionality of the school were seen as a main factor of the architecture. Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality is the architectural design and physical placement of furnishings in a building, the arrangement of objects (e.g. arrangement of buildings, machinery, furniture and equipment), the spatial relationships between them, physical location and physical layout of the workplace which are particularly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) and can be used to symbolise something (Saleh, 1998). The physical structure of organisations provides messages about a firm's capabilities and qualities to outsiders and employees alike (Bitner, 1992) and has been found to affect employee attitudes as well (Parish et al., 2008). Participants made numerous comments on the effective use of the right spatial layout and functional design and its influences on co-stakeholders' perceptions and behaviour in the marketplace (Davis, 1984).

The focus group members (PhD researcher) discussed more practical issues, to which employees pay less attention. For example, one focus group member commented that: "I think they tried to use all the spaces, but I believe there are lots of waste spaces. I wish before design the place, they collect questionnaire or interview with the employees and students to find out their requirements. I do have enough space for my books and papers but as you aware PhD is not teamwork, is individual work... importantly, I don't have privacy and this place sometimes is very noisy". As mentioned by another interviewee, "...I think it has excellent location its near to London, it's near to the underground. It's in a very good area which is safe

area. Price is excellent. A respondent in follow-up interview states,

*“I think it’s used very good and modern construction method. The atmosphere of the school is quite good. The tuning of the school in case of lighting, heating plumbing and arrangements is still going on, but I can see that they properly done, it not yet reforming fully” (School Manager).*

*“Ambient is bad, the colour scheme is bad. The interior structure is bad. When you enter university it has to have a big entrance. The entrance is not inviting ... Noise is fine, privacy is fine. Its taking care of you but it lacks the ambient” (Focus Group 2).*

### **Ambient conditions/physical stimuli**

The ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment in service settings encourage stakeholders to pursue service consumption (Han and Ryu, 2009) and they subsequently have an effect on employees’ behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, performance (Brennan et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008) and attitude toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006). The modern office design or re-design efforts should be resisted given the increase in distractions and violations of personal space inherent in the changes in physical stimuli that accompany such designs (McElroy and Morrow, 2010). Similarly, in the current study, a manager and a lecturer comment on some aspects of the ambient conditions/physical stimuli, for example,

*“I’m working in the open are for researches, light is fine when there is light outside. The temperature there is another issue, doors open automatically... It’s nice to feel that we are in a sapience place but there could be better use of space. It’s a professional working place” (Lecturer).*

*“I think except where we need to establish particular cultures in the open plan area, around quietness. I think the architecture work well the sound isolation between offices is good, but not perfect, mostly of the actual office areas are light and airy. We need to leave thought summer cycle. Aesthetics are quite nice. Ventilation has a few problems. There are very nice teaching rooms” (School Manager).*

The lighting, noises, temperature and privacy were very influential factor that affected people’s judgment about ambient conditions/physical stimuli. For instance, “Lights is ok in the morning, but at tonight t doesn’t work. I have to move every 7-10 minutes. The noise the office is quite noise because people are talking all the time”. In addition, another added that



“... fine noise form outside, but inside its noise and no privacy at all”. Also, the following interviewee highlighted,

*“... As I mentioned the most important thing you need to be in a quite area. I found it very difficult to have a quiet, quite place here in the student area. This is one of the most important things that it makes me dissatisfied about the building” (Focus Group 2).*

*“Noise its fine, it’s not noise, it’s good. (It’s very private here; it’s too private-meaning security and safety). But it’s not private, this is very bad point, they should give each student a desk. I am paying 2000 pound per month and I deserve the desk. I am paying money I expected to have my own desk. This is so bad” (Focus Group 2).*

### **Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts**

Authors (Davis, 1984; Elsbach, 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010) emphasised the value of the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts expressed through the architecture, which is also espoused by interview participants. Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting (McElroy and Morrow, 2010), can be related to the aesthetics and attractiveness of the physical environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010), develop a complex representation of workplace Identity (Elsbach, 2004, p. 99) and are mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009) since they create a positive image in the marketplace. As mentioned by interviewees,

*“BBS has an iconic identity another symbolic feature of BBS as an icon is its characteristic to communicate, it means of identification, with no longer bound by the specificities of culture, tradition or location. BBS constitutes a complex manifold of experience, lifestyle and effect” ... it has rebranded Uxbridge” (Research Student Administration).*

*“It’s good because I think it is quite modern and fits ambience of the building. White painted doors with open doors. At the same time it reflects be environmental friendly, building is match to the furniture-both modern. I like my chair and my table” (Lecturer).*

*“I don’t mind the prevailing background, but we need to make sure that we populate the building with the colour and the variety. The standard desking would be particularly my choice but it’s ok. The chairs are very good indeed, especially teaching rooms. The artwork is chipping at the moment and we still busy doing things like communication screenings. `We adding a lot to back*

*ground ... I like carpet, I'm perfectly happy with base colours" (School Manager).*

*"Chair is fine. Again the desk is fine in my opinion it should be bigger, before it was bigger" (Focus Group 2).*

*"It looks like an office, like in a call centre, it doesn't feel open, and it feels like you going to work, in some call centre. It should be more academically stimulated. Some inspiration.it lacks inspiration big time. Something on the wall the painting" (Focus Group 1).*

*"Chairs are not comfortable at all, table is fine. I am next to window and lighting for me is fine but not the other people. Windows have technical problem" (Focus Group 3).*

#### **6.2.4. Identification**

Identification is the degree to which a stakeholder defines him or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney et al., 2010). Twigger-Ross and Uzzell (1996) recognised the two ways in which place has been related to identity. The first is 'place identifications' which refers to a person's expressed identification with a place. For instance, sex, race, occupation, sports or a person from London may refer to themselves as a Londoner and place can be considered to be a social category (the same rules as a social identification within social identity). As with this thesis, the article by Marin and de Maya (2013) deals with issues of identification (social identity theory). The second way in which place has been related to identity is through the term place identity, which describes the person's socialisation with the physical world.

*"... overall I can say I am satisfy studying here, we faced lots of difficulties such as moving three time from office to office, sharing a table with very unorganised person, but since week ago which I changed my table, I feel happy and motivated to finish my thesis soon... also I introduce BBS to friend of mine who started his research couple days ago" (Focus Group 2).*

*"I am feeling of commitment to BBS as I wanted to study here... now, I am happy to spend the rest of my working life here ... and I have strong commitment here... here is my second home" (Lecturer).*

*"As a student I had my own table but since we moved here, I was given a hot-desk which means the desk is available to whom when arrive at office early, I don't have my own table, I have to share with a colleague, it means I can't come to the office every day, otherwise I have to use other table, so annoying, I*

*am not comfortable here when I have to move ...However, with all lack of comfort, when someone ask me where do you study, with a proud, rely, from Brunel Business School. Most of people say wow, special who studying in lower ranking university” (Focus Group 1).*

### **6.3. RESULTS OF THE MAIN (QUANTITATIVE) FINDINGS**

The previous chapter identified and justified an appropriate research methodology used in the current study. In the interest of the assessment and testing the proposed research conceptual model, chapter details the process of data collection and the results. In order to achieve the research objectives, this Section is divided into six main sections that provide details of the research methodology and a significant portion of which is dedicated to methods used in the research. After, introductory Section (6.3.1) presents the steps of preparing, editing, coding and screening the data in Section 6.3.2. Based on the reliable survey instrument, Section (6.3.3) presents the screening of the data with essential statistical techniques and their output, such as normality, linearity, multi-collinearity and outliers of the collected data. Section 6.4 explains non-responses biasness. Section 5.3.5 explains the resulting solutions which were re-assessed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Section 6.3.6 delineates the introduction of the structural equation modelling (SEM) techniques which were used to assess the hypothesised associations between the research constructs as postulated in the conceptual framework and analysed to examine the overall goodness-of-fit between the conceptual model and the collected dataset. Finally, conclusions are drawn in the last section (Section 6.3.7).

#### **6.3.1. Main surveys**

Following the purification of the measurement scales, the questionnaire with the remaining items was employed for the main study (Churchill, 1979). According to Sekaran (2003) most marketing and social science researchers use survey questionnaires. The main survey was conducted to obtain data for additional scale purification, assessing the construct validity, as well as hypothesis testing and structural modeling. The researcher conducted the survey at Brunel Business School (BBS), Brunel University, Uxbridge, UK, and the samples are representative of the main population.

For the main survey, 450 questionnaires were distributed to academic staff and students at Brunel Business School. Within 4 weeks of conducting the data collection process, 309 usable questionnaires were collected.

Table 6.1 illustrates the demographic profile of the respondents. The socio demographic characteristics of the sample shows that the main respondents were female (63.4%) and male represent 36.6%. Results show that the majority age range is between 24-30 who represent 61% of the sample. The other ranges include those who were between 31 and 39 years old 24.6%, those between 18 and 23 years old (10.7%), 2.6% of the respondents were between 40-59 years old and the oldest that represent 6% of the sample 60-above.

**Table 6.1: Demographic profile of the BBS students and employees compared with the main population figures (N=309)**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>No. of respondents</b>	<b>%</b>
Female	196	63.4
Male	113	36.6
No answer		
<b>Age</b>		
18-23	33	10.7
24-30	190	61.5
31-39	76	24.6
40-59	8	2.6
60-above	2	0.6
No answer		
<b>How often do you visit BBS?</b>		
Never	12	3.9
A few times year	38	12.3
A few times a month	93	30.1
A few times a week	96	31.1
Five times a week	70	22.7
No answer		
<b>Level of education</b>		
Postgraduate	232	75.1
PhD student	59	19.1
Doctorate	12	3.9
Professor	2	.6
No answer	4	1.3
<b>Are you</b>		
Lecturer	14	4.5
Student	285	92.2
Admin	10	3.2
No answer		

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

Also, the result demonstrates that 31.3% the respondents visit BBS a few times a week. The results also showed that a high percentage (75%) of the respondents have a postgraduate education and with regard to the occupation, the results indicates that only (10%) of the respondents were admin, 4.5% were lecturers and the majority were students (92%). All the respondents were part of BBS.

### **6.3.2. Data examination**

Data examination is essential for confirming that the data underlying the analysis meets the entire requirement of the multivariate data analysis technique (Hair et al., 2010). It was vital to examine the data before performing the multivariate data analysis, to acquire a deeper understanding of the characteristics of the data and make the researcher confident that the main analysis will be honest, and will ultimately result in valid conclusions being drawn from the data (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Data screening (sometimes referred to as data screening) followed the procedures outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). In order to make sure that all the data are entered correctly and that all the variables are normally distributed, this research conducted data screening to identify any missing data, normality and outliers, also, the researcher used the data screening checklist from Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

All tests were performed using SPSS 20 and Amos 18 and the results of each procedure are described briefly below.

### **6.3.3. Treatment of Missing data analysis**

Missing data (missing values) is one of the most pervasive issues in data analysis and the pattern of missing data is more important than the amount missing (Fidell, 2007). Missing data usually occurs when a respondent fails to answer one or more items in the instrument. Missing data causes many problems in statistical analysis procedures. According to Corderio et al. (2010) reducing the sample size because of missing data reduces its statistical power, which implies that the estimations calculated can be too biased to generalise.

Hair et al. (2006) also warned of similar problems, that the missing data analysis represented the initial analysis that leaving any data out can affect results and become problematic. Furthermore, the empirical results obtained through data containing non-random missing data could be biased and lead to erroneous results (Hair et al., 2006). Four steps to overcome missing data as prescribed by Hair et al. (2006) are i) examine the type of missing data, ii) examine the extent of missing data, iii) examine the randomness of missing data, and finally iv) apply remedies e.g. imputation method. The seriousness of missing data depends on the pattern of the data, how much is missing, and why it is missing (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Hair et al. (2006) classified all steps in two groups as 'ignorable and not-ignorable'.

The data, which is classified as ignorable has the missing data process operating at random and does not require any remedy to treat it. On the other hand, non-ignorable missing data is a type of data which is the result of either the researcher's procedure such as, errors during the data entry process or failure to enter all the entries, or even might be the result of refusal by respondents to answer some questions within the survey instrument (Hair et al., 2006).

Moreover, Hair et al. (2006) categorised this missing data into two classes as known versus, unknown processes. Unknown missing data processes are related directly to the respondent and are less easily identified and accommodated. For instance, the refusal to respond to certain questions is common in questions of a sensitive nature, for example, questions about income or controversial issues or when the respondent has no opinion about the question. All should be anticipated by the researcher and minimised in the research design.

Known missing data processes occur when measurement equipment fails, subjects do not complete all questions and the errors occur during data entry that creates invalid codes. The researcher has less control over missing data processes, but some remedies may be applicable if the missing data is found to be random. According to the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Field (2009) when a participant misses out some data, it is not necessary to ignore the data and the researcher must proceed to the next step of the process and assess the extent and impact of the missing data.

For the treatment of the non-ignorable missing data Hair et al. (2006) recommended to recognise the patterns of missing data and the extent to which missing data is present in each individual variable(s), individual case(s), and even for the overall dataset. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) emphasised more the importance of patterns in the missing data than its extent. Some authors (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) have suggested that there are three patterns where missing data can be possible: missing completely at random (MCAR) which can be treated with any mechanism and results would be acceptable for generalisation, missing at random also known ignorable (MAR), and missing not at random or not-ignorable (MNAR) that could yield biased results.

Using Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) as a guide, in this study, the amount of missing data was tested. Then the pattern of missing data was examined to determine whether or not missing

data occurred randomly or was related to specific items. Otherwise, the missing data may lead to biased estimates of results (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Furthermore, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that the amount of missing data is less vital than the outline of missing data.

### **Determining the extent and patterns of the missing data**

Discussion in Section 5.2.1.3 regarding the seriousness of the missing data follows Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) so this study applied the SPSS missing value analysis method with Expectation-Maximisation (EM) technique. EM was considered to be the main appropriate technique to resolve the issue of the missing data pattern because the maximum likelihood estimation method was used to make the most accurate and reasonable estimates (Hair et al., 2010).

In order for the researcher to determine whether the missing data process occurs in a completely random manner, Little's MCAR test (Little's Missing Completely at Random) was performed using SPSS 20, this test is an overall test for missing data and compares the real pattern of missing data with the expected pattern if the missing data were totally randomly distributed (Hair et al, 2006) which allows the researcher a wider range of potential remedies (Little MCAR test: Chi-square = 58.867, df = 90, Sig. = 0.995). The results show that the null hypothesis for Little's MCAR test is that the data are missing completely at random (MCAR), also the level of significance is greater than 0.05. So, the researcher concluded that the data are missing completely at random. As the Appendix 6.1 illustrates there is no missing data found at any item or construct level. Therefore, there is no need to study the patterns or any remedy to deal with the missing data problem. This shows that the questionnaire was well designed and well understood by the participants and was appropriate to the subsidiary's circumstances.

### **6.3.4. Assessment of normality, outliers, linearity, and multi-collinearity**

#### **Normality Assumption**

Normality is considered to be an important assumption in multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to the authors (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) normality is characterised by the assumption that the data distribution in each item and in all linear combination of items is normally distributed as well

as that the data has not violated the normality assumption. If the variation from the normal distribution is too large, the statistical tests are invalid (Hair et al, 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The violation of normality within the multivariate analysis can cause underestimation of standardised residuals of estimations and fit indices (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The assumptions of normality can be tested at univariate level (item-level) and at multivariate level (combination of two or more than two items). Hair et al. (2006) state that if the items satisfy the multivariate normality, it shows that they also satisfy the univariate normality; while the reverse is not necessarily true (p. 80). Furthermore, the existence of univariate normality does not guarantee the assumption of multivariate normality.

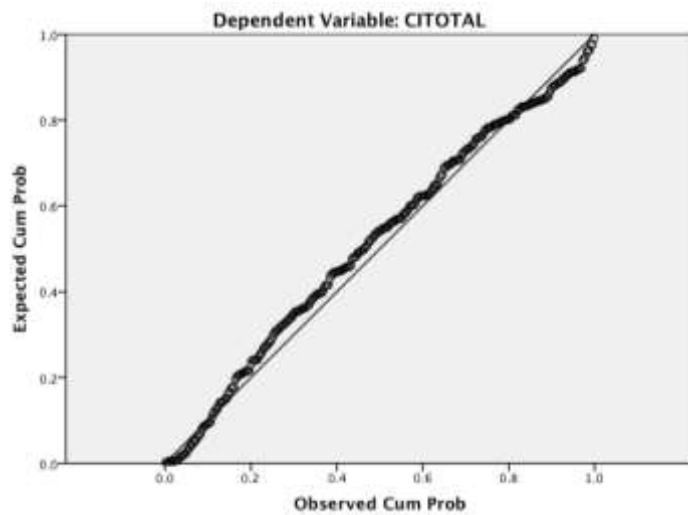
According to Hair et al. (2006, p. 80) the severity of non-normality can be related to two assumptions- i) the shape of the offending distribution, and ii) the sample size. Also, the shape of normal distribution can be determined by graphical (histogram and normal probability plot) or statistical methods (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 79). In the graphical method of inspection (Figure 6.12), the distribution of values is clustered around a straight line, and hence, the assessment of these probability plots specified that there was deviation from normality for some variables, but no adjustments such as transformation of the data have been made in this stage of analysis. In addition, the normal probability plot (Q-Q plot) which is a statistical technique that makes assessing the normality easier than others (Norusis, 1995) is demonstrated in Appendix 6.2. It shows the observed value and the values are as expected and that the data are a sample from a normal distribution. Furthermore, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (K-S) statistics (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965) were calculated for each variable and the results illustrate that all the univariate variables were significant, which violated the assumption of normality. The significance of K-S test was expected due to large sample size (Pallant, 2007, p. 62). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test compares the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation (Field, 2009). When the test is significant ( $p < 0.05$ ), then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (non-normal).

The other method used is Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (K-S) statistics by computing at the item level (Table 6.2) as well as at the construct level (Appendix 6.3). The results revealed that all the variables were significant, which violated the assumption of normality as well as them being not tenable at item or construct level. The volatility of the K-



S test is quite common in a large sample size (Pallant, 2007, p. 62) and the significance of the K-S test for a large sample size cannot be considered as deviation of data from a normal distribution (Field, 2006, p. 93).

**Figure 6.2: Multivariate normal P-P Plot of regression standardised residual**



Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

The other method used to identify the shape of distribution is skewness and kurtosis (Jarque-Bera) (Pallant, 2007) which is a main component of normality. Skewness portrays the symmetry of distribution of the probability distribution of a real-valued random variable. A positive skewness signifies that distribution is shifted to the left and tails off to the right; although negative skewed distribution is reversed (2006, p. 80). A skewed variable is a variable whose mean is not in the centre of the distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For the normal distribution, the value of skewness is recommended to be 0 and represents a symmetric shape (Curran et al., 2006). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) skewness is used to describe the balance of the distribution and how unevenly the data is distributed with a majority of scores piled up on one side of the distribution and a few stragglers off in one tail of the distribution. A positive skewness denotes a distribution shifted to the left, whereas a negative skewness indicates a shift to the right (Hair et al., 2006, p. 80). However, the negative skewness has a pileup of cases to the right and the left tail is too long (Hair et al., 2006). The normal distribution has a skewness and Kurtosis value of zero (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

On the other hand, kurtosis refers to the ‘peakedness’ or the ‘flatness’ of distribution compared to the normal distribution (either too peaked with short, thick tails or too flat with long, thin tails) (Field, 2006; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Hair et al. (2006) the kurtosis, where the distribution is taller or more peaked than the normal is termed ‘leptokurtic’, and the distribution that is flat is termed ‘platykurtick’ (p. 80). Moreover, the negative kurtosis value specifies a flatter distribution, whereas a positive value indicates peaked distribution. Kurtosis values above zero point to a distribution that is too peaked with short, thick tails, and the values below zero indicate a distribution that is too flat (also with too many cases in the tails).

**Table 6.2: Test of normality**

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
<b>CITOTAL</b>	.082	309	.000	.956	309	.000
<b>PMVTOTAL</b>	.055	309	.027	.972	309	.000
<b>COMTOTAL</b>	.079	309	.000	.958	309	.000
<b>CVITOTAL</b>	.107	309	.000	.946	309	.000
<b>ART</b>						
<b>ARTTOTAL</b>	.071	309	.001	.965	309	.000
<b>INARTTOTAL</b>	.118	309	.000	.928	309	.000
<b>PHS</b>						
<b>PHSTOTAL</b>	.115	309	.000	.922	309	.000
<b>PHSPRCYTOTAL</b>	.114	309	.000	.926	309	.000
<b>LAY</b>						
<b>LAYOTTOTAL</b>	.157	309	.000	.889	309	.000
<b>OUTLAYTOTAL</b>	.118	309	.000	.918	309	.000
<b>LOCLAYTOTAL</b>	.173	309	.000	.857	309	.000
<b>COMLAYTOTAL</b>	.138	309	.000	.914	309	.000
<b>IDNTOTAL</b>	.131	309	.000	.913	309	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In this study, the analysis illustrates that a number of variables are within an acceptable range for values of skewness and Kurtosis (i.e.  $< \pm 3$ ) (Hair et al., 2006) (Appendix 6.4). The negative or positive skewness and kurtosis reflect the underlying nature of the construct being measured (Pallant, 2007, p. 56) and does not represent any problem until and unless they are within the normal range. The results indicate the deviation from normality and may not make a substantive difference in further analysis (Tabachnik and Fidel, 2001). Also, negative or positive values of skewness and kurtosis reflect the underlying nature of the construct being measured (Pallant, 2007, p. 56).

### **Outliers: univariate and multivariate examination**

Outliers are “observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations” (Hair et al, 2006, p. 73). Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) define an outlier as, “a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariable outlier)” (p. 72). Outliers can be very high or very low scores (extreme values), and could result in non-normality data and distorted statistics (Hair et al, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Outlier examination is important because they can change the findings of the data (Hair et al., 2006). Furthermore, outlier examination helps the researcher to recognise observations that are inappropriate representations of the population from which the sample is drawn; they can be discounted from the analysis as unrepresentative. In line with Field (2009), the researcher detected outliers by examining univariate and multivariate outliers.

Kline (2005) categorised outliers as univariate (a case of an extreme value on a single variable) and multivariate (odd combination of extreme values in two or more than two variables). According to the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) the outliers can be very low and very high scores (extreme values), and could result in distorted statistics and non-normality data. The univariate outliers were converted to standard scores. The univariate outlier analysis revealed a few cases with large standardised scores ( $\pm 3.0$ ). Since the sample size is large ( $N=309$ ), a few cases with outliers are expected (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

In the current research, for detecting the univariate outliers, items were grouped together to represent a single variable. The data values of each observation were converted to a standardised score which also known as z-scores (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The results illustrated in Table 6.3 indicate that the data set contains fewer univariate outliers. For instance, the highest number of outliers (i.e. five) was found in constructs LOCLAYTOTAL and PHS, and the lowest one (i.e. only one) was found in CITOTAL and COMLAYTOTAL. As a result, this thesis left the outliers for further analysis.

Multivariate outliers were detected by using the Mahalanobis D2 measure, also considered as a multidimensional version of z-score (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). It measures the distance of a case from the multi-dimensional mean (centroid) of the centre of

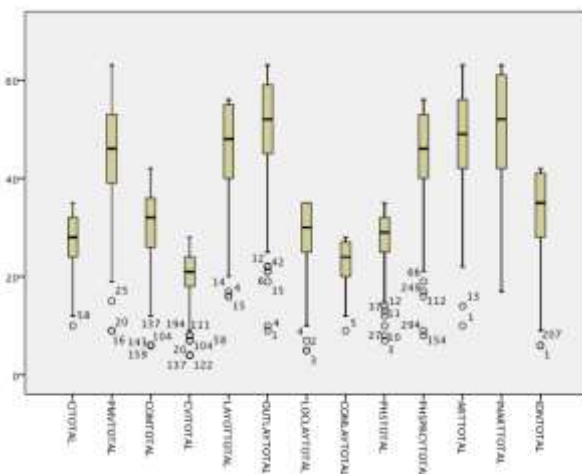
all observations and provides a single value (Hair et al., 2006, p. 75). This method was employed by the researcher as it helps to measure each observation's distance in multidimensional space from the mean of the centre of all observations and provides a single value (Hair et al., 2006, p. 75). Based on Hair et al.'s (2006) statement that if case D2/df exceeds value 2.5 in a small sample and 3 or 4 in a large sample, it is considered to be possible that there are outliers (p. 75). Also, the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that if a conservative statistical test of significance i.e.  $p < 0.001$  or  $p < 0.005$  is employed with Mahalanobis distance measure, where the larger the D2 value for a case results in a smaller corresponding probability value, it is likely to be considered an outlier.

**Table 6.3: Univariate outliers**

S.NO	Variable	Case of outlier	Standardised values i.e. z-scores > ± 3.0
1	<b>CITOTAL</b>	58	-3.12746
2	<b>PMVTOTAL</b>	20	-3.42068
		16	-3.42068
4	<b>COMTOTAL</b>	104	-3.23082
		137	-3.23082
		143	-3.23082
		159	-3.23082
3	<b>CVITOTAL</b>	104	-3.26810
		137	-3.26810
		122	-3.26810
<b>ART</b>			
2	<b>ARTTOTAL</b>	1	-3.80814
		13	-3.41007
<b>PHS</b>			
5	<b>PHSTOTAL</b>	3	-4.19256
		10	-3.99674
		27	-3.60512
		37	-3.21349
		12	-3.01768
2	<b>PHSPRCYTOTAL</b>	294	-3.83165
		154	-3.72670
<b>LAY</b>			
3	<b>LAYOTTOTAL</b>	4	-3.30568
		15	-3.30568
		14	-3.19734
2	<b>OUTLAYTOTAL</b>	4	-3.87976
		1	-3.78597
5	<b>LOCLAYTOTAL</b>	3	-3.98612
		2	-3.98612
		4	-3.65762
		9	-3.16487
		38	-3.00062
1	<b>COMLAYTOTAL</b>	5	-3.21433
3	<b>IDNTOTAL</b>	207	-3.58914
		1	-3.58914
		13	-3.19642

To detect the multivariate outliers for this research, Mahalanobis D2 (d-squared), with the liner regression method was used. Mahalanobis D2 was computed in SPSS version 16 ‘1-CDF.CHISQ (quant, df)’, where quant=D2 and df=13 was used with the regression procedure for a set of independent variables. The resulting R<sup>2</sup> value was small (0.245), with a tolerance reading of (1- R<sup>2</sup>) 0.755, indicating that the outliers have little effect on the rest of the independent variables (Hair et al., 2006). Moreover, only three cases appeared to have Mahalanobis D<sup>2</sup> with a probability of less than or equal to 0.001. Therefore, this researcher decided that the multivariate outliers were random and there was less danger in retaining them (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In addition, Box Plot was applied for detecting multivariate outliers. Figure 6.3 shows that all the observations were found in the mild-outlier (i.e. inter quartile range (IQR)> 1.5) (Hair et al., 2006). Hence, rather than delete items identified as outliers, those items were retained in the final analysis.

**Figure 6.3: Box-plot representing multivariate outliers**



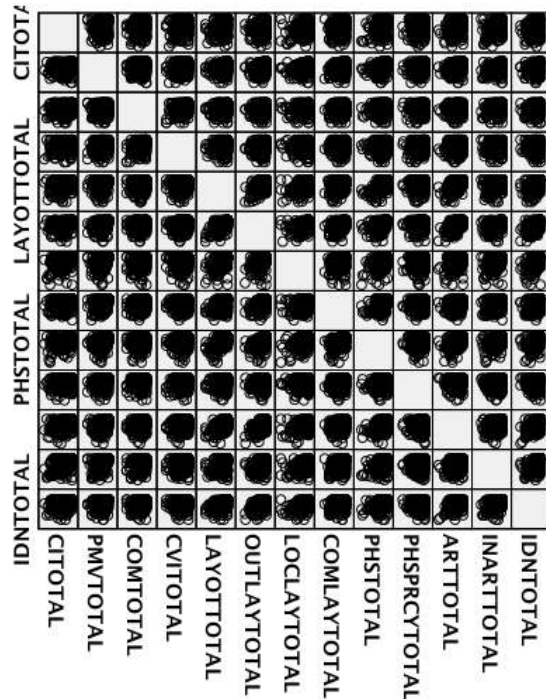
Circle= represents mild-outliers score which is more than 1.5IQR from the rest of the score

### **Linearity and multi-collinearity**

The relationship between the variables was examined in this research based on the research questions. Linearity is the assumption that, “the mean values of the outcome variable for each increment of the predictor(s) lie along a straight line” (Field, 2009, p. 76). Hair et al. (2010) state linearity is a required assumption of multivariate techniques as the correlations represent only the linear associations among variables (Appendix 6.5). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) “linearity is important in a practical sense because Pearson’s r only captures the linear relationships among variables; if there are substantial nonlinear relationships among variables, they are ignored” (p. 84). In line with Hair et al. (2010), the most common way to

assess the linearity of the relationships is to recognise nonlinear patterns in the data through inspection of scatter plots” (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 682). For that reason, the researcher inspected the scatterplots with a straight line, depicting the linear relationship. As a result, it was found that nonlinear patterns were absent from the data and all variables are linear with each other (Hair et al., 2010) (Figure 6.4).

**Figure 6.4: Architecture constructs scatter plot matrix**



Source: Analysis of survey data

Multi-collinearity is the assessment of the “extent to which a variable can be explained by the other variables in the analysis” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 93). In order to assess the degree of multi-collinearity in this study, the researcher first scanned the inter-correlation among variables in the correlation matrix (the R-matrix). According to the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) multi-collinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated (0.90 or above), meaning that one can be linearly predicted from the others with a non-trivial degree of accuracy. Hair et al. (2006) states that the presence of higher level of multi-collinearity results in a reduction of the unique variance explained by each independent variable ( $\beta$ -value) and an increase the shared prediction percentage (p. 186).

Furthermore, the occurrence of multi-collinearity limits the size of regression (R) value and makes it problematic to understand the contribution of each individual independent variable (Field, 2006). For increasing the prediction, the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommended inspection of the highly correlated variables and deletion of one of them. This research applied Pearson's correlations matrix at the 0.01 significance level (2-tailed) to determine the linearity and multi-collinearity and found all independent variables were considerably positively correlated to the dependent variables (Appendix 6.6) and the correlation values were lower than 0.80, indicating that a multi-collinearity problem did not exist (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010).

In addition, to determine the impact of multi-collinearity on the results, variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerance statistics acquired from the SPSS programme were examined (Hair et al., 2010). It was found that the tolerance values were above 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010; Menard, 1995). Table 6.4 shows that none of the VIFs values was above 20 (the largest was 2.447), which implies that there was no excessive linear relationship between a predictor and other predictors (Myers, 1990). In terms of tolerance effect, all were between the values assumed to be acceptable and based on the strategy for dealing with multi-collinearity there was no need to delete the redundant variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Table 6.4 illustrates the regression for observing the VIF and tolerance effect.

**Table 6.4: Regression for observing VIF and tolerance effect**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
<b>CITOTAL</b>	8.335	2.317		3.597	.000		
<b>PMVTOTAL</b>	-.050	.030	-.097	-1.681	.094	.731	1.369
<b>COMTOTAL</b>	.023	.041	.032	.569	.569	.754	1.326
<b>CVITOTAL</b>	.106	.059	.099	1.783	.076	.794	1.259
<b>ART</b>							
ARTTOTAL	.058	.038	.105	1.537	.125	.528	1.894
INARTTOTAL	.132	.035	.260	3.732	.000	.506	1.976
<b>PHS</b>							
PHSTOTAL	.143	.075	.132	1.911	.057	.512	1.953
PHSPRCYTOTAL	-.004	.030	-.006	-.118	.906	.904	1.106
<b>LAY</b>							
LAYOTTOTAL	-.069	.046	-.114	-1.479	.140	.409	2.447
OUTLAYTOTAL	.042	.036	.081	1.156	.249	.500	2.001
LOCLAYTOTAL	.187	.063	.206	2.950	.003	.504	1.983
COMLAYTOTAL	.075	.081	.059	.917	.360	.595	1.681
<b>IDNTOTAL</b>	-.032	.049	-.045	-.660	.510	.535	1.868

Dependent variable: CI

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

### **Homoscedasticity/Homogeneity**

Homoscedasticity is a significant statistical assumption of normality connected with the supposition that dependent variable(s) display an equal variance across the number of independent variable(s) (Hair et al., 2006, p. 83). However, homoscedasticity has been defined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) as the variability in scores for one variable which is roughly the same as the values for all other variables (p. 85). Field (2006) states that the assumption of equal variation between variables is a pre-requisite in multiple regressions. The researcher examined the scatterplots (Hair et al., 2010), where the pattern was found to be consistent.

The failure of homoscedasticity is known as heteroscedasticity and can create serious problems (Hair et al., 2006) also it is known as homogeneity of variance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 86). According to the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) heteroscedasticity is caused by the presence of non-normality or a higher level of error of measurement at some level in the independent variable(s).



The researcher tested the most common method for examining the homoscedasticity, Levene's test of equal variance (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2006; Pallant, 2007). Levene's test is also considered to be sensitive with respect to the sample size and can be significant for a large sample (Field, 2006, p. 98). Levene's test was computed to measure the variances of non-metric variables (gender) as part of t-test. Table 6.5 indicates that most of the obtained scores, except COMTOTAL, CVITOTAL, PHSPRCYTOTAL, and ARTTOTAL, were higher than the minimum significant value i.e.  $p < 0.05$ , which suggests that variance for all the variables was equal within groups of male and female and had not violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Therefore, for the current study which has a sample of 309, the significance of a few constructs in Levene's test does not represent the presence of substantial non-normality within the sample. The non-significant result indicated that the heteroscedasticity assumption was met (Field, 2009).

**Table 6.5: Levene's test of homogeneity of variances**

	<b>Levene statistic</b>	<b>df1</b>	<b>df2</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>CITOTAL</b>	5.040	5	303	.000
<b>PMVTOTAL</b>	2.591	5	303	.026
<b>COMTOTAL</b>	1.908	5	303	.093
<b>CVITOTAL</b>	.579	5	303	.716
<b>LAYOTTOTAL</b>	4.258	5	303	.001
<b>OUTLAYTOTAL</b>	2.303	5	303	.045
<b>LOCLAYTOTAL</b>	9.340	5	303	.000
<b>COMLAYTOTAL</b>	3.229	5	303	.007
<b>PHSTOTAL</b>	3.828	5	303	.002
<b>PHSPRCYTOTAL</b>	1.213	5	303	.303
<b>ARTTOTAL</b>	.379	5	303	.863
<b>INARTTOTAL</b>	3.710	5	303	.003
<b>IDNTOTAL</b>	3.713	5	303	.003

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

### **6.3.5. Non-response biasness**

Non-response bias is an important aspect of the data collection procedure and is the kind of bias that occurs when some subjects choose not to respond to particular questions and when the non-responders are different in some way (they are a non-random group) from those who do respond. However, when the sample does not represent the whole data then results obtained from the collected data are considered biased (Saunders et al., 2007). The common method bias (or constant methods bias) implies that "the covariance among measured items is influenced by the fact that some or all of the responses are collected with the same type of scale" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 764). According to the literature (Armstrong and Overton, 1977;

Churchill, 1979) the problem of nonresponse biasness is common in survey studies, and it occurs when respondents differ in some meaningful way from non-respondents.

The researcher determined the chances of any potential non-response biasness through applying the Mann-Whitney-U-test between early and late respondents with respect to the means of all the variables (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Lambert and Harrington, 1990; Weiss and Heide, 1993). According to the proportion of survey questionnaires which were returned, the first 50 observations were taken as early respondents and the last 50 were taken as late respondents. The findings in Table 6.6 shows that significance value in any variable is not less than or equal to 0.5 probability value (i.e. insignificant), then, there is no statistically significant difference between early and late respondents. Consequently, non-response bias is not a concern in the present study.

**Table 6.6: Mann-Whitney U-test observing non-response biasness**

	<b>CITOTAL</b>	<b>PMVTOTAL</b>	<b>COMTOTAL</b>	<b>CVITOTAL</b>
<b>Mann-Whitney U</b>	2719.500	2951.500	3048.000	3016.500
<b>Wilcoxon W</b>	20864.500	3512.500	21193.000	21161.500
<b>Z</b>	-1.219	-.537	-0.255	-0.348
<b>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	0.223	0.591	0.799	0.728
	<b>LAYOTTOTAL</b>	<b>OUTLAYTOTAL</b>	<b>LOCLAYTOTAL</b>	<b>COMLAYTOTAL</b>
<b>Mann-Whitney U</b>	2890.500	2633.000	2778.000	2910.500
<b>Wilcoxon W</b>	21035.500	20778.000	20923.000	21055.500
<b>Z</b>	-0.721	-1.470	-1.055	-0.662
<b>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	0.471	0.142	0.291	0.508
<b>Mann-Whitney U</b>	<b>PHSTOTAL</b>	<b>PHSPRCYTOTAL</b>	<b>ARTTOTAL</b>	<b>INARTTOTAL</b>
<b>Wilcoxon W</b>	3126.000	2794.500	2933.500	2993.000
<b>Z</b>	21271.000	20939.500	3494.500	21138.000
<b>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	-0.026	-0.998	-0.590	-0.417
	0.979	0.318	0.555	0.677
<b>Mann-Whitney U</b>	<b>IDNTOTAL</b>			
<b>Wilcoxon W</b>	3102.500			
<b>Z</b>	3663.500			
<b>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	-.095			
	.924			

Grouping Variable: Your gender

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

### **6.3.6. Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a method for investigating whether a number of variables of interest are linearly related to a smaller number of unobservable factors. In other words, factor analysis is the best way to understand the underlying structure of a particular theory and its variables in analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 26). Field (2006, p. 619) defines three main uses of factor analysis, (i) to understand the structure of a set of variables, (ii) to construct a questionnaire to measure any underlying variables, and (iii) to reduce a data set to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible.

The general purpose of the factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables and to detect structure in the associations among variables that is to classify variables. In addition, as a data reduction method, factor analysis is used as a tool in attempts to reduce a large set of variables to a more meaningful, smaller set of new composite dimensions/factors (Gorsuch 1983; Rummel, 1970; Stevens, 1996). The two issues which are identified by Hair et al. (2006) for which chiefly factor analysis can be used are (i) helps to specify the unit of analysis - factor analysis is used to identify the structure of a relationship (i.e. correlation) either between variables or respondents, and (ii) factor analysis helps to achieve summarised data and reduced data: In data summarisation, factor analysis is employed to combine the individual variables grouped together so they represent collectively the underlying dimensions (p. 107 and 111). Whereas, in data reduction, factor analysis empirically (by factor scores) represents specific variables from a much larger number of variables to be used in multivariate analysis, or creates an entirely new set of variables which is much smaller than the original number, and partially or completely replaces the original number of the variable set.

The two identified techniques of factor analysis that discover the variable of interest from the set of coherent subsets that are relatively independent from each other are (i) exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and (ii) confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Both are used for structuring groups of variables or data reduction. “EFA is an exploratory analysis because no a priori restrictions are placed on the pattern of relationships between the observed measures and the latent variables,” whereas, “in CFA, the researcher must specify in advance several key aspects of the factor model such as the number of factors and patterns of indicator-factor loadings” (Brown, 2006, p. 20).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to assemble the data in a group. Then, the confirmatory factor analysis techniques (CFA) were applied to confirm the group of measurement variables related to a factor for testing the hypotheses (Field, 2009). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) attempts to discover the nature of the constructs influencing a set of responses, but confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) examines whether a particular set of constructs is influencing responses in a predicted way (Hair et al., 2006).

### **Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Reliability Assessment**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a method which examines patterns in data in order to extract underlying latent factors (De Vaus, 2002). According to Hair et al. (2006) exploratory factor analysis is a method of factor loading into groups to extract underlying latent factors. It is a technique that is used for 'take what the data gives you' and involves grouping variables together on a factor or a precise number of factors (p. 104). Exploratory factor analysis is widely used in social science research to identify the latent factors that account for co-variation among the variables and for summarising and reducing a larger set of observed variables to a smaller number of factors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2000; Hair et al., 2006). Initially, this analysis is very useful when summated scales need to be constructed and take data in a group then apply confirmatory factor analysis techniques to confirm the group of measurement variables related to the factor for examining the hypotheses.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend that the researchers use exploratory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of measures, examine internal reliability and discover underlying structures in the relatively large set of variables. The researcher applied exploratory factor analysis SPSS version 20 to extract factors, which numerous methods are available for factor extraction and rotation. The researcher employed principal component analysis (PCA) to generate the initial solutions for the EFA. Also, principal component analysis helps to extract the maximum variance from the data set, in a way that the first component extracts the highest variance and the last component extracts the least variance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 635). Moreover, it helps to identify and reduces the large set of variables into a smaller number of components by transforming interrelated variables into new unrelated linear composite variables (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

The researcher used the most common orthogonal rotation method, known as Varimax, in order to maximise the variance of loadings on each factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The Varimax rotation method was used in this research in order to achieve the best possible interpretation of the factors. Furthermore, the orthogonal rotation technique was employed as a suitable technique to reduce the number of variables to smaller subsets as well as maximise high correlations between factors and variables and minimise low ones (Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Hair et al. (2006) the factor loadings above +1-0.50 were considered practically significant.

Eigenvalues and Scree plot assessed for the adequacy of extraction and the number of factors and before extract factors, it was important to calculate the variability in scores (the variance) for any given measures (or variables) (Field, 2006). In principal component extraction method eigenvalues are associated with a variance which indicates the substantive importance of that factor. Eigenvalues are reported by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) “as part of an initial run with principal component extraction” (p. 644). With component analysis variance of each variable contributing 1, a component with an eigenvalue less than 1 is not important (Field, 2006; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Therefore, based on the recommendation of Hair et al. (2006) only the factors having eigenvalues greater than 1 are significant and all factors with latent roots less than 1 are considered insignificant and are disregarded (p. 120).

Communality is the total amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in the analysis (Hair et al., 2007, p. 102). According to Field (2006) a variable which has no variance would have a communality of 1; a variable that shares nothing with other variables would have a communality of 0 (p. 630). The total variance of an original variable shared with the other variables is also known as communality (Hair et al., 2006). Communality can be calculated from factor loading in which the model contains multiple constructs. Hair et al. (2007) states that communality can be calculated from factor loading in which a model containing multiple constructs with communalities of less than 0.5 are required and for a larger sample size less than 0.7 is required. On the other hand, if the communalities are lower than 0.45 then the minimum sample size should be 300 or more.

In order to achieve suitable factor analysis results, Norusis (1992) recommended calculating the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) examination to measure the sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Norusis, 1992). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) a value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin greater than 0.6 suggests that the relationship between items is statistically significant and is appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to present a parsimonious set of factors. Although the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity indicates that the correlation between the measurement items is higher than 0.3 and are appropriate for exploratory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006) to provide a parsimonious set of factors.

In the current research, exploratory factor analysis was run for the items derived from the literature. Initially, 89 items related to the architecture, corporate identity, and identification were examined using exploratory factor analysis to contribute to ten theoretically established constructs. Table 6.9 illustrates that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.923 (sampling adequacy 0.6 and above is acceptable) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS) is significant (BTS = <0.001) and satisfied the required criteria (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity indicates that the correlation among the measurement items is higher than 0.3 and that they are appropriate for exploratory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).

Eigenvalue (latent root) represents the amount of variance accounted for by a variable. The component analysis variance of each variable that contributes to a principal factor extraction is one or greater as significant; a factor with an eigenvalue of less than one is insignificant (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) and is disregarded (Hair et al., 2006, p. 120). This study found 13 factors with an eigenvalue greater than one and items loaded separately (i.e. cross-loading) in different components for extracting factors from the data in this study. Table 6.7 illustrates that within components from 1 to 13 eigenvalue extracted using PCA was higher than the criterion value obtained from parallel analysis (i.e.  $1.444 > 1.222$ ), then only 13 components were retained and the others were rejected (Pallant 2007, p. 191). The first factor was a high value and also successively smaller eigenvalues were found.

**Table 6.7: KMO and Bartlett's test**

<b>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</b>		0.923
<b>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</b>	<b>Approx. Chi-Square</b>	32328.000
	<b>df</b>	3741
	<b>Sig.</b>	0.000

The total variance explained by each component was presented in Table 6.8. The number of factors that contributed eigenvalue >1 were only significant and the remaining were disregarded (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Principal component analysis showed the presence of 13 components with eigenvalues exceeding one. Table 6.8 shows that the highest variance extracted by items into a construct was observed in corporate identity (i.e. 31.418%) and the lowest one was observed in IDN (i.e. 1.660%). Altogether, ten components explained a total variance of 80.119% (See column cumulative %), which is higher than the suggestions by the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

**Table 6.8: Total variance explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	27.334	31.418	31.418	27.334	31.418	31.418	7.695	8.845	8.845
2	6.910	7.943	39.361	6.910	7.943	39.361	7.553	8.681	17.526
3	6.006	6.903	46.265	6.006	6.903	46.265	7.209	8.287	25.813
4	5.433	6.244	52.509	5.433	6.244	52.509	6.924	7.958	33.771
5	4.840	5.563	58.072	4.840	5.563	58.072	6.814	7.833	41.604
6	3.379	3.884	61.956	3.379	3.884	61.956	6.491	7.461	49.065
7	3.190	3.666	65.622	3.190	3.666	65.622	4.798	5.515	54.580
8	2.965	3.408	69.030	2.965	3.408	69.030	4.743	5.451	60.032
9	2.482	2.852	71.882	2.482	2.852	71.882	4.110	4.724	64.755
10	2.061	2.369	74.251	2.061	2.369	74.251	3.882	4.462	69.217
11	2.028	2.331	76.582	2.028	2.331	76.582	3.299	3.792	73.010
12	1.634	1.878	78.460	1.634	1.878	78.460	3.245	3.730	76.740
13	1.444	1.660	80.119	1.444	1.660	80.119	2.940	3.379	80.119
14	0.827	0.950	81.070						
15	0.713	0.820	81.890						
16	0.696	0.801	82.690						
17	0.631	0.725	83.416						

Extraction method: Principal component analysis (Total 88 items were examined, however, the Table presents all the observations)

Table 6.9 shows the results of all variables retained in the factor loading had communality values above 0.6 and also the results confirmed the high variation from .591 to 0.918 which showed high variance among the variables. All the items share above 0.6 communalities with their components and indicate that items fit well with other items in the same component (Hair et al., 2006).

**Table 6.9: Communalities shared by individual items**

Variables	Initial	Extraction	Variables	Initial	Extraction	Variables	Initial	Extraction
<b>CI</b>			<b>OUTLAY</b>			<b>ART</b>		
CI1	1.000	0.883	OUTLAY1	1.000	0.822	ART1	1.000	0.685
CI2	1.000	0.892	OUTLAY2	1.000	0.824	ART2	1.000	0.771
CI4	1.000	0.807	OUTLAY3	1.000	0.781	ART3	1.000	0.783
CI5	1.000	0.906	OUTLAY4	1.000	0.851	ART4	1.000	0.786
CI6	1.000	0.883	OUTLAY5	1.000	0.786	ART5	1.000	0.762
<b>PMV</b>			OUTLAY6	1.000	0.769	ART6	1.000	0.831
PMV1	1.000	0.777	OUTLAY7	1.000	0.841	ART7	1.000	0.734
PMV2	1.000	0.591	OUTLAY8	1.000	0.826	ART8	1.000	0.702
PMV3	1.000	0.853	OUTLAY9	1.000	0.779	ART10	1.000	0.722
PMV4	1.000	0.820	<b>LOCLAY</b>			<b>INART</b>		
PMV5	1.000	0.798	LOCLAY1	1.000	0.805	INART1	1.000	0.726
PMV6	1.000	0.777	LOCLAY2	1.000	0.914	INART2	1.000	0.729
PMV7	1.000	0.783	LOCLAY3	1.000	0.918	INART3	1.000	0.867
PMV8	1.000	0.752	LOCLAY4	1.000	0.900	INART4	1.000	0.844
PMV9	1.000	0.810	LOCLAY5	1.000	0.869	INART5	1.000	0.810
<b>COM</b>			<b>COMLAY</b>			INART6	1.000	0.855
COM1	1.000	0.784	COMLAY1	1.000	0.777	INART7	1.000	0.862
COM2	1.000	0.816	COMLAY2	1.000	0.809	INART8	1.000	0.846
COM4	1.000	0.787	COMLAY3	1.000	0.853	INART9	1.000	0.811
COM5	1.000	0.856	COMLAY4	1.000	0.734	<b>IDN</b>		
COM6	1.000	0.726	<b>PHS</b>			IDN1	1.000	0.833
COM7	1.000	0.717	PHS2	1.000	0.674	IDN2	1.000	0.858
<b>CVI</b>			PHS3	1.000	0.745	IDN3	1.000	0.870
CVI1	1.000	0.853	PHS4	1.000	0.784	IDN4	1.000	0.831
CVI2	1.000	0.887	PHS5	1.000	0.785	IDN5	1.000	0.877
CVI3	1.000	0.848	PHS6	1.000	0.653	IDN6	1.000	0.859
CVI4	1.000	0.897	<b>PHSPRCY</b>					
<b>LAYOUT</b>			PHSPRCY1	1.000	0.717			
<b>LAY</b>			PHSPRCY2	1.000	0.760			
LAYOT1	1.000	0.737	PHSPRCY3	1.000	0.858			
LAYOT2	1.000	0.836	PHSPRCY4	1.000	0.793			
LAYOT3	1.000	0.849	PHSPRCY5	1.000	0.829			
LAYOT4	1.000	0.840	PHSPRCY6	1.000	0.846			
LAYOT5	1.000	0.844	PHSPRCY7	1.000	0.847			
LAYOT6	1.000	0.844	PHSPRCY8	1.000	0.790			
LAYOT7	1.000	0.866						
LAYOT8	1.000	0.823						

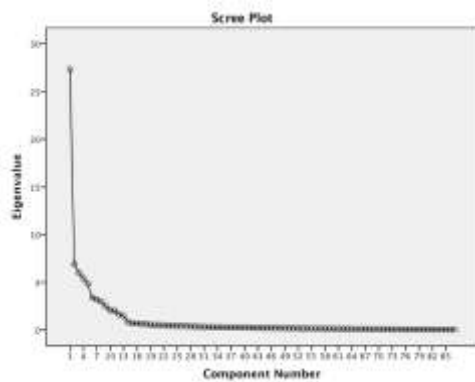
Extraction method: principal component analysis.

Note: CI = corporate identity, PMV = Philosophy, mission, and value, COM = Communication, CVI = Corporate visual identity, ART, INART = Symbolic artifacts/Decor and artifacts, PHS and PHDPRCY = ambient conditions/physical stimuli, LAYOT, OUTLAY, LOCLAY, COMLAY = Physical structure/Spatial layout and functionality, IDN = Identification



In identifying the extraction factors by eigenvalues, a scree plot as a graphical method is commonly employed to confirm the maximum number of factors. Factors should be extracted with high eigenvalues but this decision can be made by plotting a scree graph. According to Hair et al. (2006) the scree-test is derived by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction, and the shape of the resulting curve is used to evaluate the cut-off point (p. 120). Figure (5.5) illustrates scree plot test was used on data to confirm the extracted factors through eigenvalues and the results confirmed the same number of factors extracted using KMO's latent root criteria i.e. eigenvalue>1. Furthermore, the Figure shows a quite clear breakdown among nine and eleven. In addition, components one to ten explained or captured much more of the variance than the remaining components.

**Figure 6.5: Scree plot of all the dimensions**



Source: Analysis of survey data (SPSS file)

It was vital to understand to what degree variables load onto the factors. Rotation is significant for improving the interpretability and scientific utility of the solution that is employed to maximise high correlations among factors and variables and minimise low ones. To aid in the interpretation of the 13 components a Varimax Rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure showing a number of strong loadings, with all variables loading on components (Appendix 6.7).

After developing the factors' internal consistency, each loaded factor was assessed by Cronbach's alpha measure. The following clusters of the items were specified for the most relevant dimensions of the elements. Eight items (PMV2, LAYOT1, LOCLAY3, LOCLAY5, PHS6, ART1, ART8, and ART10) were removed from the constructs due to cross loadings and the majority of the items were loaded on their corresponding constructs. The purpose of

EFA is to recognise whether the items fit within theoretical factor structures. Cronbach's alpha for each factor confirmed the internal consistency in each factors (Nunnally, 1978). This finding indicated that these factors can be considered as the basis for the CFA application. In addition, the casual relations between the underlying constructs and their related indicators should be specified properly by confirmatory factor analysis before imposing any casual relations among the constructs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The confirmatory factor analysis was performed in the next stage to examine the convergent and construct validity of scales.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Measurement Models**

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a technique usually used to confirm an a priori hypothesis about the relationship between a set of measurement items and their respective factors (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p. 148). This research employs a two-step approach in structural equation modelling (SEM) which allows testing of the significance of all pattern coefficients and provides a particularly useful framework for formal comparisons of the substantive model of interest with the next likely theoretical alternatives (Anderson and Gerbing (1988, p. 422). Two-step approach involves the simultaneous estimation of i) the measurement model, which allows for uni-dimensionality assessments, and assessment of the reliability (Cronbach's  $\alpha$  and composite reliability), and validity (convergent and discriminant) of the model; ii) the structural model, evaluated by verifying the relationships between the constructs.

#### **Step one: measurement model results**

The first part in evaluating the model is termed "measurement model" and employs confirmatory factor analysis to examine its reliability. The inner-model was tested through examining psychometric reliability and validity examination for the measurement items used in this study. The evaluation of the inner-model is also referred as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is basically helpful when one dependent construct becomes independent in a subsequent dependence relationship (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to the authors Carmines and Zeller (1979) and Steenkamp and Trijp (1991) the validity and reliability of a construct is a necessary condition for further theory testing and development. The theoretical model illustrated in Chapter III was established from the well

mature and acceptable theoretical study streams in marketing and design, that does not require measurement re-assessment (Hair et al., 2006), still outer model/CFA is suggested to confirm the underlying relationship of the observed variables with the latent factors (Barbara, 2001). The criteria for the measurement model fitting are presented in Table 6.10.

**Table 6.10: Criterion of assessment of the measurement model**

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Description</b>	
<b>Construct reliability Composite reliability</b>	Is measure of internal consistency	Value > 0.6 (Hair et al., 2006; Bagozzi and Yi, 1991)
<b>Construct reliability Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></b>	Measures the indicators uni-dimensionality (inter-correlation) with their latent construct.	Value > 0.6 (Hair et al., 2006), and Value > 0.8 or 0.9 is better (Nunnally and Bernsein, 1994)
<b>Indicator reliability</b>	Is absolute standardised outer loading. It indicates the variance explained by the observed variable towards underlying latent construct (Churchill, 1979)	Value > 0.7(- $\sqrt{0.5}$ ) is better (Henseler et al., 2009), and Value > 0.4 is acceptable (Hulland, 1999; Churchill, 1979)
<b>Convergent validity</b>	Is the degree to which two measures of the same concepts are correlated. It is demonstrated by the uni-dimensionality using average variance extracted	Value > 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981)
<b>Discriminant validity Construct-level</b>	Is the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct (Hair et al., 2006). It ensures that each latent variable shares more variance with its own block of indicators that with another latent variable	$\sqrt{f^2} >$ latent variable correlation (Fornell and Larcker, 1981)
<b>Discriminant validity Item-level</b>	Is the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct from each other (Hair et al., 2006)	Loading of each indicator > cross loadings (Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2010), and Cross loading < 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006)

Source: Developed by researcher

The researcher used the goodness of fit criteria and uni-dimensionality to evaluate the measurement model and its specification. Furthermore, uni-dimensionality was examined by reliability tests (i.e., composite and Cronbach's alpha reliabilities) and factor loadings for each construct alone. In addition, this study focuses on three types of goodness-of-fit criteria; absolute, incremental and parsimony fit indices by recommendation of the authors Byrne (2001), Hair et al. (2006), Kline (2005) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Absolute fit indices are used "to measure the overall goodness-of-fit for both the structural and

measurement models collectively”. The absolute fit indices evaluate the goodness-of-fit of a certain model independently from any other model. The incremental fit indices are used for “assessing how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model” (Hair et al., 2006. p, 706-708). Incremental fit indices besides absolute fit indices were used since the absolute fit indices do not compare the models to a specific null model (i.e. incremental fit indices). In addition, parsimony indices are employed to decide which model is considered to be the best (Hair et al., 2006). The main goodness-of-fit criteria that have been employed in this research are illustrated in Table 6.11.

**Table 6.11: Goodness-of-fit measures**

	<b>Description</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Acceptance level in this research</b>
Coefficient alpha	is a measure of the internal reliability of items in an index	$\alpha$	Unidimensionality	$\alpha > 0.7$ adequate and $> 0.5$ is acceptable
Standardised Regression Weight	is the slope in the regression equation if X and Y are standardised	$\beta$	Unidimensionality	Beta $> 0.15$
<b>ABSOLUTE FIT MEASURES</b>				
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) (with associated degrees of freedom and probability of significant different)	A ‘badness of fit measure’ Minimum value of discrepancy, used to test the null hypothesis that the estimated variance-covariance matrix deviates from the sample. It is sample sensitive. The more the implied and sample moments differ, the bigger the chi-square statistic, and the stronger the evidence against the null hypothesis.	$\chi^2$ (df, p)	Model fit	p $> 0.05$ (at $\alpha$ equals to 0.05 level)
Normed Chi-Square	The relative chi-square is also called the normed chi-square. This value equals the chi-square index divided by the degrees of freedom	$\chi^2/df$	Absolute fit and model parsimony	1.0 $< \chi^2/df < 3.0$
Goodness-of-fit index	Expresses the overall degree of fit by comparing the squared residuals from predictions with the actual data. Represents the comparison of the square residual for the degree of freedom, obtained through ML (maximum likelihood) and ULS (unweighted least squares)	<b>GFI</b>	Absolute fit	Value $> 0.95$ good fit; value 0.90-0.95 adequate fit
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index	An expansion of the GFI index Adjusted by the ratio of the df for the proposed model and the null model.	<b>AGFI</b>		Value $> 0.95$ good fit; value 0.90-0.95 adequate fit
Root Mean Square Residual	Differences between data and model predictions comprise the residuals, their average is computed, and the square root taken	<b>RMR</b>		badness-of-fit index (larger values signal worse fit), and it ranges

				from 0.0 to 1.0. Value 0 when the model predictions match the data perfectly.
Root means square error of approximation residual	Population discrepancy function, which implies that how well the fitted model approximates per degree of freedom.	<b>RMSEA</b>		Value < 0.05 good fit; value 0.08-0.05 adequate fit
Normed fit Chi-square CMIN/DF ( $\chi^2$ /df)	Minimum discrepancy divided by its degree of freedom. Value close to one indicate a good fit but less than one implies over fit			Close to 1 is good, but should not exceed to 3
<b>INCREMENTAL FIT MEASURES</b>				
Normalised Fit Index	Compares the proposed model with the null model, without considering the degrees of freedom (not adjusted for df). The effect of sample size is strong	<b>NFI</b>	Incremental fit Compare your model to baseline independence model	Values above 0.08 and close 0.90 indicate acceptable fit
Non-Normalised Fit Index	Opposite of NFI and called non-NFI or NNFI. Represents the comparative index between proposed and baseline model adjusted for df	<b>NNFI</b>		
Comparative Fit Index	A variation of the NFI, NNFI and identical to the relative non-centrality index (RNI). Represents the comparative index between proposed and baseline model adjusted for df. It is highly recommended index for fitness of model	<b>CFI</b>		
<b>PARSIMONIOUS FIT MEASURES</b>				
Parsimony goodness-Fit index	Degree of freedom is used to adjust the GFI value using parsimony ratio.	<b>PGFI</b>		Higher value compared to the other model is better
Parsimony normed fit index	Degree of freedom is used to adjust the NFI value based on parsimony ratio	<b>PNFI</b>		Higher value compared to the other model is better

Source: Developed from Hair et al. (2006)

The measurement models include sixty indicators. Tables below (from 5.12 to 5.24) present the results of the measurement model, including the standardised factor loadings ( $\chi$ ), estimates, standard errors (S.E), critical ratios (C.R), squared multiple correlations, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite and Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for each construct. The tables reveal the following,

- As the tables show, the factor loadings of each construct indicators are important and are sufficient for doing the structural modelling. The standardised factor Loadings has a

value greater than 0.731, indicating a strong association between the factors and their construct and according to Churchill (1979) satisfied the reliability requirements.

- Critical ratio or t-values (C.R) are above 1.96 for the entire factor loadings and according to the authors Byrne (2001) and Hair et al. (2006) the results indicate that the factor loadings are statistically significant.

- Average variance extracted (AVE) illustrates information about “the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error” (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, p. 45). Average variance extracted values of all the proposed model constructs ranged from 0.82 through 0.92. AVE extracted for other constructs were higher than the required value 0.5 (50%) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and specify that each construct has the capability to explain more than half of the variance with its measuring items on average. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) AVE represents a stronger indicator of the construct reliability than the composite reliability does.

- To examine the construct level reliability, Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability were computed. Composite reliabilities for the constructs ranged from 0.87 through 0.98, and were higher than the recommended 0.7 value (Hair et al., 2006; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

- Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  measured the uni-dimensionality of the multi-item scale’s internal constancy (Cronbach, 1951), and construct reliability measured how well that construct was measured by its assigned items (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was higher than the required value of 0.6 (Cronbach, 1951) and values ranged from 0.692 through 0.964 exceeding the threshold value of 0.70 (Field, 2005) and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test. Average variance extracted, composite and Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities present acceptable levels of reliability and validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hair et al., 2005).

- The squared multiple correlations (SMC) measures the construct reliability and is referred to as an item reliability coefficient. SMC is the correlation between a single

indicator variable and the construct it measures. The SMC for an observed variable is the square of the indicator's standardised loading. Based on the measurement analysis, the squared multiple correlations between the construct and its measuring manifest items (i.e. factor loading) was above the minimum threshold criteria of 0.5. An SMC of 0.5 is roughly equivalent to a standardised load of 0.7 (Holmes-Smith et al., 2006).

**Table 6.12: The corporate identity construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.692		Composite reliability = 0.98				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.91	
Standard factor loading								
<b>CI1</b>	<---	0.899	0.919	0.028	32.672	***		0.821
<b>CI2</b>	<---	0.889	1					0.898
<b>CI4</b>	<--- <b>CI</b>	0.822	0.892	0.04	22.252	***		0.730
<b>CI5</b>	<---	0.904	0.927	0.035	26.497	***		0.894
<b>CI6</b>	<---	0.887	0.945	0.038	25.003	***		0.851

**Table 6.13: Philosophy, Mission, Value construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.932		Composite reliability = 0.96				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, VALUE</b>		Estimat	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.84	
Standard factor loading								
<b>PMV1</b>	<---	0.863	0.927	0.048	19.203	***		0.734
<b>PMV6</b>	<---	0.881	0.904	0.055	16.564	***		0.633
<b>PMV7</b>	<--- <b>PMV</b>	0.890	0.925	0.051	18.295	***		0.684
<b>PMV8</b>	<---	0.856	0.901	0.041	21.814			0.676
<b>PMV9</b>	<---	0.913	1			***		0.823

**Table 6.14: Communication construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.935		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>COMMUNICATION</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.86	
Standard factor loading								
<b>COM1</b>	<---	0.845	1					0.785
<b>COM2</b>	<---	0.870	1.005	0.044	22.593	***		0.795
<b>COM4</b>	<--- <b>COM</b>	0.865	1.121	0.06	18.788	***		0.776
<b>COM5</b>	<---	0.885	1.121	0.049	22.76	***		0.807
<b>COM7</b>	<---	0.788	0.843	0.048	17.667	***		0.623

**Table 6.15: Corporate visual identity construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.950		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.92	
Standard factor loading								
<b>CVI1</b>	<---	0.877	1.038	0.092	11.28	***		0.788
<b>CVI2</b>	<---	0.895	1.1	0.095	11.587	***		0.874
<b>CVI3</b>	<---	0.871	0.925	0.034	27.311	***		0.762
<b>CVI4</b>	<---	0.911	1				0.823	

**Table 6.16: Architecture, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, LAYOT construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.960		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.90	
Standard factor loading								
<b>LAYOT2</b>	<---	0.802	1					0.795
<b>LAYOT3</b>	<---	0.793	1.027	0.047	22.017	***		0.868
<b>LAYOT4</b>	<---	0.812	0.974	0.047	20.79	***		0.816
<b>LAYOT6</b>	<---	0.787	1.016	0.038	27.002	***		0.790
<b>LAYOT7</b>	<---	0.799	1.064	0.047	22.683	***		0.856

**Table 6.17: Architecture, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, OUTLAY construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.954		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.88	
Standard factor loading								
<b>OUTLAY1</b>	<---	0.786	1			***		0.906
<b>OUTLAY2</b>	<---	0.819	0.928	0.046	20.374	***		0.813
<b>OUTLAY3</b>	<---	0.774	0.907	0.052	17.517	***		0.680
<b>OUTLAY7</b>	<---	0.839	0.88	0.038	23.28	***		0.821
<b>OUTLAY8</b>	<---	0.821	0.918	0.032	28.987	***		0.817
<b>OUTLAY9</b>	<---	0.814	0.823	0.046	17.891	***		0.653

**Table 6.18: Architecture, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, LOCLAY construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.934		Composite reliability = 0.95				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted	
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	.91	
Standard factor loading								
<b>LOCLAY1</b>	<---	0.807	0.907	0.041	21.871	***		.725
<b>LOCLAY2</b>	<---	0.783	1.075	0.037	28.888	***		.941
<b>LOCLAY4</b>	<---	0.731	1			***	.826	



**Table 6.19: Architecture, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, COMLAY construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.907		Composite reliability = 0.94				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.85
<b>COMLAY2</b> <---	0.813	1.032	0.065	15.89		0.679	
<b>COMLAY3</b> <--- <b>COMLAY</b>	0.933	1.313	0.077	16.953	***	0.881	
<b>COMLAY4</b> <---	0.858	1			***	0.631	

**Table 6.20: Architecture, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, PHSPRCY construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.945		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>AMBIENT CONDITIONS/PHYSICAL STIMULI</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.87
<b>PHSPRCY1</b> <---	0.832	1				0.650	
<b>PHSPRCY3</b> <---	0.906	1.169	0.06	19.603	***	0.850	
<b>PHSPRCY6</b> <---	0.908	1.185	0.064	18.583	***	0.793	
<b>PHSPRCY7</b> <---	0.913	1.191	0.063	18.841	***	0.806	
<b>PHSPRCY8</b> <---	0.880	1.099	0.062	17.85	***	0.743	

**Table 6.21: Architecture, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, PHS construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.857		Composite reliability = 0.92				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>AMBIENT CONDITIONS/PHYSICAL STIMULI</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.82
<b>PHS2</b> <---	0.868	0.862	0.063	13.612		0.517	
<b>PHS4</b> <---	0.887	1			***	0.738	
<b>PHS5</b> <---	0.762	1.085	0.063	17.263	***	0.785	

**Table 6.22: Architecture, symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, ART construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.933		Composite reliability = 0.96				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.85
<b>ART2</b> <---	0.768	1				0.740	
<b>ART3</b> <---	0.792	1.078	0.048	22.476	***	0.790	
<b>ART5</b> <---	0.853	0.989	0.064	15.55	***	0.679	
<b>ART6</b> <---	0.865	1.03	0.066	15.599	***	0.780	
<b>ART7</b> <---	0.837	0.963	0.067	14.453	***	0.644	

**Table 6.23: Architecture, symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, INART construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.964		Composite reliability = 0.87				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.90
<b>INART3</b>	<---	0.870	1			0.847	
<b>INART5</b>	<---	0.842	0.907	0.038	24.187	***	0.766
<b>INART6</b>	<--- <b>INART</b>	0.834	0.909	0.037	24.901	***	0.783
<b>INART7</b>	<---	0.866	1.013	0.033	30.273	***	0.887
<b>INART8</b>	<---	0.859	0.924	0.033	28.28	***	0.852
<b>INART9</b>	<---	0.852	0.873	0.037	23.589		0.749

**Table 6.24: Identification construct**

Reliability Cronbach's alpha = 0.957		Composite reliability = 0.97				Squared multiple correl.	Average variance extracted
<b>IDENTIFICATION</b> Standard factor loading		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Value	0.90
<b>IDN1</b>	<---	0.815	1			***	0.793
<b>IDN2</b>	<---	0.830	1.008	0.041	24.513	***	0.818
<b>IDN3</b>	<--- <b>IDN</b>	0.821	1.074	0.041	26.214	***	0.867
<b>IDN4</b>	<---	0.838	0.96	0.041	23.559	***	0.790
<b>IDN5</b>	<---	0.837	1.04	0.042	24.634	***	0.820

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

## Reliability and Validity of Constructs

According to the authors Hair et al. (2006) and Fornell and Larckers (1981) assess construct validity as a product of two validities: convergent and discriminant validities. The following explains each type.

### I. Measurement of validity (convergent validity)

The validity is the extent to which a set of measuring items correctly represents the underlying theoretical proposed concept (Hair et al., 2006). Convergent validity signifies that a set of items should represent one and the same underlying construct that can be demonstrated through their uni-dimensionality (Fornell and Larckers, 1981; Henseler, 2009, p. 299). In other words, it explains that the correlation between responses obtained through different methods represent the same construct (Peter, 1981). An AVE was originally proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) that attempts to measure the amount of variance which a construct captures from its measuring items relative to the amount due to measurement error. Convergent validity was examined using widely accepted methods

‘average variance extracted’ (AVE), Cronbach alpha, and composite reliability (Hair et al., 2006; Henseler, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Tables 5.12 to 5.24 shows that the composite reliability for all constructs is above 0.87 and average variance extracted for the each construct was higher than the required value 0.82 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), Cronbach’s alpha is above 0.7. All are good indicators of the convergent validity (Fornell and Larckers, 1981).

## II. Measurement of validity (discriminant validity)

The discriminant validity is a complementary concept of convergent validity and refers to the extent to which measures diverge from other operationalisation whereby the construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2006; Peter and Churchill, 1986; Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991).

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) the square-root of average variance extracted for each construct should be greater than the other construct’s correlation with any other (i.e. inter-construct correlation). In this study, discriminant validity was examined to make sure that each construct and its indicators, in the proposed model, differ from any other construct and its indicators. Table 6.25 ensures that each of measuring items within a construct was higher than all of its cross-loadings in row and column. Further evidence for discriminant validity is that estimated correlations among factors were less than the recommended value of 0.92 (Kline, 2005). Furthermore, the diagonal line shows the squared roots of average variance extracted (SRAVE) for each construct, which is higher than any correlation value below it, indicating that the estimated correlations were statistically significant (Fornell and Larckers, 1981; Hair et al., 2006). The result shows that there is no validity concern.

**Table 6.25: Constructs correlation matrix**

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	IDN	CI	PMV	COM	CVI	ARCH.
IDN	0.957	0.818	0.466	0.164	0.904					
CI	0.963	0.840	0.229	0.111	0.389	0.916				
COM	0.940	0.758	0.193	0.095	0.330	0.261	0.871			
CVI	0.945	0.811	0.171	0.095	0.303	0.323	0.326	0.901		
PMV	0.924	0.710	0.004	0.001	-0.040	0.062	-0.037	0.012	0.843	
ARCH.	0.992	0.977	0.466	0.212	0.683	0.479	0.439	0.414	0.011	0.988

Note: Average variance was extracted from the square roots of average variance extracted.

### Structural Model: Hypotheses Testing

Having recognised reliable and validated measurement/outer-model, the next step is to estimate the assumed causal and covariance linear relationship among the exogenous (independent) and endogenous (dependent) latent variables. The structural model allows evaluation of the inner model or path model. The corporate identity, architecture, and identification operational model is illustrated in Figure 6.6. According to the authors Anderson and Gerbing (1982) and Chau (1997) the structural model details the causal associations among theoretical constructs. Based on the structural model, the research hypotheses were examined from the standardised estimate and t-value (critical ratio).

The results of the proposed conceptual model shows a chi-square of 2418.110 (degrees of freedom,  $df = 1650$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) reveals a value of 0.039 (below 0.08) (Hair et al., 2006); comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.962, incremental fit index (IFI) of 0.969, Tucker-Lewis (TLI) of 0.959 (greater than 0.9) (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al. 2006); goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of 0.8, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) of 0.778 which shows they are within the acceptable limits and fit is only marginal (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al. 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). A normed fit index (NFI) score of 0.889 and relative fit index (RFI) score of 0.881 confirm and show that the hypothesised model offers an adequate fit for the research empirical data (Table 6.26). According to Gerbing and Anderson (1993) because there is a lack of agreement among researchers about the best goodness-of-fit-index and because some indices are sensitive to sample size, the best strategy is to adopt several different goodness-of-fit indices.

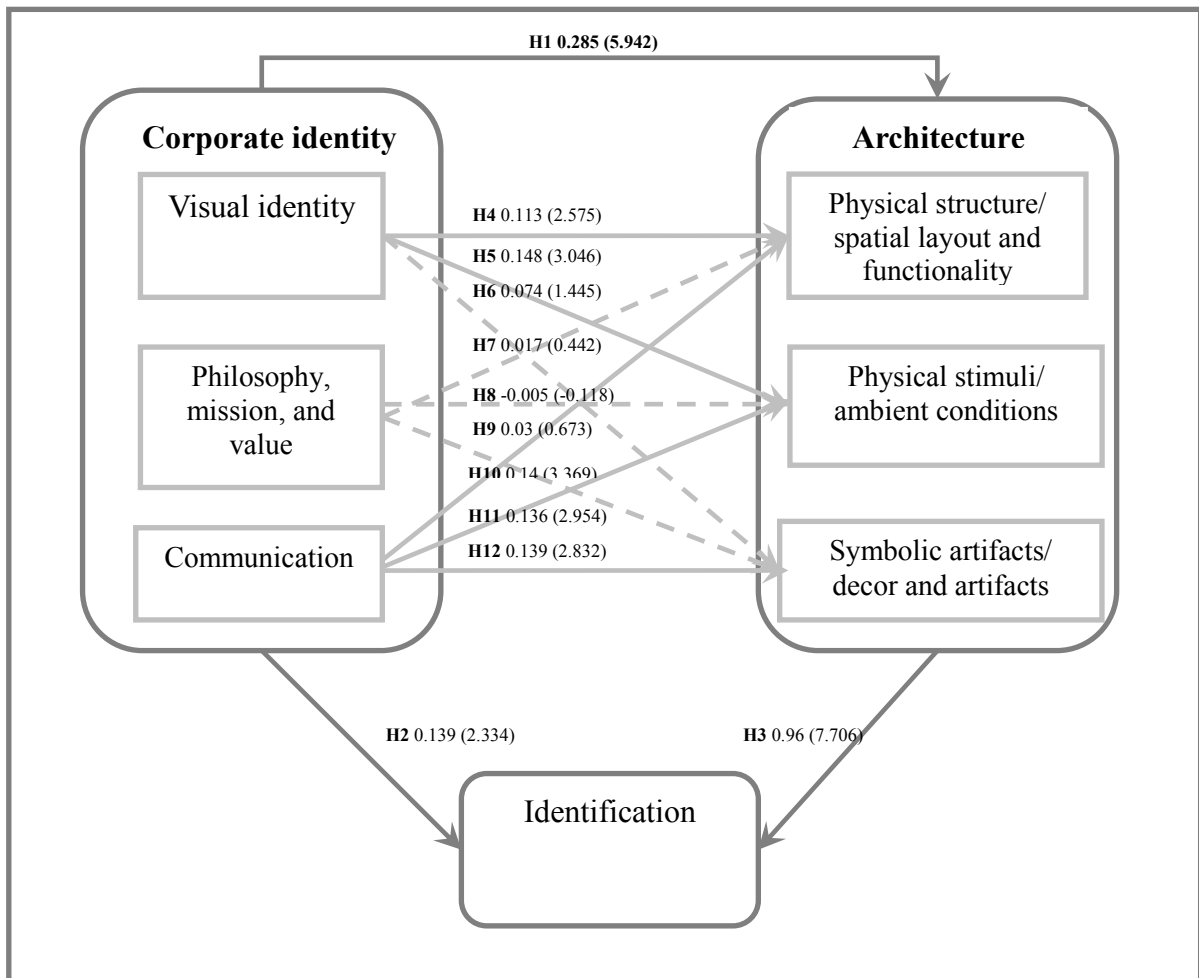
**Table 6.26: Goodness-of-fit indices of model modification**

Model fit indicators								
Chi-square/ $X^2$	Df	RMSEA	GFI	NFI	CFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI
2418.110	1650	0.039	0.8	0.889	0.962	0.778	0.969	0.959
$X^2$ – Chi-square; Df – degree of freedom; RMSEA – Root mean square error of approximation; GFI – Goodness-of-fit index; NFI – Normed fit index; CFI – Comparative fit index; AGFI – Adjusted goodness-of-fit index; and TLI – Tucker-Lewis index								

Figure 6.6 presents the final model with structural path coefficients and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ). In total, twelve hypotheses were examined and the implications of these results are further discussed in Chapter Seven. All the hypotheses of the conceptual model

were statistically supported ( $p < 0.05$ ). The path coefficients represent standardised regression coefficients.

**Figure 6.6: The structural model, standardised coefficients, t-value and variance explained**



Source: Developed by the researcher

Table 6.27 illustrates that the criteria for adequate fit indicated that the fit of the proposed structural model was satisfactory. All the fit indices in this study are within the acceptable limits (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). A major problem faced by the researcher using confirmatory factor analysis is that there are no universally accepted criteria for what constitutes a good fit (Tanaka, 1993). Therefore, there is room for argument in interpreting the findings of an Amos analysis. It can be concluded that the proposed model maintains a good fit from the observed data.

In total, twelve hypotheses were tested and the implications of these results are further discussed in Chapter VI. The path coefficients represent standardised regression coefficients. The structure equation modelling reflects the assumed linear, causal relationships between the constructs which were tested with the data collected from the validated measures. The findings regarding causal paths (standardised path coefficients ( $\beta$ ), standard error, p-value and hypotheses result) and the parameter estimates corresponding to the hypothesised SEM paths and the resulting regression weights are presented in Table 6.27. The standardised regression path between the corporate identity (CI) and architecture (ARCH) is statistically significant (CI ---> ARCH  $\gamma = 0.285$ , t-value = 5.942). This means that H1 is fully supported. H2 is fully supported by the significant relation between corporate identity (CI) and architecture (CI ---> IDN  $\gamma = 0.139$ , t-value = 2.334). Moreover, the paths from architecture and identification (H3) were found to be significant in the hypothesised direction (ARCH ---> IDN  $\gamma = 0.96$ , t-value = 7.706).

**Table 6.27: Results of hypothesis testing**

	Standardised regression paths			Estimate	S.E	C.R	p	Hypothesis
H1	CI	--->	ARCH	0.285	0.048	5.942	***	Supported
H2	CI	--->	IDN	0.139	0.06	2.334	0.02	Supported
H3	ARCH	--->	IDN	0.96	0.125	7.706	***	Supported
H4	CVI	--->	LAYOUT	0.113	0.044	2.575	0.01	Supported
H5	CVI	--->	PHY_STMLI	0.148	0.049	3.046	0.002	Supported
H6	CVI	--->	ARTIFACTS	0.074	0.051	1.445	0.148	Not-Supported
H7	PMV	--->	LAYOUT	0.017	0.038	0.442	0.658	Not-Supported
H8	PMV	--->	PHY_STMLI	-0.005	0.043	-0.118	0.906	Not-Supported
H9	PMV	--->	ARTIFACTS	0.03	0.045	0.673	0.501	Not-Supported
H10	COM	--->	LAYOUT	0.14	0.042	3.369	***	Supported
H11	COM	--->	PHY_STMLI	0.136	0.046	2.954	0.003	Supported
H12	COM	--->	ARTIFACTS	0.139	0.049	2.832	0.005	Supported

\*\*\* p < 0.001

Notes: Path = Relationship between independent variable on dependent variable;  $\beta$  = Standardised regression coefficient; S.E. = Standard error; p = Level of significance.

Moreover, the results show that there is a significant relation between corporate visual identity physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (CVI ---> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 0.113$ , t-value= 2.575) (H4) ( $\gamma=0.347$ , t-value= 3.331). The standardised regression path between the corporate visual identity (CVI) with ambient conditions/physical stimuli are statistically significant (CVI ---> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = 0.148$ , t-value = 3.046) which means that H5 is fully supported.

In contrast, CVI's relationship with symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts was non-significant and the regression path unexpectedly showed a significant negative relationship between these two variables (CVI ---> ARTIFACTS  $\gamma = 0.074$ , t-value = 1.445). In other words, the regression weight for CVI in predicting symbolic artifacts/decor and the artifacts construct is significantly different from 0 at the 0.05 significance level, therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected.

The relationship between philosophy, mission, and value construct (PMV) with physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) were found to be insignificant in the hypothesised direction. The results were found to be insignificant in the hypothesised direction H7, H8 and H9 are not supported per the significant relation between PMV and LAYOUT, PHY\_STMLI, and ARTIFACTS with architecture (ARCH) ( $\gamma = 0.017$ , t-value = 0.442;  $\gamma = -0.005$ , t-value = -0.118;  $\gamma = 0.03$ , t-value = 0.673 respectively). Thus, the hypotheses H7, H8, and H9 were rejected because they were not statistically significant.

Furthermore, the relationship between communication (COM) and structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT) (H10), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) were significant and the regression path showed a significant positive relationship between COM and architecture components' variables (COM ---> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 3.369$ ; COM ---> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = 0.136$ , t-value = 2.954; COM ---> ARTIFACTS  $\gamma = 0.139$ , t-value = 2.832) (Table 6.28).

**Table 6.28: The results in terms of the rejected and supported hypotheses**

<b>Hypotheses</b>		<b>Results</b>
<b>RQ1:</b> What is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?		
<b>H1</b>	The more favourable the attitude consumers have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture.	Supported
<b>RQ2:</b> What is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?		
<b>H2</b>	The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the more they identify themselves with that company.	Supported
<b>RQ3:</b> What is the relationship between architecture and identification?		
<b>H3</b>	The more favourable the architecture is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the more they identify themselves with that company.	Supported
<b>RQ4:</b> What is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?		
<b>H4</b>	The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Supported
<b>H5</b>	The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Supported
<b>H6</b>	The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Not-Supported
<b>H7</b>	The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Not-Supported
<b>H8</b>	The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Not-Supported
<b>H9</b>	The more favourable the philosophy, mission and value is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Not-Supported
<b>H10</b>	The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Supported
<b>H11</b>	The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Supported
<b>H12</b>	The more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders.	Supported



#### **6.4. SUMMARY**

This chapter presents the findings from qualitative and quantitative research. The results of the qualitative phase of the study sought to address a number of aims and research questions. In addition, the qualitative study aims to gather more in-depth information to advance the understanding of the architecture and its dimensions, corporate identity and its dimensions and the relevant factors affecting identification. The results of the focus groups and interviews (qualitative analysis) were presented. These results were structured around the main themes recognised from the literature. The results illustrate that (i) corporate identity, architecture, and identification are mutually influential, (ii) the relationship between identity and architecture is more complicated than mutual influence, (iii) identity, architecture, identification are symbiotic, and related to each other. Identification can be inferred from, and enacted by, identity and architecture. A conceptual model of the interplay between corporate identity, architecture and identification was developed on the basis of the qualitative study and literature reviews alike.

In addition, this chapter reported the data analysis of this study to answer the main research question and to quantitatively test the research hypotheses. First, data preparation and scanning were used to ensure that the data are normally distributed. The descriptive analysis showed there was no of missing data due to collection of the questionnaire in person. Some skewness and kurtosis was present in the responses. The two-step procedure of Anderson and Gerbing (1988), which required measurement models to be estimated before the structural analysis, was followed. The items for the exogenous constructs were derived from the previous literature. After running the reliability and EFA test, it was decided to exclude eight items (PMV2, LAYOT1, LOCLAY3, LOCLAY5, PHS6, ART1, ART8, and ART10) as they were highly cross-loaded on other factors that could not be theoretically justified, had low communalities or low reliability.

The second part of data analysis is the use of SEM, which was conducted in two stages, the measurement model and the structural model. In the first stage, the fit of measurement model was assessed by using a CFA. At this point the assessment, of all indicators was highly loaded on their specified factors and the overall goodness-of-fit indices suggesting acceptance of the model. Each construct was then tested for reliability and validity. Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability and average variance extracted were examined. Accordingly, all

constructs were found to be reliable. In addition, convergent, discriminant and nomological validity for each construct were confirmed.

In the next stage, the assessment of the structural model, has also been undertaken. The structural model results showed a good fit of the model to the data. From twelve pathways, surprisingly, four pathways were not supported (CVI --> ARTIFACTS; PMV --> LAYOUT; PMV --> PHY\_STMLI; and PMV --> ARTIFACTS). However, eight pathways were significant and hypotheses were supported and the model provides a strong test of the hypothesised relationships between the constructs of interest. In addition, having examined standardised residual and modification indices, re-specification for the structural model was not needed.

## **CHAPTER VII: OUTCOMES FROM THE NEW BUILDING IN TERMS OF IMPROVED BBS RANKINGS AND COMPETITIVE POSITION**

### **7.1. INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter presents the findings from qualitative research to better understand the contextualisation of the study, namely, to place the case of the Brunel Business School in context in terms of its history, positioning and branding to answer ‘where does BBS come from? ‘Where would BBS like to go?’ and ‘what is needed as a more precise description of BBS identity, the position it aspires to and its strategic intent?’.

The main aim of this chapter is the outcomes from the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position from the perception of fifteen interviews (School Manager, Operations Administrator, Operations and Finance Manager, Research Student Administration, Senior Lecturer, and a Lecturer) and 6 focus groups (Staff and Doctoral Researchers) at Brunel Business School (BBS). Section 7.2 explains the BBS ranking and competitive position. The main outcomes from the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position are illustrated in Section 7.3. Section 7.4 summarises the chapter.

### **7.2. BBS RANKINGS AND COMPETITIVE POSITION**

In an endeavour to achieve the research objectives, which are stated in Chapter I, the researcher faced the challenge of investigating the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and multiple-internal stakeholders’ identification from the middle-ranked and London-based Business School. The main outcome from the new building was to improve the BBS rankings and its competitive position. Brunel Business School (BBS) moved to a new building in 2012. The Brunel Business School (Eastern Gateway Building) is located on the north side of the campus and creates a stunning entrance to the University Campus. This £32m building has state of the art facilities with 7,000m<sup>2</sup> over four floors to house the Business School Faculty, students and leading edge research activities as well as an art

gallery. The Beldam Gallery, which is the University's art gallery and regularly displays exhibitions of local and national artists, as well as the work produced by members of the Brunel Art Centre in the cafeteria and in the building atrium (please see Chapter IV).

Whetten (1989) states that the conditions of the research set the boundary for the theory and aid the generalisability of the findings. The middle-ranked London-based Business School was chosen by a preliminary literature review on this sector for several reasons. First of all, according to the patterns and trends in UK higher education, UK higher education institutions have seen rapid growth in the sector, with total student numbers rising from just under 2 million in 2000-2001 to around 2.5 million by 2010-2011. The majority of the provision continues to be delivered in higher education institutions in receipt of public funding from the government funding councils. About 93% of higher education provision has been delivered in publicly funded institutions throughout the past five years. Recent policy changes, however, may lead to a shift in the balance between higher education and further education. In addition, the government has recently signalled its intention to support the entry of new providers to the market (p. 5).

Along with the expansion at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, growth in student numbers has largely come from a significant increase in the number of international students studying at UK universities. The UK is a popular international destination for students (Larsen and Vincent-Lancrin, 2002) and is well established in the history of higher education with an international reputation (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007). According to Bolsmann and Miller (2008), the higher education industry has been identified by governments as a strategic sector to attract more foreign students. The English language is an important competitive advantage and the UK has been identified as one of the main exporters of higher education services (Bolsmann and Miller, 2008, p. 284-286). For two decades or so, the provision of education for international students has emerged as a prominent growth area in the service sector. By 1997, British exports of education and training accounted for over 9 billion pounds (Bennell and Pearce, 2003) and the growth increased from 2.5 per cent between 1999 and 2000 to 5 per cent between 2001 and 2002. In addition, not only is there an increasing proportion of the UK population that holds a higher education qualification, but also, the percentage of the UK labour force aged 30 to 34 with a higher education qualification has increased from 30% to 50% between 2001 and 2011 (patterns and trends in UK higher

education, 2012). These changes in the market encourage competition in the higher education market in the UK (Tooley et al., 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010). To improve performance and budget allocations, university ranking tables are used by universities to improve performance and budget allocations.

To explain the ranking patterns of UK Business Schools, the institutional theory was used (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). The UK schools that were recognised as centres of national excellence for management education in the 1980s were all represented in the 2010 Financial Times global ranking (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). In the 2010 ranking, institutions from 20 different countries were represented, but 56 of the top 100 schools were US-based and 17 UK-based (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). One of the greatest influences on league table positions is research performance. It is high quality research (research output assessed by peers on the basis of traditional academic criteria: theory-based, contributing to scientific knowledge, published in top-journals) that achieves high research rankings (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012).

Surveys have found that school rankings have more influence on the decision-making process. There is a clear relationship between school rankings and student performance (Elbeck, 2009, p. 84), and, upon graduation, students from the top schools secure the highest paid jobs (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). Rankings have a significant impact on a school's ability to attract the top scholars, the most able students and research funding (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012). Schools use rankings to support claims of excellence and 'world class' status (Peters, 2007). These candidates are more attractive prior to their course and are logically more attractive with the added value of their course (Peters, 2007). Not only are they inherently more attractive, but, of course, recruiters also read rankings and will recruit from highly ranked schools. Since there are simply too many schools to choose from in the total pool, recruiters select 10-15 schools that fit the profiles that they seek (Peters, 2007). In 2010, there were over 250,000 full-time equivalent students taking a business or management programme, which accounted for 15% of all students in UK higher education (Williams, 2010).

Research has shown that leaders in higher education are concerned about the impact of rankings and they are increasingly responsive and reactive to them. Brunel University's

mission and vision is driven by the dedication to excellence and quality in everything the University does. The Strategic Plan for 2012-2017 points the way to the realisation of an ambitious set of Priorities and Objectives. It has been designed to confirm Brunel's place in the top third of UK Higher Education Institutions, as a University with a robust plan of development, a strong aspiration to greatly improve its educational and research activities, and a clear sense of self-determination ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction), 2014). The pathway that runs through the plan is characterised by the desire to consolidate our strengths, to integrate further our research and educational activities, to optimise its infrastructure and accelerate its success. All of the activities are underpinned by a single Mission, which acts as the guiding principle behind what the University does as a Higher Education Institution.

Given the significance of UK higher education, Brunel Business School was chosen as the setting for the present research. The history of Brunel University is a story of exponential growth and consistent academic development. Having received its Royal Charter in 1966, Brunel will be celebrating its 50th anniversary in 2016. Over the past 45 years, the University has firmly established itself as a dedicated provider of quality higher education allied to industry, with a strong culture of research, and a constant focus on work-relevant study through its work-placement system. Brunel has always been a dynamic place to work and study, constantly reinventing itself, whilst managing to remain true to its origins and relevant to the needs of the wider society. Brunel is a vibrant international community of students and academics from 110 countries worldwide. Brunel's research addresses real-world issues and has found truly life-changing solutions. In addition, Brunel graduates are amongst the most employable – and most highly paid – in the UK. Also, Brunel has outstanding facilities and services on a single modern, self-contained campus ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs), 2014).

Brunel University's mission is to create knowledge and advance understanding, and equip versatile graduates with the confidence to apply what they have learnt for the benefit of society. Brunel University's vision is to be a world-class creative community that is inspired to work, think and learn together to meet the challenges of the future ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/introduction), 2014).

As a research-intensive university, Brunel places great value on the usefulness of the research,

which improves the understanding of the world around Brunel and provides up to the minute teaching. Research is responsible for much of the collaborative work with business, industry and the public sector, providing opportunities for work experience, and demonstrates the commitment to producing professionally minded graduates that employers want to recruit. The 2008 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) judged 82% of its research to be of international standing, leading to a 54.5% increase in its research funding from the Higher Education Funding Council, compared to the sector average increase of 7.8% ([brunel.ac.uk/about/campus](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/campus), 2014).

In support of the Brunel Mission, Brunel adheres to a set of core values. These ‘ethical guidelines’ give meaning to what the university does, and provide each and every member of the Brunel community – whether staff or students, academic or non-academic – with a sense of what they consider to be the most desirable way of working together: quality, excellence prevails in the education Brunel offers, in the research that Brunel conducts and in the services that Brunel provides: (i) ideas, creativity, invention, innovation, and a general spirit of discovery are fostered in all aspects of Brunel work; (ii) Brunel acts with integrity and treats each person with dignity and respect, and is committed to fairness in all practices, policies and procedures; (iii) clarity, openness and clarity of purpose are key to how Brunel communicates internally and with the outside world; (iv) Brunel encourages, supports and empowers members of its community to achieve individual and collective goals; (v) Brunel has a shared responsibility for developing the University, and they want everyone to feel that they can contribute to their success; (vi) partnerships, collaborations within the University, and between the University and external partners, are enriching and rewarding; (vii) planned sustainable development (financially, socially and environmentally) is crucially important to securing the future; (viii) Brunel has the confidence to be the architect of Brunel’s own future, and to be proactive in improving the professional environment ([brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/core-values](http://brunel.ac.uk/about/strategic-plan/core-values), 2014).

Brunel has always had a strong sense of self-determination and autonomy, which has enabled it to develop and grow from its early beginnings into a highly respected research-intensive university, with a broad portfolio of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes attracting staff and students from across the world and increasing the attractiveness of the institutions in the international markets (Bradshaw, 2007). According to Bradshaw (2007), while recruiters

and students use the rankings to help select programmes and managers, Business School rankings are probably here to stay (p. 60). The main object behind all subsequent degree rankings from the Financial Times has determined the three planks on which the rankings are based on: (i) the career progress of alumni; (ii) the international focus of the programme; and (iii) the idea generation (research capabilities) of the school.

There is nothing quite as likely to raise a Business School dean's blood pressure as the topic of media rankings (Bradshaw, 2007). The different rankings can produce very different results. Business Schools promote themselves through media rankings – be it Business Week, the Economist Intelligence Unit, the FT, Forbes or the US News and World Report – which produces surprising results. In addition, the Business School deans use their ranking position most actively in their marketing and promotion. The challenge for Business Schools is to develop ways of best using the data published (Bradshaw, 2007). Rankings are significant drivers of a school's reputation. Good performance can double enquiries and applications and allow schools to charge prestige premiums (Peters, 2007). According to Peters (2007), positive university/school rankings improve quality. The increased selectivity at admissions allows schools to pick the best possible candidates. Business Schools globally operate in a market-driven environment and rankings are very much part of that environment (Wilkins and Huisman, 2012).

The latest Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), carried out in all UK universities in 2008, judged 82% of Brunel research to be of international standing. As a result of this success, the university secured a 54.5% increase in the level of its research funding from the Higher Education Funding Council, rising to £12.9 million for 2009/10. The higher education sector averaged an increase of just 7.8% ([thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel](http://thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel), 2014). Brunel Business School is a dynamic and ambitious environment that fosters and promotes world-class learning, excellence in teaching, whilst creating a global professional advantage for all its students. BBS is well recognised by numerous international bodies and features prominently in many league tables ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings), 2014). Evidence of esteem is demonstrated in the following:



- Brunel Business School won the Business School of the Year Award by the Times Higher Education Awards, held in association with Santander Universities and supported by the Higher Education Academy in 2013.
- In the top seven best Business Schools in London.
- The Complete University Guide 2014 ranked Brunel Business School 3rd in London for student satisfaction and 6th in London for business studies.
- Sunday Times University Guide 2013 ranked Brunel Business School 4th in London and 21st in UK for business and management studies.
- The Times Good University Guide 2013 ranked Brunel Business School 6th in London and 45th in UK for business and management studies.
- Financial Times ranked Brunel Business School 6th in London, top 20 in UK and in the top 75 in Europe in 2011.
- Guardian University Guide 2014 ranked Brunel Business School 7th in London and 44th in UK for business and management studies.
- Brunel Business School was shortlisted for the Business School of the Year Award by the Times Higher Education and Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) in 2012.
- Brunel University has been ranked 1st in London, 6th in UK and 35th in the world in a new world ranking of the top 100 universities founded in the last 50 years by Times Higher Education.
- The Financial Times placed its Masters in Management programme at 8th globally for Career Progression in 2011.
- The Masters in Management programme was in 56th place globally according to the Financial Times in 2011.
- Brunel University is ranked 5th in London for student satisfaction according to the National Student Survey.
- Brunel has gone up by 20 places in the 2013 QS World University Rankings and is now in position 331 in the world.
- Brunel University has been awarded one of the most prestigious awards – the Queen's Anniversary Prize for Further and Higher Education for its ground-breaking research
- The last Research Assessment Exercise (2008) placed Brunel Business School in the top 25% of UK Business Schools, with 80% of its staff deemed to be producing work of international excellence ([brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings](http://brunel.ac.uk/bbs/about-us/rankings), 2014).

- Brunel maintained a good performance overall in the 2013 NSS with outstanding success for the Library and Academic Skills Service (thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/brunel, 2014).

## 7.2. OUTCOMES FROM THE NEW BUILDING IN TERMS OF IMPROVED BBS RANKINGS AND COMPETITIVE POSITION

Industry identity is underlying economic and technical characteristics of an industry. Industry size, growth patterns, rates of change, competitiveness and use of technology are some of the elements of these characteristics (Olins, 1995). One respondent also described how they would describe today's higher education sector in the UK in this regard. "It is big big confusion these days. Politicians hate HE, I think it is very difficult situation in UK, it is more and more competition, and many private colleges opened recently, more competition, massive marketplace, and different levels. We as a university need to compete with other universities in our level to distinguish us. So, we differentiate ourselves through research. We need to take into deliberation is they are taking the cap off. We need to consider that how many students we have next year. All higher-ranking universities have their own number of students as far as they want, we do have as well. However, they have better students than us. We need to get there. The competition in the UK is really out of control in any way". As one participant recounted:

*"UK is famous for HE system for undergraduate and post grad in global market. We are top of the league. It is not just about students wanting a UK degree; it is the way that they prefer the teaching and learning system in classes. Post grads like us because courses are 1 year and are shorter than different countries like the US. We try to spend time to train our staff to understand their role, they are really good, but it is difficult. Research is the key for us, and is very much admired" (Professor)*

Some respondents in follow-up interviews stated:

*"In my view, the higher education environment has being commercialized in my view. The Russell group is having the cap taken off its numbers. We try to play the same game. We are trying as much as we could to grow. High ranking unis see growth in students as a way to fund their research. The game roles are changing. We are very well placed. For many students we are the first choice and I think to attract students we are doing very well, especially in terms of*

*international students. In terms of our products or courses, we are what they want, unique courses, top professors” (Senior Lecturer)*

*“But I assume there is a lot of turmoil and ambiguity. We are looking for more innovative things and ways to compete with higher-ranking universities but we are a top London based university now ... HE industry supports Universities and has influence on the initiation of marketing and branding programmes in universities. Also, it creates strategies around keywords, such as transparency and comparability” (Focus group 6)*

In addition, academics commented:

*“As far as I know, university branding is an important area in marketing and in HE, higher education, employees have a critical role...” The key element of BBS branding is related to the leadership characteristics, his charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation influences on employees and we transmit it to our students” (Focus group 6)*

*“I think our internal branding was the key point which was focused on in our schools’ brand values, which has helped to create a consistent brand message and distribute the full promise of the BBS brand to our external stakeholders and consumerism” (Lecturer)*

During the interview, participants also said to what extent they felt that the School is keeping abreast of the changes and developments that are occurring within the Business School and sector in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world. Two respondents in follow-up interviews stated:

*“Interesting question but difficult to answer. We were not market leader but we believe we will be shaper. We never thought about it till 2009. We are trying to react to all changes and trying to involve shaping it” (Senior Lecturer)*

*“I think we are and we are keeping our eyes open all the time, we are very much concerned about what is going on. We are watched by everyone. We are concerned about what other schools are doing to become head of the game” (Operations Administrator)*

Similarly, in the current study, managers comment on some aspects of the differentiation, for example:

*“Differentiation, noticeably we are trying to distinguish about enterprising graduates and our staff, our ambition and our worldwide positioning... But again, personally, I believe, we make a connection between the academic world, the real world, and how the global world works. Brunel has quite a distinctive pattern. It is very worldwide, its reach is very worldwide, its academics are both*

*practitioners and researchers and for that reason our students are very associated and prepared for the real world. You might say all unis are doing this, but we are uniquely grounded, realistic and practical. Combining all factors with hygienic factors, creates our students' experiences. Their experiences make them return and continue their study with us or are our loyal alumni and also they recommend us to others" (Professor)*

*"Every school is expert in different fields, such as City which is expert in fields that we are not. We have more research students than the rest. I think we need to invest in our distance learning... We create the best experiences for our students, high quality environment, updated systems, and most hygienic factors, which make us different to others. So we are managing our brand touch points really carefully" (Professor)*

*"I believe there is a clear point of differentiation of BBS in my point of view, from my vast experience, you know, as an academic, you know, it is distinctive points about BBS as like a brand ... I've been working as an academic for over 15 years, and I've associated throughout my academic scholarly interests with people from other universities abroad, but mainly in the UK, like older universities than us, Russell group and whatever. With the clear changes, we compete with them and become strong, strong in terms of, teaching and research strengths" (Senior Lecturer)*

The relationship between BBS building and industry identity has been highlighted by focus group respondents and academics participants in the following comments:

*"... It looks like the school has changed its mission and the new BBS building has created more value which impacts an individual's perception, for example, we react to visual stimuli with colour, design and depth perception...By contributing our vision, the teaching and education system at Brunel can be perceived as a golden door for students and enables them to pursue their dreams... BBS is a welcoming purpose built school, which I found was very supported by teachers and parents working together in a spirit of mutual trust and respect and I feel appreciated for what my teachers do best. I found respect here for each individual student. We pay money and we spend time and energy, and our teachers are helping us to succeed" (Focus Group 1).*

*"I think BBS has great educational opportunities, quality academic interest in a safe, secure, and loving atmosphere, I think our teachers have high expectations... I feel the educational leader promotes the success of all students by enabling the development" (Focus Group 1).*

*"Before moving to the UK to study, I checked the university website and I found it very difficult to search. Since I moved here, the ranking of the university has increased, which makes me and my family proud. I really like the university as a safe, clean, and aesthetically pleasing school environment, which creates and maintains the school goals" (Focus Group 1).*

In addition, from the interviews, respondents also described from their perspective as follows:

*“I think with the new building, we have a new image among outsiders, which improves the outsiders’ perception towards us. They see us differently from in the past. Our new brand corporate identity encapsulates and conveys the symbolic meanings and should ensure that we all continue to present BBS in ways that are relevant to our new markets. Our corporate communications are responsible for managing the BBS visual identity programme more clearly. All our documents should provide clarity and avoid ambiguity for people both internally and externally” (Research Student Administration).*

*“I think the building is part of the corporate visual identity of BBS and plays a significant role in the way BBS presents itself to both internal and external stakeholders by expressing its values and ambitions and its characteristics. By the new building BBS distinguishes itself from other buildings in the Uni. Three of these are aimed at external stakeholders. I wish the employees were participating in the process which could impact on more contributing to employees’ identification” (Senior Lecturer).*

*“The new building is part of the visual identity of the school, it creates and promotes brand awareness for the BBS, to promote the school’s identity and its uniqueness, and differentiates it from other academic institutions. The goal is to increase the schools’ reputation and attractiveness and to communicate its mission, its values and ethics... With all the strategies they developed and implemented to strengthen the identity and corporate image, through the use of the building; however, our Facebook pages or brochures are not consistent with the message in respect of all BBS projects, actions, media, web, video, multi-media, stationery and contents” (Focus Group 1).*

### **7.3. SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the findings from the qualitative research from fifteen interviews (School Manager, Operations Administrator, Operations and Finance Manager, Research Student Administration, Senior Lecturer, and a Lecturer) and six focus groups (Staff and Doctoral Researchers) at Brunel Business School (BBS). This section presented the main outcomes from the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position.

Chapter VIII discusses the above findings in detail in order to answer the outlined research questions in Chapter I. Additionally, it describes the implications for both practice and theory; illustrates the limitations of this research; portrays the directions for further research; and identifies the final conclusions. Table 7.1 illustrates the summary of the outcomes from the

interviews and Times Higher Education Report 2015 on business school ranking regarding the new building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position.

**Table 7.1: Outcomes from the new BBS building in terms of improved BBS rankings and competitive position**

<b>The new BBS building</b>
Has improved the differentiation strategy of BBS from the other Business Schools in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world
Has improved the School's position in the market
Has improved the school's position in the market relation to the other Schools in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world
Has improved the branding of BBS
Has improved the quality of the services and the courses BBS provide to the students
Has influenced the economic and technical characteristics of an industry
Has influenced the industry size, growth patterns, rates of change, competitiveness and use of technology
Has improved the school ranking, nationally and internationally
Has improved the BBS brand in the UK, Europe and the rest of the world
Has improved to attract the top international scholars
Has improved the expansion at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels special international students
Has improved the students' and lecturers' performances
Has improved the research performance
Has improved the educational and research activities
Has become a dynamic place to work and study
Has become a research-intensive university
Has improved the career progress of alumni
Has improved the international focus of the programme
Has improved the idea generation (research capabilities) of the school
Has improved the school's reputation
Has improved the prestige premiums among competitors
Has improved BBS market-driven environment
Has become a more innovative school
Has improved brand values
Has improved distribution the full promise of the BBS brand to the external stakeholders and consumerism
Has improved the outsiders' perception toward BBS
Has improved the BBS brand awareness

Has improved the BBS corporate image
Has improved the BBS employees and students' identification
Has improved the visual identity of the University and School
Has improved the communication of the School to the schools' stakeholders nationally and internationally

Source: The Researcher

## **CHAPTER VIII: DISCUSSION**

### **8.1. INTRODUCTION**

The previous Chapter provides a detailed overview of the findings from qualitative and quantitative research in the context of the research objectives, a single case study, a multi-internal stakeholder perspective of a London-based middle-ranked Business School, constitutes an explanatory investigation of the corporate identity, architecture, identification triad and its antecedents and the resultant theoretical framework. The dissertation draws on social identity and attribution theories. This doctoral research focuses on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. Based on the multi-disciplinary approach, the research generated four empirical insights; (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on the Business School architecture on five dimensions.

As discussed in Chapter II, IV, and V, this research used a survey-based case study approach, involving a quantitative study and a less-dominant qualitative study (interview and focus group) in the first stage of the research to re-develop measurement scales and examine hypotheses that have received little attention to date (Deshpande, 1983; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992). The existing theory presented in the literature review and Fifteen follow-up interviews with communication and design consultants and the observations of Six focus groups with academics, with reference to the research objectives, are used to support the discussion (see Table 4.8 and 4.9). Details of the selection of personnel for interview and the nature of the interviews are set out in Chapter IV. Chapter V explains how the items of adopted scales were subjected to several rounds of adjustments and finally, the acceptable measurement properties were found. All the constructs were tested for reliability and validity and the results suggest that all scales satisfied widely accepted criteria with the minimum



reliability of 0.875. According to the Chapter IV, the conceptual proposed framework was generally supported. Furthermore, the findings were supportive of 8 out of the 12 hypotheses.

Based on the findings from a multi-disciplinary approach, the research generated four empirical insights; (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on Business School architecture on five dimensions, which will be discussed in more detail in this Chapter.

This chapter aims to interpret the results in greater detail and to fulfill the objectives of this research by answering the research questions and testing the relationships in the proposed conceptual framework. The overview of the study is presented in 8.2. Architecture as the main focal construct is discussed in Section 8.3. The findings of the hypothesis testing are reviewed and compared with the qualitative information (in-depth interviews and focus groups), as well as past research and theoretical expectations are reviewed in Section 8.4. Following this, the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and identification are discussed in Section 8.4. Section 6.5 will discuss the hypotheses examination. Finally, Section 6.6 will summarise this chapter.

## **8.2. OVERVIEW OF STUDY**

The motivation for this study was the requirement for greater clarity in the conceptualisation and measurement of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification. The research also recognised the antecedents of customer identity and architecture and its influence on identification within the context of the London-based middle-ranked Business School. The subject is significant because in the last decades, architecture has been used to provide favourable visual cues and its power resides in its ability to speak louder than words in forming and reinforcing corporate identity (Gorb, 1992; Nguyen, 2006). The identity of organisations can be conveyed through consistency in the design and visual appearance of company buildings (Kirby and Kent, 2010, p. 438). Company building, the innovations in technology, office furnishings, the push toward more environmentally friendly offices and the desirability of environmental elements of organisation are major elements which create and

communicate corporate image for service organisations (Abratt, 1989; Bitner, 1990, 1992; Schmitt et al., 1995; Ward and Barnes, 2001). As a consequence, a visual expression as an affective organisational commitment is one's feeling of commitment to, loyalty or identification with an organisation (McElroy and Morrow, 2010). However, so far, limited empirical research has been carried out in this area to capture the definition of the concept of architecture (Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Kirby and Kent, 2010). In addition, the assumption of Elsbach (2003) and Rooney, (2010) that there is a relationship between corporate identity and architecture has not been tested and validated yet.

In order to answer the research questions, this study is based on multi-disciplinary, survey-based, single-case study (Powell and Butterfield 1997; Marin and de Maya, 2013). Based on the scholars (Creswell, 2003; Deshpande, 1983; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992), qualitative approach was employed in the first phase of the research by investigating the research concepts from the previous literature in order to re-develop the research measurement scales (Churchill, 1979). A sequential approach was consisting of a qualitative study, which acts as the underpinning for the quantitative research, and was employed in prior to quantitative study. The qualitative stage was implemented to support the measurement items and deeper understanding about the topic that has received little attention to date (Deshpande, 1983; Zinkhan and Hirschheim, 1992) and comprehended the constructs in the conceptual model.

In the next phase of this research, a quantitative approach was used in order to develop a robust theoretical model and explain the association between architecture and other significant factors. A questionnaire was designed based on the related reviewed literature and complimented the first phase. Face and content validity of the measurement scales was assessed during the interviews and some items were dropped (Churchill, 1979). The theoretical model was then operationalised in this phase.

Next, the developed questionnaire was purified through a pilot study and the developed scale was examined by using statistical data reduction techniques, i.e., i) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in the pilot study by using SPSS 20 and ii) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in the main survey. The quantitative data was analysed by using Amos 18.0 and the results of reliability, convergent, nomological and discriminant validity examination signifies that the measurement of the research constructs (corporate identity, architecture, and identification)

was satisfied. In testing the hypothesised model, the majority of the relationships proposed between the constructs were statistically confirmed, except for the four links between corporate visual identity (CVI) and (ARTIFACTS) (H6) as well as PMV (philosophy, mission, and value) and physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS); and (iii) finally, the overall structural model is assessed and a discussion of these results is described in the next section.

The conceptual model was developed based on the relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. The model was therefore examined employing a sample of multiple internal-stakeholders. The outcome of the tests exhibits strong support for the model. Specifically, the measurement model is tested in the main study using a convenience sample of students at Business School. The confirmatory factor analysis illustrated that the model received a significant fit to the data. The chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) = 2418.110, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) reveals a value of 0.039 (below .08) (Hair et al., 2006); comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.962, incremental fit index (IFI) of 0.969, Tucker-Lewis (TLI) of 0.959 (greater than 0.9) (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al. 2006); goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of 0.962, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) of 0.778 which shows they are within the acceptable limits and fit is only marginal (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Byrne, 2001; Hair et al. 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). A normed fit index (NFI) score of 0.889 and relative fit index (RFI) score of 0.881 confirm that the hypothesised model offers an adequate fit for the research empirical data.

According to the hypothesis tests, the relationship between corporate identity and architecture was significant and the regression path showed a significant positive relationship between these two variables (CI ---> ARCH  $\gamma$  = 0.285, t-value = 5.942). Furthermore, the results found to be significant in the hypothesised direction H2 is fully supported by the significant relation between corporate identity (CI) and architecture (CI ---> IDN  $\gamma$  = 0.139, t-value = 2.334). Moreover, the paths from architecture and identification (H3) found to be significant in the hypothesised direction (ARCH ---> IDN  $\gamma$  = 0.96, t-value = 7.706).

The relationships between the corporate visual identity (CVI) and physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (CVI ---> LAYOUT, H4) and ambient conditions/physical stimuli

(CVI ---> PHY\_STMLI, H5) are statistically significant ( $\gamma = 0.113$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 2.575$  and  $\gamma = 0.148$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 3.046$  respectively). Whereas H6 (CVI ---> ARTIFACTS) which hypothesises the relationship between CVI with symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts was non-significant and the regression path unexpectedly showed a significant negative relationship between these two variables and different from 0 at the 0.001 significance level ( $\gamma = 0.074$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 1.445$ ).

Furthermore, the relationship between philosophy, mission, and value construct (PMV) with physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) were not significantly related, where the hypotheses H7 (PMV --> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 0.017$ ), H8 (PMV --> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = -0.005$ ), and H9 (PMV --> ARTIFACTS  $\gamma = 0.03$ ) were rejected as they were not significantly different from 0 at the 0.001 (Table 5.30).

Moreover, the results illustrate that there is significant relation between communication (COM) and structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT) (H10) ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) and the regression path showed a significant positive relationship between COM and architecture components' variables (COM ---> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 3.369$ ; COM ---> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = 0.136$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 2.954$ ; COM ---> ARTIFACTS  $\gamma = 0.139$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 2.832$ ). More details of the outcome will be discussed below in this chapter by summarising the supporting evidence for the hypotheses.

### **8.3. ARCHITECTURE (FOCAL CONSTRUCT)**

Despite the significance of the theme of architecture, the construct of architecture is not well defined in the marketing literature (Unwin, 2009). From the literature review, few definitions of architecture were provided in Chapter II and also analysis of those conceptualisations and measurement of it were provided. Drawing on multi-disciplinary literatures, the domain of architecture was identified and it was conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct and it encompasses physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts. Inadequate empirical study has been done on architecture from the internal-stakeholders' perspective. Architecture can be defined as an art and it is a significant piece of symbolism that operates in a competitive environment

(Balmer, 2005; He and Balmer, 2005; Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005; Huppertz, 2005; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2006; Van den Bosch et al., 2006), which is associated with the image of the organisation (Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005). Therefore, this study attempted to gain a meaningful degree of understanding of multi-internal stakeholders' perception of the company's architecture.

In the preliminary stage of this study, the findings of the exploratory fieldwork were treated as indicative only due to the qualitative nature of the study, interviews and follow-up focus groups - evidence was gathered that supported the conceptualisation. In addition, it was recommended that the research measurement items should enable a customisation of the scale measurement to the business unit. Based on the preliminary classification, and the findings from qualitative study, the scale of architecture was supported, validated and examined in university units. Managers showed agreement with the scale and commented that it measured the essential dimensions of architecture. The empirically examined item scale supported a tri-dimensional construct with re-defined dimensions, as some of the scale items did not group entirely as initially expected.

The quantitative findings allowed the architecture scale to be modified and simplified. In particular, architecture is considered as an important part of corporate identity which often shapes a company's visual identity and plays a vital role in the way companies present themselves, both to internal and external stakeholder (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar, 2003; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Melewar et al., 2006; Melewar et al., 2006). In addition, the three aspects of the architecture construct were considered in the context of Brunel Business School, Brunel University, Uxbridge, UK.

With regard to the underlying dimensions that constitute the construct of architecture, this research scrutinises the three main antecedents from the literature review and qualitative study (See Chapter II and V), which are: physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts.

In addition to the statistical findings, the results of follow-up in the preliminary exploratory stage of this research supported and validated the architecture scale. Interviewees commented during the exploratory stage and confirmed the scale, which measures the architecture,

therefore externally validating the scale. The empirical results demonstrate that physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts have a strong influence on corporate identity and contribute to enhancing the multi-internal stakeholders' perception. The results are applicable to the context of the current study and are fully accepted. In addition, the factors were examined and they illustrated a good fit of indices in the measurement model. These constructs were depicted as latent exogenous variables in the structural model.

This study supports the idea that the factors such as: physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are the main drivers of corporate identity.

The more favourably the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture. Physical structure/spatial layout and functionality can be defined as the architectural design and physical placement of furnishings in a building, the arrangement of objects (e.g. arrangement of buildings, machinery, furniture and equipment), the spatial relationships among them, physical location and physical layout of the workplace and these are particularly pertinent to the service industry (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) to influence or regulate social interaction (Davis, 1984, p. 272). The findings show that the physical structure/spatial layout and functionality has four dimensions (layout, outdoor location, entrance location, and spatial comfort).

The quantitative results demonstrate that: table/seating arrangement gives me enough space (LAYOT2) (Nguyen, 2006), my work/study area is located close to people I need to talk to with my job/study (LAYOT3) (Brennan et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2004, 2003; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kirby and Kent, 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Rooney et al., 2010; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006; Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007), the general office work/study-place layout facilitates teamwork (LAYOT4), overall, layout makes it easy for me to move around (LAYOT6), and I like the

way my department's offices/rooms are configured (LAYOT7) (Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Simoes et al., 2005; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Wasserman, 2010). The factor loading ranged from 0.787 (LAYOT6 <- - LAYOT) to 0.812 (LAYOT4 <- - LAYOT). A participant commented that "I have enough space in the office, when I need, I can walk or discuss with my colleagues, I can say that I am living at my office and I feel is my home". The following is an example of their comments,

*"As we are in one room, it is good to share my work with different people opinion during my research. For example, I can discuss my conceptual framework or my methodology with other colleague from different perspective who has different experience... I would like to have my own pad store, rather than share with 2 other colleagues. It is not enough space for researcher to put our staff overnights" (Focus Group 3).*

*"My office is user friendly, actually is good to have administration, supervisor's offices, coffee shop, kitchen, and lecturer room around and all in one building which helps save time, is very good for time consuming... It is very pleasant which we close to coffee machine, toilet and kitchen and printer. When I am tired, I can walk out of the office and walk around the building and prepare my tea and chat to my friends" (Focus Group 2).*

The location of a company is often considered to be a significant part of the corporate identity (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar et al., 2006). Location is particularly pertinent to a service industry (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006) and it impacts visual privacy (Fischer et al., 2004; Vischer, 2007) as well as interaction and relationships among multi-internal stakeholders.

According to the results, the outdoor location should be attractive (OUTLAY1), the school is well-located (OUTLAY2), enough space and easy access to parking (OUTLAY3), outdoor space is attractive (OUTLAY7), outdoor space is suitable (OUTLAY8), outdoor space is well organised (OUTLAY9) (Friedman et al., 1978). The factor loading ranged from 0.774 (OUTLAY3 <- - OUTLAY) to 0.839 (OUTLAY7 <- - OUTLAY). The location and outdoor

space element is also emphasised in the findings of the qualitative and quantitative study, as shown below,

*“... the school is located as a gate to Brunel University ... is near to London and Heathrow, there are enough parking spaces near the school, I can drive ... the outside of BBS is nice and beautiful, special from the Kingston road” (Lecturer).*

*“I drive every day and one advantage of this building is parking spaces, although is not built yet but I find a spot quickly and don't need to walk long... It is good to have parking allocated space but I had a two bad experience to flat puncture my car tire because is not asphalt and covered by stones” (Research Student Administration).*

This factor was also highlighted in follow-up interviews as a significant form of company.

Interviewees observed:

*“On my previous university, I had issue for transportation and parking space, but with BBS I am very happy that I have access to parking, so I plan to buy a car and drive to university. It would be easier to come to uni” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

*“Well location exactly at the entrance to the uni but is far to the centre of the university like library, lecturer centre and hub... Compare to the other schools in Brunel, BBS is like the gate entry to the university. It gives prestige and more class to the uni. I think it supposed to be the main building which can attract more students... Outdoor coffee shop is nice, special when inside is warm, we having our snakes outside and chilling with friends” (Lecturer).*

In addition, the results show that: the entrance of the building is convenient (LOCLAY1), the entrance of the building is safe (LOCLAY2) (Davis, 1984; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Bitner, 1992; McDonald, 2006; Davis, 1984) and there is an attractive interior decor and pleasant atmosphere (LOCLAY4) (Nguyen, 2006). The factor loading ranged from 0.731 (LOCLAY4 <-- LOCLAY) to 0.807 (LOCLAY1 <-- LOCLAY). The experience of employees was clearly evident in employees' comments,

*“The new design of Brunel Business School made the school as a fascinating place to study and work, located on a self-contained campus in Uxbridge in London. BBS now is providing a world-class education is now is home to the more than 2,500 students from all over the world and I strongly believe that the entrance of building is beautiful. Also, the art gallery and cafe in the main entrance and main reception to the university provide the students and staff with*



*the opportunity to experience new environment” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

*“The reception is located in the entrance after couple of feet, we have a gallery and very close we have access to the coffee shop and auditorium. The height of entrance is well designed and gives you power and helps to open your mind. It is good to have a double door for energy saving and good to have automatic door for disables. It is good to have disable access and design a place where they feel well about the place. Also, the reception area has sofa where the guests can sit and wait...I feel safe when I enter to the building. The place is full of security and covered by CCTV. For example, after 5 pm, access card required and I because of access card, I feel safe and secure” (School Manager).*

Comfort is another element of physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (Han and Ryu, 2009). The physical comfort in the working/studying environment is a result of moral, humanitarian, and social pressure reasons, which directly undermines organisational identification (Briner and Totterdell, 2002; Vischer, 2005) as well as stress and absenteeism (Wegge et al., 2006).

Based on the quantitative results: I have enough storage space at my work/study-place (COMLAY2), conditions at work/study is appropriate to my activities (COMLAY3), I have enough work surface area at my work/study-place (COMLAY4) (Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Brennan et al., 2002; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Friedman et al., 1978; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Hasam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Schmitt et al., 1995; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001). The factor loading ranged from 0.858 (COMLAY4 <-- COMLAY) to 0.933 (LOCLAY3 <-- LOCLAY). Example from an interviewee can be showed as follows,

*“From the size of offices you can realise their positions in the BBS hierarchy. For example, professors have their own private office and lecturers share their offices and new staffs have a hard desk tables ... we have enough spaces for files and documents” (Lecturer).*

*“Although we have to share our desk, I believe the table has more than enough space to keep my stuff temporary”... Not only, we have a sharing pedestal, but also we have small individual locker... As a researcher we should have our own table to put our stuff, our papers and books, notebooks, laptop on our space without moving on the night time” (Focus Group 3).*

With regard to the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture, ambient conditions/physical stimuli is an important factor of an environment to stakeholders in many interpersonal service businesses (Bitner, 1992) which has a direct influence on employees' attitudes, behaviours and satisfaction (Brennan et al., 2002). Ambient conditions/physical stimuli of an environment in service settings encourage stakeholders to pursue the service consumption (Han and Ryu, 2009) and subsequently have an effect on employees' behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, and performance (Brennan et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008) toward the service provider (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen, 2006). The two main dimensions of ambient conditions/physical stimuli are identified as follows: light/music/noise/temperature and privacy/security. Light/music/noise/temperature is related to environmental factors (Brennan et al., 2002) which may have an effect on stakeholders having more favourable perceptions, favourable behavioural responses, and favourable experiences (Han and Ryu, 2009). All can be problematic for office dwellers and studies have illustrated that the control over these factors is critical (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007) and constitute, "cues the customer in to what the service is and what the firm can do" (Bernard and Bitner, 1982, p. 39).

The quantitative results show that: temperature is comfortable (PHS2) (Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; Nguyen, 2006; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Vischer, 2007; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999; Zalesny and Farace, 1987), the lighting is appropriate (PHS4) (Bernard and Bitner, 1982; Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Friedman et al., 1978; Han and Ryu, 2009; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Leblanc and Nguyen 1996; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Parish et al., 2008; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987), a mixture of daylight, incandescent, fluorescent are preferred for work/study (PHS5). The factor loading ranged from 0.762 (PHS5 <-- PHS) to 0.868 (PHS2 <-- PHS). Examples include,

*"Light is one of the basic human needs and office lighting system helps create a workplace that influences mood, boosts vitality, promotes well-being and improve my performance. I think the ideal light is natural daylight as it is*

*continually changing and keeps to a cyclic rhythm, which acts as orientation and impetus for the individual and provides perfect support for the human biorhythm” (Research Student Administration).*

*“Well-designed and function, interesting concept and very student friendly... This time, great experience after hot weather outside, inside is interestingly well managed temperature, is not very warm and not cold in cold time” (Senior Lecturer).*

*“I think the light is very good and easy to read and concentrate. It is really good to work on daytime as we have direct light from outside, it is very bright place. On evening, the room has a great light, but, unfortunately, school has a time move motion ad when you are reading and writing and not moving, lights turn off automatically, which is very annoying” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

Privacy/security is a significant parameter amongst the affordances of the physical setting such as spatial layout, office size and location which is associated with status, office storage is linked with territoriality and status, and partitioning impacts on acoustic as well as visual privacy (Fischer et al., 2004; Vischer, 2007). Organisations have preference of open space architecture and landscape office with informal employee communication and spatial layout to symbolise infringement on individual privacy. The survey suggested the main items as: I find it hard to concentrate on my work (PHSPRCY1), I can talk privately and not be overheard (PHSPRCY3), I feel personally safe and secure coming to and going from BBS (PHSPRCY6), the visual privacy I need to do my work/study is favourable (PHSPRCY7), I am aware of others working/studying nearby (PHSPRCY8) (Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987). The factor loading ranged from 0.823 (PHSPRCY1 <-- PHSPRCY) to 0.913 (PHSPRCY7 <-- PHSPRCY). The findings emphasise the importance of notion of the privacy/security element of experience that customers seek. The privacy/security experience was clearly evident in customers' comments.

*“Our office is open-plan office and I don't have much privacy in office as I can hear what other colleagues say or do, sometimes here is very noisy, noisy, noisy ... but I feel secure ... I am a girl and I live close by and when I woke up early, rather than stay at my place, I come over to do my work, I feel so secure stay here ... while ago, I left my valet at the office and when I came back it was on my table. I think it is because of CCTV, no one touch anyone else stuffs” (Focus Group 2).*

*“Our PhD area is not quite place because of having phones on and printer in the same room. That is a big issue which need to be solved. Sadly, some of PhD researchers are not mature enough to keep the place quiet and respect for others” (Focus Group 1).*

*“As a researcher I don’t have my privacy as we need to focus all the time and should have our own space, but for BBS concept, each table allocated for 2-3 researchers and we need to share the times. So in this case, it is based on first come, first serve, every night, I have to pack my stuff and put them away and the day after, if I am lucky, I can use my table next day, otherwise, I need to carry my stuff to another table. It was a big fight here between two colleagues as one of the guys believes he has the right to put all his papers on the desk and attach his notes on the monitor and was arguing a lady that why you sitting here and moved my papers. I think all we are in stress of work and unfortunately, some can’t control themselves and they feel they are in their town and ladies has less power and can control them, they don’t know they are in UK and there is an equality between the genders” (Focus Group 2).*

Furthermore, experts stated that:

*“Because of all access cards which sometimes is headache, and security cameras I feel extremely safe and I stay till late night and leave my staff on my table. For example for lunch time I don’t need to take my laptop with me... I prefer to leave at the BBS than take it by myself to the restaurant... It doesn’t matter is Saturday or Sunday, still feel safe to travel here to work when my flat is noisy” (Focus Group 2).*

*“I believe, for security and privacy, our room has a lot camera which you feel safe as a girl to stay here. But in other hands, I feel losing my privacy as some people looking at us 24/7, all the time like big brother show... It is quite safe system to use Brunel platform and easy to access all around the world. It is great to have back up automatically and no need to have any anxious regarding my work. So in that case using my unique username I feel safe due to high security access. However this access is available when we are at Brunel” (Senior Lecturer).*

*“I am happy to share my work and discuss it with my colleagues, it is good to have a others researchers in the same area to communicate and have their opinion on the research so in that case we are aware of our stage and help each other. However, sometimes is not good when you feel you are watched by other people. However, there is no chance” (Focus Group 1).*

*“I am very happy to have my own phone and desk which I can have access to my supervisor, administration, and colleagues. It is great and I am proud to be part of BBS. I can use phone with no bill. If someone is not around, I use the phone” (Focus Group 1).*

*“Regarding to my web mail, I feel fine to open any receiving mails because, automatically scanned by Brunel IT team and the system lock when not using it and need to log in to use the computer... I hope the internet Wi-Fi of BBS will improve soon as we don't have good access through Wi-Fi” (Focus Group 2).*

*“As we are in open office, we are sharing the room and we easily find out what resources the next table colleague use, we can share the resources and communicate about our problems. I think sharing is caring concept” (Senior Lecturer).*

This finding is consistent with previous studies in marketing and design literature such as (Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis, 1984; Davis et al., 2010; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Knight and Haslam, 2010; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Parish et al., 2008 Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987) that referred to experiencing privacy/security as one of the push factors that are considered as a strong relationship between the levels of privacy/security afforded by open-plan offices and key components of job/study satisfaction and identification.

With regard to the hypothesis the more favourably the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture. Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are the features of the physical setting, which can be defined as the quality of the environment for the company's employees (Davis, 1984, p. 278). Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts are aspects of the physical setting that individually or collectively guide the interpretation of the social setting (Davis, 1984; McElroy and Morrow, 2010), can be related to the aesthetics and attractiveness of the physical of the environment (McElroy and Morrow), develop a complex representation of workplace Identity (Elsbach, 2004, p. 99) and are mainly relevant to the service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009). Symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts refer to (i) the overall office decor and (ii) the aesthetics of the office environment: the colours of the walls, type of flooring, pictures, flowers, floor, furniture style which distinguish the organisation and place from its competitors (Han and Ryu, 2009). The empirically tested scale for the overall office decor supported the overall design of the BBS building is interesting (ART2), appearance of building and ground are attractive (ART3) (Baker et al., 1994; Bitner, 1992; Turley and Milliman, 2000; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999; Wakfield and Baker, 1998), I like the

material the BBS is made of (ART5) (Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978; Schmitt et al., 1995;), the design of BBS is functional (ART6), the design of BBS is cold (ART 7) (Brown et al. in Friedman et al., 1978). The factor loading ranged from 0.768 (ART2 <-- ART) to 0.865 (ART6 <-- ART). The following quotation from respondents in follow-up interviews suggests that the overall office decor is the most significant cue to 'interesting, attractive, functional, and dynamic' to its customers and employees, which also confirmed the results. An example includes,

*“Our new school looks as a modern and attractive campus has entire range of architectural aluminum, curtain walling, roof-lights either side of the top of the atrium. The main office areas are precast concrete frame, walls and plank flooring, finished with a render system on insulation. The walls separate visually the rendered office and teaching spaces from the zinc-cladode auditorium. I think all make the building more attractive and functional”*  
(Senior Lecturer).

*“BBS has a good guideline, good equipment for the new arrivals, every wall indicates the way, all the lecturers, admins, and staff directory has framed on the wall, also, every floors have its own phone which you can contact your supervisor as we don't have access to their places without their permissions”*  
(Research Student Administration).

The findings of the aesthetics of the office environment illustrates that wall decor is visually attractive (INART3), colours used in the wall or ceiling create a warm atmosphere (INART5) (Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Karaosmanoglu et al., 2011; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Kotler, 1974; Lambert, 1989; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Wasserman, 2010), floor is of high quality (INART6) (Bitner, 1992; Davis et al., 2010; Davis, 1984; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Porter, 2004; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Zalesny and Farace, 1987), colours used in the building create a warm atmosphere (INART7) (Bitner, 1992; Booms and Bitner, 1982; Davis, 1984; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Karaosmanoglu et al., 2011; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Kotler, 1974; Lambert, 1989; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Meenaghan, 1995; Nguyen, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Wasserman, 2010), tables used in the building is of high quality (INART8) (Bitner, 1992;

Bloch, 1995; Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis, 1984; Davis et al., 2010; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Elsbach, 2003; Elsbach, 2004; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Gieryn, 2000; Han and Ryu, 2009; Klitzman and Stellman, 1989; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; McDonald, 2006; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen, 2006; Porter, 2004; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Vischer, 2007; Vos and der Voordt, 2001; Weggeman et al., 2007), the BBS has up-to-date equipment (e.g. computer) (INART9) (Brennan et al., 2002; Danielsson and Bodin, 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Giles-Corti and Donovan, 2002; McDonald, 2006; Moultrie et al., 2007; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Saleh, 1998; Varlander, 2012; Vischer, 2007). The factor loading ranged from 0.839 (INART9 <-- INART) to 0.932 (INART7 <-- INART). Aesthetic value is assumed to be derived from the consumption experience (Holbrook, 1994 and 1999). The findings showed that there is an emphasis on the beauty of the building, the word ‘beauty’ mentioned regularly, as illustrated below,

*“I like my office, it is small but I believe the tables and chairs are ok quality. I like the colours used in the building, very simple. Also, the consistency of same materials, for example, every employee has similar designed tables and chairs. The consistency makes the environment warm and all the elements help me and students to create the aesthetic” (Research Student Administration).*

*“As we moved it to this building, we received new office-based computers and updated version of software. It relay rally offer positive effects through faster working, and better job performance and work satisfaction... I think, the great opportunity of us is, we can book a room to have a discussion with other group mates to prepare our project for rest of the class. We have access to projector and we can book the room with the high technology which helps us to improve our group work” (Senior Lecturer).*

The main three aspect of architecture (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) in the present research covered by the qualitative study and confirmed by the quantitative study. In addition, the adopted scales of measurement from the existing literature were illustrated in the significant relationship between the factors and architecture. The structural model evaluation supports the discriminant validity of the constructs, and confirmed that the measures of the constructs are truly distinct. The estimated correlations of discriminant validity were statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Hair et al., 2006).

#### **8.4. DISCUSSION OF THE HYPOTHESES TESTS**

The findings of examining the research hypotheses are discussed in this section to meet the research objectives to address five goals: first, it explores the concept of the corporate identity and its dimensions. Second, it explores the concept of the architecture and its dimensions. Third, it identifies the factors that are most likely to have a significance influence on the favourable corporate identity, (antecedents of the favourable corporate identity). Fourth, it develops and empirically assesses a conceptual framework concerning the relationships between favourable corporate identity, architecture, and corporate identity. Finally, it investigates the impact of the corporate identity on architecture and the impact of architecture on corporate identity. Based on the research objectives of the current research, this study aims to answer the seven research questions within the context of a financial setting in the United Kingdom: RQ1) What is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?, RQ2) What is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?, RQ3) What is the relationship between architecture and identification?, and RQ4) What is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?

After examining the architecture as a focal construct, the discussion continues with the intention of discovering the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. In order to provide further details about the phenomena, the qualitative findings acquired in the exploratory stage (preliminary stage of this study) was used as an example of the point being discussed. In addition, the hypotheses were segregated into a number of relationships to understand the in-depth exploratory influence of each construct's relation on the corporate identity, architecture, and identification. The results of the hypotheses' examinations are discussed with support from the previous literature and the findings of the interviews and focus groups study (qualitative) obtained in the exploratory stage.

In the conceptual framework initially a total of 12 hypotheses with 12 paths represented the relations. According to the hypothesis tests, eight hypotheses were supported. The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported the uni-dimensionality and the discriminant validity of the constructs, consistent with the theoretical suggestion.



Based on the findings, most of the research hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H10, H11, and H12) were supported. Though, an unexpected result was found and H6, H7, H8, and H9 were not supported. The finding for the current research shows that corporate visual identity has no relation to symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (CVI ---> ARTIFACTS). In addition, the unexpected outcomes indicate that internal-stakeholders' attitude towards the philosophy, mission and value are not related to the architecture components, such as, spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (PMV ---> LAYOUT, PHY\_STMLI, and ARTIFACTS). More details of these unexpected findings will be deliberated in the following chapter.

In the next sections, the results of the hypothesis tests are discussed with support from the existing literature and the qualitative findings (interviews and focus groups) in more detail.

## **8.5. CORPORATE IDENTITY, ARCHITECTURE AND IDENTIFICATION RELATIONSHIPS**

### **8.5.1. Corporate identity and architecture relationships**

The results answered the question as to what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture (Research Question 1). Within the model proposed (Figure 4.1), it can be inferred that the direct relationship between corporate identity and architecture is confirmed (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) (Chapter III and V). The marketing literature confirmed that architecture is an art and a significant piece of symbolism lies at the heart of corporate identity (Balmer, 2005) and managers should focus on architecture to create a strong corporate identity (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Yee, 1990). The literature recommends that company's architecture and landscape often enhance a strong universal corporate identity (Kennedy, 1977).

From the marketing perspective, corporate identity is the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Balmer, 2001, 2007, 2008; Bick et al., 2003; etc.) by summarising the mission, purpose, positioning (Baker and Balmer, 1997, p. 366), activity (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1998, Olins, 1990; Van Riel, 1997) of the organisation (Baker and Balmer, 1997, p. 366), and vision (Abratt, 1989; Dowling, 1993; Hatch and Schultz, 1997) to all its audience (Van Riel, 1995).

In terms of the corporate identity construct, this dimension provides identification for a company in order to increase recognition speed and remind the stakeholders of the company and its organisational goals. Items such as to what extent do BBS's administrators have a sense of pride in the school's goals and missions (CI1), to what extent do top administrators feel that BBS has carved out a significant place in the higher education community (CI2), to what extent the BBS administrators are knowledgeable about the institution's history and traditions (CI4), to what extent do the top management team members not have a well-defined set of goals or objectives for the BBS (CI5), to what extent do the top management team members of BBS have a strong sense of the school's history (CI6) (Cole and Bruch, 2006; Gioia and Thomas, 1996) convey the cohesiveness of the stakeholders' unit. Cohesiveness leads to the development of a favourable corporate identity to ensure that an organisation's key stakeholders and stakeholder groups are favourably disposed towards the organisation (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997). Corporate identity is a very important business concept because it demonstrates corporate ethos, aims and values and presents a sense of individuality that can help to differentiate an organisation from its competitors (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). The factor loading ranged from 0.822 (CI4 <-- CI) to 0.904 (CI5 <-- CI). Therefore, the results from SEM in Table 5.15 illustrated the empirical evidence, which supports the corporate identity construct. During the qualitative study, a reasonable explanation was revealed by a participant as,

*“So, in competitive market place, consumer has numerous options available to them and the company should establish a solid presence in the marketplace. Right corporate identity aids achieve this business objective... what i think that is company identity which will become brand identity if it is different from convention and how is company performance ... I think, brand is a discovery made by the audiences and I define identity when you get an indication of recognition... The new building is an icon; it's how it's used via the identity pieces, the marketing messages that make that symbol representative of a brand, we can call it architecture identity of BBS” (Operations Administrator).*

Consistent with the architectural literature, the environment of the architecture and buildings have been understood to symbolise good taste, power, and status through the attention paid to the identity of the organisation (Berg and Kreiner, 1990) and it can influence a company's prestige (Brauer, 2002; Kirby and Kent, 2010) in addition it can evoke an emotional response in the mind of stakeholders as well as transfer positive feeling towards the company. It is

confirmed as a positive relationship between the corporate identity and architecture. This finding is consistent with the study, which was conducted by Henderson and Code (1998).

The statistical support of hypothesis 1 (The more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture) is illustrated in conjunction with the support from the literature review and the information obtained from the exploratory stage, in order to provide insight details into the direct and indirect relationship between corporate identity and architecture. For instance, according to an academic,

*“Throughout the time, architecture and design have been closely identified with the cultural identity of Brunel. Historically, architecture of our school is tried to place itself at a crucial stance from a company's corporate identity ... I think we have different identity as we used to have in EJ. The fundamental goal of this place is in designing a space to attract more students, particular to create a school, which is functional and aesthetically suitable for more uses. We think that the elegantly executed space is enough and finely calibrated image we trying to communicate. It is an inescapable part of our daily visual lives. The building design can capture the public's attention. I think it has immediate recognition of and can influences and reinforces students or parents' choices” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

*“I think the building is made and carefully designed especially for higher education system and the new building hopefully will improve the ranking of the university” (Operations Administrator).*

Furthermore, a communication expert stated that

*“Brunel Business School created the new building for Brunel University. The fresh identity portrays the uni in a contemporary, progressive, and dynamic manner, and help to develop a consistent image of the uni across the world ... a unique building provide a consistent look to all communications across the world. Our main aspiration is to become one of the tops 100 most admired global universities. Our philosophy takes our inspiration to reach the very top. Hope with our strong aspiration, modern and fresh corporate identity, we achieve our objective” (Senior Lecturer).*

The findings are consistent with previous studies (Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Brauer, 2002; Kennedy, 1977; Kirby and Kent, 2010; Melewar, 2003, 2006, 2007; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Olins, 1995; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005) in that they confirm the

existence of an association between corporate identity and architecture. The statistical support of hypothesis 1 that confirms the influence of corporate identity on architecture ( $\gamma=0.285$ ,  $t$ -value=5.942) was significant ( $\gamma=0.522$ ,  $t$ -value=6.916). In addition, strong evidence in the qualitative study and literature are present and supported the relationship between corporate identity (CI) and architecture (ARC).

### **8.5.2. Corporate identity and identification relationships**

With regard to hypothesis 3 (the more favourably the architecture is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourably they identify themselves with that company), corporate identity has been supposed to influence identification with companies (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Balmer, 1995, 2008, 2011; He and Balmer, 2007; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Foreman and Whetten, 2002; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) (Chapter II, Section 2.6). In the marketing literature, identification is widely recognised to be of the utmost significance (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Balmer, 1995, 2008, 2011; He and Balmer, 2007; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Foreman and Whetten, 2002; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Business executives cannot provide a clear definition of the identification construct (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Organisational identification has been used interchangeably with organisational identity. Organisational identity has been used as a state and organisational identification as a process (Ashforth and Johnson, 2001). Organisational identification, occurs when an individual's beliefs about his or her organisation became self-referential or self-defining (Pratt, 1998, p. 172). According to Ashforth and Mael (1989) identification refers to self in terms of social categories (I am). According to previous authors (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney et al., 2010) identification is the degree to which stakeholders define themselves by the same attributes that they believe define the organisation.

The results of the qualitative study (interviews and focus groups) were treated as an initial insight into study problems, and were employed to establish an appropriate scale to measure the identification. Furthermore, quantitative research was carried out to confirm the results of the qualitative study. The findings supported the conceptualisation and suggested that the measurement instrument should enable a 'customisation' of the scale. A scale of items relating to the identification was developed and examined in the context of Brunel Business School. The findings allowed the identification scale to be modified and simplified.

Regarding the measurement items of identification used in this research included, for example, when I talk about the BBS, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’ (IDN1), if a story in the media criticised the BBS, my school would feel embarrassed (IDN2), when someone praises the BBS it feels like a compliment of my school (IDN3), when someone criticises the BBS, it feels like a personal insult (IDN4), I am very interested in what others think about the BBS (IDN5) (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Dukerich et al., 2002; Keh and Xie, 2009; Mael and Ashforth, 1992). The factor loading ranged from 0.815 (IDN1 <-- IDN) to 0.838 (IDN4 <-- IDN) and satisfied the reliability requirements (Churchill, 1979) (See Table 5.27) for the items and identification construct reliability). The results is consistent of the definition authors (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Rooney et al., 2010) identification is the degree to which an stakeholders defines him or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation. Foreman and Whetten (2002) state that identification may lead to a greater personal commitment to the organisation and employees positively communicate the intended corporate identity to the external public.

In this research, the direct effect of corporate identity and identification was statistically significant in the hypothesised direction ( $\gamma = 0.139$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 2.334$ ). In addition to statistical results, the participants provided their opinions about their impressions of corporate identity on identification as follows:

*“I always have seen our corporate identity as a collection of visual elements such as logo and slogan, which are used in many applications. Also, it is the core of our organisation’s existence, which can say it is consistent of our long history, beliefs, philosophy, our ethical and cultural values and strategies. I think it helps to position of our school in terms of the markets and competitors and to support the image of an organisation and influence on our employees work... as a staff, my identification towards the school is a particular form of my social identification and sometimes think I am belong to Brunel which make me different with higher prestige to my colleagues in different universities... The identity is visual that represents the business of school and is the sensory elements which help the stakeholders make a human/emotional connection. Our unique interpersonal identity is related to our personalised bonds of attachment which is derived from common identification with a social group” (Research Student Administration).*

*“I am happy to be part of BBS because of all good points and different opportunity to meet and networking high level academic people...Friendly attitude and being feel is part of Brunel Business School is part of our daily goal” (School Manager).*

Furthermore, an expert stated that:

*“Our clearly defined and positive school identity is of vital significance for our success and growth. I think it leads to a positive attitude towards the institution both nationally and internationally. Our revised identity helps the school to attract commercial and industrial partners as well as teaching staff, students and administrative staff... I think our new building influence on us to spend more times here rather than work from home. Our identities or our identifications to our workplace increased my and my colleagues work motivation and our performance, it is related to what we think about the company now... our identification motivates us to stay longer at the place, even a friend said, when he left the uni, his leaving means losing a part of himself as he was a member of the organisation”. ... With the brand description of the school: BBS as a company, projects a humanistic corporate culture and a strong corporate ethic, one which is characterised by support of good causes and involvement in the academia community... Our stakeholders’ personal experiences with a corporate identity influence consumers and their identification. If a company has a strong and positive identity, it impacts creates a favourable mental image of the organisation in a consumer’s mind” (School Manager).*

The above statements are in line with the following focus group participants’ comments,

*“Our corporate identity is much more than a common visual identity. It can be called as a picture in the eyes of our various stakeholders. It is like jigsaw pieces ranging from the building as visual elements to perceptions of campus culture, academic standards and teaching delivery experiences... Every organisation finds some customers and an employee is more valuable than others and is difficult to identify these customers, and build relationships with them ... To building corporate persona is like when you meet a person. The first impression has the most impact. As a human being, we collect cues from what we see and feel, then interpret our explanations to form our opinion about the person. This is exactly how we treat companies and its products or services. We need to stand out from the competitors in marketplace. We tend to create a good brand image, and to generate a niche in the consumers’ mind by having an exceptional, pleasing appearance and identity. It influences our stakeholders, students and employees and partners for liking and feel connecting to our company and are more likely to develop identification to the business” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

The following participants gave their opinion of the impacts of corporate identity on the identification,

*“...corporate identity is a choice like the clothes we wear in public, our uniform. It reflects our tribe and our outlook on the world. The concept of corporate identity is similar to what we refer to when we talk about our own*

*identity and personality, who we are and why we exist and how our identity differentiates us from others. Our personality and character maintains our uniqueness. It express through how we behave, what we wear, and even our talks. It is like business, it distinct through its identity which it expresses to the globe” (Research Student Administration).*

Consistent with prior studies, this study also found that the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company’s corporate identity; more they identify themselves with that company.

### **8.5.3. Architecture and identification relationships**

The literature recommends that the stronger the architecture, the stronger is the potential for customer and employee identification through the architecture (Han and Ryu, 2009; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kioussi and Smyth, 2009). Increasing attention has been paid to understanding and measuring the contribution of architecture and identification and particularly of the office building to customer and employee identification (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009; Knight and Haslam, 2010). Social identity in organisational settings has focused on identification with the organisation (Marin and de Maya, 2013; Thatcher and Zhu, 2006, p. 1083). A niche market architectural firm has shown a significant yet unarticulated link between design and client identification. Within the brand management studies into niche market architectural organisations there has been demonstrated significant yet previously unarticulated links between the architectural process and stakeholders’ identification (Kioussi and Smyth, 2009). Consistent with prior studies, this study also found architecture as a sign, and fundamental organisational identity behind the tangible manifestations (Olins, 1989) is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company, which can be decisive in facilitating employee, consumer-company identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010). It is confirmed that there is a positive relationship between the architecture and identification. This finding is consistent with the study of the literature (Knight and Haslam, 2010; Kioussi and Smyth, 2009; Rooney, 2010; Uzzel et al., 2002).

According to research question 3 (what is the relationship between architecture and identification) and with regard to hypothesis H3 (the more favourable the architecture is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the more they identify themselves with that company), the aim of this investigation was to examine from the stakeholders’

perspective the relationship between architecture and identification within a British university.

As discussed in Chapter IV, based on the interviews with academic staff during the items generation stage, this study has found that architectural design can be seen by the customers and employees as an expression of themselves, who they are and who they aspire to be (Kioussi, 2008). From the interviews, a positive impact of the messages communicated via the institution's building design on employee identification was found. Some employees used these messages as guidelines in supporting the institution's identity. For instance, one participant stated that,

*“Actually, what or who we are and how we feel about BBS are the major influences on the construction of place identification. I like the new building and I feel more attached than the old one. I feel more confident to invite colleagues from other places to here than before. In fact, I feel stronger and gave me the feeling that I am a part of the BBS's brand. The new building is more prestige and I think it can communicate through the communication tools better and it can influence on people's perception even better and better. I think this is how the communications influence on our behaviour” (Operations Administrator).*

The comments above signified the relationship between the architecture and identification. The findings indicate robust evidence in this respect and a definite positive relationship between architecture and identification and also illustrated that the development of a favourable architecture can help customers to focus on the corporation, what it stands for, what it communicates, delivers, and it allows the organisation to send a more reliable message which can be transmitted to stakeholders (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998) and improve the internal-stakeholders identification with organisations. The standardised regression path between the architecture (ARC) and identification (IDN) was statistically significant ( $\gamma = 0.96$ ,  $t$ -value = 7.706).

#### **8.5.4. Corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions' relationships**

The qualitative results from interviews and focus groups with managers, experts and students confirmed that there were several antecedents for corporate identity (corporate visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission, value). However, the findings of the qualitative study show that corporate visual identity is a significant consideration in predicting customer perception. From the interviews, another factor has been found to strongly impact on stakeholders' perception which is communication via the institution's activities with internal-



stakeholders. In addition, the respondents agreed that the institution's activities enable employees and consumers to support the institution's philosophy, mission, and values (Urde, 2003). However, some students and employees were not very confident about stating the specific institution's philosophy, mission, and value. Nevertheless, they tended to relate the messages to support the institution's identity. Those antecedents were represented as latent exogenous variables in the structural model. The philosophy establishes the context of day-to-day operating decisions and guides the organisation in making trade-offs among competing performances for short-term and long-term goals (Ledford et al., 1995; Wright, 1984), and can be expressed in the corporation mission statement (Collins and Porras, 1991; Simoes et al., 2005; Wright, 1984) and corporate values. The philosophy is a set of beliefs within the organisation which includes language, rituals and ideologies that guide the company's culture and forms the corporate identity (Balmer, 1995; Kono, 1990; Melewar, 2003). The corporate mission, corporate philosophy, and values are articulated through corporate visual identity to the company's audiences and employees (Alessandrini, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Gorman, 1994; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel et al., 2001).

A measurement model for philosophy, mission, value constructs was estimated and illustrated good fit indices. The relevant items loaded on to the underlying constructs as predicted, although some items were deleted in the scale purification process (Steenkamp and van Trijp, 1991). For example, two participants stated that,

*“... the history of BBS is back to 1966 ... now is a highly regarded London university with international profiles ... here is a great place to study and work. It offers a multitude of courses with a wide range of undergrad and postgrad courses as well as it is famous for research ... we are famous as a powerful global university brands below 50 in annual World University Rankings” (School Manager).*

*“... What the BBS communicates to us as employees, is not obviously mentioned as the BBS's identity? I think BBS tries to differentiate itself from everyone else through its new building, new vision and philosophy. By having a strong philosophy, guide the employees at decision-making crossroads, but it can also be a strong identity tool, and usually make the workplace friendlier. Though, I believe there is a gap between what it tries to communicate to outsiders and what they perceive from us. For example, BBS's philosophy is a distillation of its ambience into a group of core values that explains all aspects of its practices to create knowledge and understanding, and provide flexible graduates with the*

*confidence to apply what they have learnt for the benefit of society” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

The findings are consistent with the previous studies in the marketing literature and have found corporate visual identity to be an antecedent to corporate identity (Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005; Stuart, 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1985), communication (Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985), and philosophy, mission and values (Sinkula et al., 1997; Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005). Simoes et al. (2005) claimed that corporate identity extends beyond visual symbols and how they are communicated to the articulation of a company's philosophy, mission, and values. This assumption was empirically tested in particular, in a service industry – a London-based middle-ranked Business School. The results of follow-up interviews and focus groups supported that the hypothesised relationship was statistically significant. In the service industry, the company's identity is a major concern of marketing managers because the ultimate objective of the businesses is to increase profits. Therefore, managers must invest money and effort in improving internal-stakeholders and other audiences' perceptions of organisations as the main key in determining their response to the companies' services (Simoes et al., 2005) through its communication and visual identity (Balmer, 1995; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997). This study supports the idea that the factors such as: corporate visual identity, communication, philosophy, mission and values are the key drivers of corporate identity.

In addition, top managers play a fundamental role in influencing internal and external stakeholders' identification with the organisation. Originally, identification was synonymous with organisational nomenclature, logos, the house style and visual elements, but in time visual identity and corporate strategy have become inextricably linked. In order to differentiate organisations in the eyes of stakeholders, managers are aiming for the promotion of favourable organisational images to achieve organisational goals, mission, organisational practices, values and action which contribute to shaping organisational identity (Scott and Lane, 2000).

With regard to the first research question (Q.4: What is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?), this study examined the relationships between the three main antecedents of corporate identity (corporate visual identity,

philosophy, mission, and values, and communication) and their relationship to architectural components (spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts) from the literature review and qualitative study (See Chapter II and V).

The findings of the qualitative research (follow-up interviews and focus groups) supported and validated the corporate visual identity, philosophy, mission, and values, and communication scale. Participants in the qualitative study confirmed their agreement with the scale and commented that it measured the vital dimensions of the corporate identity, thus externally validating the scale.

**Corporate visual identity and architecture components relationships** - with regard to the relationships between corporate visual identity and architecture dimensions (H4, H5, and H6), the findings of the qualitative research (follow-up interviews and focus groups) supported and validated the corporate visual identity scale. Corporate visual identity (CVI) is arguably the most tangible facet of corporate identity, which reflects the company values and creates physical recognition for the organisation (Carter 1982; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Dowling 2001; Melewar and Saunders 1999, 2000; Morison, 1997; Stuart, 1999; Olins 1991; Pilditch 1970; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate visual identity can be defined as tangible clues used to differentiate services (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1989) and is essential for well-being and the communications mix (Melewar, 2001) to make an expression of the organisation (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003) in serving to remind people of the corporate real purpose (Abratt, 1989). In this study, the direct impact of corporate visual identity on physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (H4), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (H5), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (H6) were examined on the basis of the theory of marketing and it conveys the cohesiveness of the stakeholders' unit.

Conceptualising management of corporate visual identity in terms of specific dimensions is essential as it involves generating and implementing guidelines for the use of symbolism within the company. The main purpose of corporate visual identity relates to consumers' internal-stakeholders' identification with the organisation. Thus, managers must ensure that they create a reliable belief to communicate in the market (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Van den Bosch et al., 2005). As a result, the company's corporate visual identity should be consistent

with organisational goals, the true aims of the organisation and the best interests of the organisation (Berry, 2000). Regarding the measurement items of corporate visual identity used in this study (See Table 4.10), visual audit of the facilities is undertaken periodically (CVI1), BBS has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements (CVI2), BBS transmits a consistent visual presentation through facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication material (CVI3) and BBS stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements/image of the BBS unit (CVI4). This element supports the idea that the company's corporate visual identity as a competitive tool is an important dimension of the corporate identity (Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005; Stuart, 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1985). The factors were also highlighted in follow-up interviews as an important form of company or product support or maintenance. An interviewee observed,

*“ ... well, I like the blue colour of our identity, it is main expression of our school. As you can see, we all use and distribute the blue BBS pen to our students, it shows our prestige ... I like quality of heading papers which provide in the conferences, I really like the old design of logo which rarely use these days. Interestingly, you can't find as such the typeface and logo of the Brunel University in BBS. Our logo is differentiating us from other Business Schools” (Senior Lecturer).*

There is also a fit with the perspective advocated by some authors (Balmer, 2006; Balmer and Liao, 2006; Balmer and Wilkinson 1991; Gioia et al., 2000; Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Olins, 1989; Margulies, 1977; Napoles, 1988; Olins, 1978; Pilditch, 1971; Selame and Selame, 1975) who conceptualised corporate identity in terms of visual representations of the corporation. This may involve pragmatic actions. As one interviewee explained,

*“I think with the new building, we have new image among outsiders, it influences to improve the outsiders' perception towards us. They see us different from past. Our new brand corporate identity encapsulates and conveys the symbolic meanings and should ensure that we all continue to present BBS in ways that are relevant to our new markets. Our corporate communications are responsible for managing the BBS visual identity programme more clearly. All our documents should provide clarity and avoid ambiguity for people both internally and externally” (School Manager).*

Consistent with the theoretical expectation, the hypothesis testing in this study demonstrated the impact of corporate visual identity on physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT) and ambient conditions/physical stimuli are statistically significant

(PHY\_STMLI). The regression path illustrates that hypothesis 4 (The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders) and hypothesis 5 (The more favourable the visual identity is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders) were supported (CVI ---> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 0.113$ , t-value= 2.575; CVI ---> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = 0.148$ , t-value = 3.046). In general, the justifications could be given from some of participants' comments.

*"I think our school identity is the whole of the impressions that a school makes and all architectural design, colour is significant in the recognition of our identity...the new architectural design and functionality of the place, is influence on school's corporate image. In addition, the appearance of our school and the materials used in the place such as concrete, lighting, and the general visual image influence on students and our' behaviour even without our awareness" (School Manager).*

*"Welcoming space, I love outside material and design of the school, because it shows the high quality school, special from Kingston lane, it looks we are entering to a nice place... I assume designers can promote the culture in design and the interaction of the school by investing in the right kind of spaces...Layout of our office concerned with visual identity which affect our choices either work here or at home" (Operations and Finance Manager).*

*"I like my table quality, colour, length and weight. I am glad to have space on my table which I can have my laptop, books, papers and computer; also, I have my coffee cup on my table all the time. The colour of the table partition is grey and grey colour means natural colour" (Lecturer).*

The comments from these participants also support that the school's visual identity, which is an important element of corporate identity, directly influences physical structure/spatial layout and functionality.

In addition, there is also a fit with the perspective advocated by some authors (Margulies, 1977; Markwick and Fill, 1997) that corporate identity management is concerned with the terms of visual identity and could shape or influence externally held perceptions of companies. Architecture as a planned cue will constitute the organisation's visual identity, as the design and graphics associated with an organisation's symbols and elements of self-expression. Every corporation is unique so it is essential that the corporate identity should spring from its roots, personality, strengths, and weaknesses through its architecture.

Architecture in office design can be used by to symbolise companies (Pratt and Rafaeli, 2001) The act of building visual identity into the strategic management equation provides companies with a dimension of difference that is impossible for competitors to duplicate (Melewar et al., 2001). This may involve pragmatic actions. One interviewee observed:

*“If I am right the ambient conditions is related to colours, lighting and temperature, sound and smell. I think, “our school is a mirror image of who we are” and the new construction is the main symbol of Brunel. This conditions affect how people respond to a place and feel about it; also how well they remember and feel about the place when they left, so it can get visually distinctive to other places, as management of our school try to converse to everyone a consistent message” (Research Student Administration).*

*“I think compare to our previous place which had no day light, the combination of day light and indoor light, help us to stay here longer and prefer to work more here than home” (Senior Lecturer).*

With regard to research hypothesis H6, the findings provide no support for the hypothesised effect of corporate visual identity on symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts construct (See Chapter IV). The results demonstrate that corporate visual identity may not be particularly effective in relation to interior design such as plants, flowers, paintings, pictures, wall, floor, colour, technology and the overall design of the BBS building from an internal-stakeholders’ perception. This is a rather surprising result, particularly in the light of previous studies (Amarulzaman et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2010; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Han and Ryu, 2009; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fayard and Weeks, 2007; Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Brown et al., 2005; Fischer et al., 2004; White, 2004; Kornberger and Clegg, 2004; Ayoko and Hartel, 2003; Brennan et al., 2002; Duffy and Tanis, 1993; Bitner, 1992; Zalesny and Farace, 1987; Davis, 1984; Sundstrom et al., 1980; Oldham and Brass, 1979). In other words, the regression weight for CVI in predicting the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts construct is significantly different from 0 at the 0.05 significance level, and it may not be predominantly efficient from an internal-stakeholders’ perspective.

This is a rather surprising finding, mainly in the light of earlier studies (Alessandri, 2001; Berry, 2000; Carter 1982; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Dowling 2001; Melewar and Saunders 1999, 2000; Stuart, 1999; Olins 1991; Pilditch 1970; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) that architecture (element of corporate visual identity) is the most tangible facet of corporate identity and can reflect the company’s values and create physical recognition for the

organisation and produce positive corporate image in the service context. Architecture has physiological effects and different designs have different influences on people. In general, other justifications could be given and some participants comment that,

*“I think, the colours we choose for our decorating arrangements will touch the atmosphere of our place, it effects on our mood. I personally prefer white colour as a clean and pure colour which help people a psychological lift. Also, it makes objects seem lighter in weight, makes place seem more open and bigger, maximum light reflection, reflect more light, in my opinion, white is ideal in a home and working place. Always white create a very sophisticated and chic look but the combination of grey, white makes the place boring and uninteresting... “As I am lucky and the other researcher who uses this table is working from home, I have my reminder notes, mail, and family, flowerpots on the shelf as well as my pens cases and other office supplies organised and pretty... I believe consistency of use of colours and design is good but sometimes for us, we are almost living in this place, bring different colour or any small changes is good to change our moods and energy” (Focus Group 1).*

*“The main purpose of this place is to study and I think the simplicity of the place increase our concentration and more attention to work and not distracting. The simplicity of place is very important to me. For example, white colour wall and ceiling help make the place more relaxing and is very attractive to me. I prefer white shirt, it is my favourite colour, simple and full of love! It brings energy and light into the place which will be suitable each time you enter to the place”.*

*“Extremely and unacceptable when people are checking you and try to make conversation and asking you 100-1000 questions, I lose my concentration and don't like noisy people” (Focus Group 1).*

*“Interesting opportunity to have all good in one place such as high tech for education, great area to discussion and your ability. Feel same time of privacy and proud to be part of Brunel Business School in a new environment and also in meantime, it is fine to be part of great new re-branded designed institution. I love the new building as a great place and interesting design” (Research Student Administration).*

The comments above signified a negative outcome of the relationships between the constructs, which can be the main distinguishing feature between a set of near-identical architecture as a main element of corporate visual identity. As a consequence, recall bias may have affected the influence of the internal-stakeholders' attitude for the reason that it might have been combined with other emotional observations. With regard to Hypothesis 6, there is no relationship between the corporate visual identity used in a school's architecture and the attitude that internal-stakeholders have towards the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, which are employed in the school's architecture.

The relationship between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts was non-significant, and the regression path unexpectedly illustrated a significant negative relationship between these two variables ( $\gamma=-0.083$ ,  $t\text{-value}=-1.481$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was rejected because they were not statistically significant (p. 148). According to the structural model evaluation, the relationship between these two variables (CVI ---> ARTIFACTS) was not statistically significant. The regression path unexpectedly illustrated a noteworthy negative association between these two variables ( $\gamma=-0.074$ ,  $t\text{-value}=-1.445$ ).

Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected. The unanticipated finding could be associated with the organisation type the case organisation belongs to. Additionally, the scales of measurement from the related literature possibly generated the unexpected unimportant association between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts. The data collected from qualitative study and prior literature was reconsidered. The discriminant validity of the constructs in the structural model assessment confirmed that the measures both of the constructs are actually distinctive and the estimated correlations of discriminant validity were statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Hair et al., 2006) and the estimated correlations between factors were less than the recommended value of 0.9 (Kline, 2005) (See Table 5.28).

**Philosophy, mission and value and architecture components relationships** – with regard to the relationships between philosophy, mission and values and architecture dimensions (H7, H8, and H9), the findings of the qualitative research (follow-up interviews and focus groups) supported and validated the philosophy, mission and values and architecture dimensions' scales. As the results of this research potentially highlighted, there is no effect between the philosophy, mission and value as main elements of corporate identity and physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) (architecture dimensions).

With regard to the favourable presentation of the philosophy, mission and value to the internal-stakeholders, the construct's dimension brings about a deeper perspective to the corporate identity construct and captures five items from the initial scale. As with other elements of corporate identity, it keeps the initial features, albeit with a reduced number of items. The relevant items were loaded on to the underlying constructs as predicted, even though some items were deleted in the scale purification process (Steenkamp and van Trijp,



1991). A measurement model for those constructs was estimated and illustrated good fit indices.

The current research supports the idea that philosophy, mission and value are key drivers of corporate identity. Earlier researchers have found philosophy, mission and value to be antecedents to corporate identity variables in the marketing literature (Sinkula et al., 1997; Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005). Balmer (2007 and 2008) claimed that corporate identity is as follows: “articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and the way it goes about its business especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment” (p. 899). Corporate identity extends beyond visual symbols and how they are communicated to the articulation of a company’s philosophy, mission, and values (Balmer, 2007, 2008; Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Balmer, 1998; Olins, 1995; Pondar, 2005; Simoes et al., 2005). A company’s values, mission (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer 1996; Gray and Balmer 1997; Simoes et al., 2005) and philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003) are expressed through corporate identity and by emphasising the uniqueness of the company.

Corporate philosophy is a set of guideline principles that help communicate goals, plans, and policies to all employees and behaviour to levels of a company (Wright, 1984). Corporate philosophy is a key element of corporate identity, which tends to be specific for each company (Abratt, 1989). A company’s philosophy establishes the context of day-to-day operating decisions and guides the organisation in making trade-offs among competing performances for short-term and long-term goals (Ledford et al., 1995; Wright, 1984), and the performance and all activities of the organisation tend to be linked directly to the philosophy (Wright, 1984). The company’s philosophy “directs decisions, policies, and actions and entails core motivating assumptions, principles, values, and tenets” (Simoes et al., 2005, p. 158). Identity concerns the unique corporate features (Bernstein, 1986; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

The company’s philosophy can be articulated in the mission statement (Collins and Porras, 1991; Simoes et al., 2005) and emphasises the uniqueness of the company. A corporate mission is the purpose for the existence of the company and is the most important part of the corporate philosophy (Abratt, 1989; De Witt and Meyer, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanglu, 2006).

Thus, an organisation's mission provides the basis for its identity and lays down core directions for employee conduct. Mission statements are very different and tend to stress value, positive behaviour and guiding principles within the company's belief and ideology, in order to promote corporate culture and philosophy. A company's mission statement functions as a principle of order (Primeaux, 1992, p. 78) and organises the company's principles (Fritz et al., 1999). The philosophy, mission and values dimension attempts to bring a strategic basis to the corporate identity construct and helps channel internal-stakeholders' attention in a certain direction, share goals and expectations (Alessandrini, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Gorman, 1994; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel et al., 2001).

Therefore, it is likely to be the most practical dimension of corporate identity. For example, this study has found that: BBS's values and mission are regularly communicated to employees (PMV1); senior management shares the corporate mission with employees/students (PMV6), BBS has a well-defined mission (PMV7); there is total agreement on the mission across all levels and BBS areas (PMV8) and all employees are committed to achieving the BBS's goals (PMV9) (Sinkula et al., 1997; Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Simoes et al., 2005) and these support the idea that the philosophy, mission, and values play a significant role in the formation of its corporate identity (Melewar, 2003). Therefore, it is likely to be the most practical dimension of corporate identity. Organisations must recognise the importance of philosophy, mission, and values and that these are necessarily actively shaped (Ledford et al., 1995) and their conscious implementation is thus essential. This may involve pragmatic actions. One interviewee observed,

*“... I think it is related to the company's goals and missions, ... is inspirational, how you want your company to be perceived by internal and external, it must be perceived clearly and accurately in order to achieve the organisation's goals, mission and objectives. Corporate identity should communicate a company's unique attributes and values very very clearly to stakeholders. Every organisation, regardless of size, already has a corporate identity, planned or unplanned which should manage its identity in a purposeful manner” (Operations and Finance Manager).*

Furthermore, experts stated that,

*“I think from where I am sitting my ambition of the school is to embody its mission, its strategic vision. I have quite an idealistic perception and I think, we*

*quite successful to explaining to staff what mission of the school is but only to some extent. Academics are highly independent and only have limited alimnts purely to the school because they have many aliens and networks outside the school. My ambition will be too completely get them aligned and on-board with the mission and the vision, but I realised we are not entirely successful. And I associate that with the identity” ... I think the main purpose of BBS is related to its mission statement and it’s aligned with university mission statement, and we have a substantial strategic plan to try to implement that”... “Regarding to corporate style and ethos, in order for it to be attractive for academics we have to emphasise on collegiality and we have to emphasis on support for their ambitions and there activity. It’s how we reward either explicitly through paying conditions or implicitly by recognition. So I like for the school to establish the culture with that level of collegiatly and respect what people do” (Lecturer).*

*“I believe, the reason of improving the ranking the university is related to the management of corporate identity of BBS which is used as a tool to systematically and consistently communicate a company’s unique attributes and values. As the evidence recently shows, management tried to ensure that all corporate communications reflect and reinforce the company’s attributes and values in a consistent and positive manner through internal and external consumers” (School Manager).*

These statements are in line with the following focus group participants’ comments,

*“I think all organisations require focusing on its value which influences its consumers and employees behave in a certain way and can influence on their behaviour. In my opinion, it is about the soul and heart of organisation, soul and heart of organisation is company’s identity” (Focus Group 3).*

Research in marketing demonstrated that corporate identity is an assembly of visual cues, physical and behavioural by which customers can recognise the company and distinguish it from others (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 2001; He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Nguyen, 2006; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The power of these visual cues resides in their ability to speak louder than words in forming and reinforcing corporate identity. Other researchers recognise the influence of these visual cues in an organisation’s identity formation, but they distinguish visual identity from corporate identity” (Nguyen, 2006, p. 64). Architecture is an art and a significant piece of symbolism lies at the heart of corporate identity (Balmer, 2005) and influences how the corporate identity is perceived (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002) and can help to establish a strong universal corporate identity (Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van den Bosch et al., 2006; Yee, 1990).

In the service industry, architecture is a major concern of marketing managers because the ultimate goal of the businesses is to increase recognition and managers invest money and effort in improving internal-stakeholders' perceptions. However, this assumption has not been tested yet. This study is the first to empirically assess the relationship between a company's philosophy, mission, and values and architecture.

Although the direct relationship between philosophy, mission, and value and architecture dimensions (spatial layout and functionality/physical structure (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) were reported, the statistical analysis showed that internal-stakeholders believed that in this context the architecture of the building does not communicate the philosophy, mission, and values of the school (H7, H8, and H9 not supported). These unexpected outcomes can be attributed to possible mediation effects of the PMV and ARCH, which may have inserted boundary conditions for the relationship between internal-stakeholders, corporate identity, and architecture.

The constructs' measurement items adopted in this study (See Table 4.11) were based on the previous related literature and were confirmed by the qualitative study where the adopted items were applied in order to measure the constructs. The structural model evaluation supports the discriminant validity of the constructs, thus indicating that the distinctiveness between the measures of the constructs was sufficient.

The marketing literature suggested a company's corporate mission, corporate philosophy, and values are articulated through architecture as the comprehensive visual presentation of the company, specific to the service context (Jun and Lee, 2007) and is the key elements of a corporate visual identity (He and Balmer, 2005; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2006; Van den Bosch et al., 2006) to the company's audiences and employees (Alessandrini, 2001; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Gorman, 1994; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel et al., 2001). For example, an academic employee gave his

opinion of the impact of the corporate mission, corporate philosophy, and values on BBS architecture,

*“We are in modern-day and we are in a new building and environment. We are contributing and promoting the school new vision, we are responsible to collaborate with students, families, colleagues, and our partners to share responsibility for the growth in new building for student learning, development, and achievement and create global citizens... I think school with its new building communicate different messages to outsiders and should feel more responsible about its premises to all students and employees. I think it has extended its vision to create global citizens” ... “The building was designed based on the vision of the school which usually set by school managements, and should combine of a school’s mission and desires, and the aspirations. The building likes any other design projects need to fit in with the vision of the school and overall school environment and the people who use the school such as management, administration and teachers students and parents” (Senior Lecturer).*

Although the discussions above highlight that in order to communicate the school’s philosophy, values and mission to stakeholders and total agreement across all levels and BBS areas should reflect in the institution’s architecture as the main element of corporate visual identity. This means that consumer’s attitude towards the school’s philosophy, mission, and values and may not be a big influence on internal-stakeholders’ perception of it. The relationship between the philosophy, mission, and value construct (PMV) and the physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) were found to be insignificant in the hypothesised direction. The results were found to be insignificant in the hypothesised direction H7, H8 and H9 are not supported by the significant relation between PMV and LAYOUT, PHY\_STMLI, and ARTIFACTS with architecture (ARCH) ( $\gamma = 0.017$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.442$ ;  $\gamma = -0.005$ ,  $t\text{-value} = -0.118$ ;  $\gamma = 0.03$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.673$  respectively). Thus, the hypotheses H7, H8, and H9 were rejected because they were not statistically significant. The study exhibits no support for the hypothesised effects of philosophy, mission, and values on architecture.

**Communication and architecture components relationships** – With regard to the relationships between communication and architecture dimensions (H10, H11, and H12), the findings of the qualitative research (follow-up interviews and focus groups) supported and validated the communication scale. According to He and Mukherjee (2009) corporate identity

mainly “refers to the organisation’s communication” (p. 3). Authors Kottasz et al. (2008) and Van Riel (1995) argued that the planned self-presentation of an organisation normally involved the transmission of cues via its behaviour, communications and symbolism, and that the regulation of these transmissions constituted corporate identity management. Corporate identity is a crucial factor for determining the effectiveness of communication (Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel, 1995) and is generally seen as belonging to the sender side of the communication process” (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001, p. 295). Communication is the touchstone for presenting an image and therefore recognised in the image formation process (Balmer, 1996; Cornelissen, 2000; Van Riel, 1995). In this study, the direct impact of communication on physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (H10), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (H11), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (H12) were examined on the basis of the theory of marketing and conveys the cohesiveness of the internal-stakeholders unit.

Regarding to the measurement items (See Table 4.10), it is significant to consider the overall scale of communication, which helps the researcher to understand how the organisation’s identity is revealed through communications with internal and external audiences (Simoes et al., 2005). The main stream of communication is related to the social expectation and people expectation from the company. For instance, the item COM1: much of our marketing is geared to projecting a specific image, the item COM2: employees are dressed in a manner to project the BBS image, the item COM4: BBS name is part of school image, the item COM5: BBS corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours/visual style, signage) are constituents of school image, and the item COM7: Merchandising and brochures are an important part of BBS marketing (Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985). The participants gave their opinions about the impact of communication on corporate identity as follows,

*“I believe, the reason of improving the ranking the university is related to the management of corporate identity of BBS which is used as a tool to systematically and consistently communicate a company’s unique attributes and values. As the evidence recently shows, management tried to ensure that all corporate communications reflect and reinforce the company’s attributes and values in a consistent and positive manner through internal and external consumers” (School Manager).*

Participants commented on advertising and public relations as a communication tool,

*“We do have a lot of advertising but not traditional print media. It’s a static media like websites and we also use social media-twitter, LinkedIn and etc. with a consistent set of images ... I distinguish between advertising, communication and public relation. When it comes to what classically relates to public relations then the university retains the PR Company as a needed basis and it has a contract with PR Company. Their job is to promote us as a classic role. The looking in promotes us to the magazines, radio, and media”.*

*“I think BBS doing quite good in PR and they have dedicated people to do that and they doing quite well” (Operations Administrator).*

The findings indicate that robust evidence in this respect and that there is a definite relationship between the communication and corporate identity. It is well established and validated in numerous previous studies (Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985).

A company’s communication can also influence the organisation distinctiveness in addition to services and products, advertising, sales promotion, sponsorship and direct selling (Barich and Kotler 1991; Van Riel 1995), corporate advertising (Argenti, 1998) and public relations activities (Hunt and Grunig, 1994), which are directed at company familiarity and recognition rather than individual advertising communicating a company’s identity. For example, one participant stated that:

*“The ways we communicate to people demonstrate our personality, who we are, we all have different type of personality, and might influence on person’s individual communication style ... sometimes the lack of interpersonal communication ultimately affect the others. The institution is very similar, we communicate through media and different channel to public. We aim to communicate the same message through our logo, Brunel Business School as a name, what we are famous at to all our stakeholders, to transmit coherence, credibility and ethic. Communication is linking the organisation to the stakeholders ... we tried to build and attain a positive perception in stakeholders’ mind” (Research Student Administration).*

With regard to the relationships between communication and architecture dimensions (H10, H11, and H12), the findings of the qualitative research (follow-up interviews and focus groups) supported and validated the communication scale. According to He and Mukherjee (2009) corporate identity mainly “refers to the organisation’s communication” (p. 3). Authors

Kottasz et al. (2008) and Van Riel (1995) argued that the planned self-presentation of an organisation normally involved the transmission of cues via its behaviour, communications and symbolism, and that the regulation of these transmissions constituted corporate identity management. Corporate identity is a crucial factor determining the effectiveness of communication (Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel, 1995) and is generally seen as belonging to the sender side of the communication process” (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001, p. 295). In this study, the direct impact of communication on physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (H10), ambient conditions/physical stimuli (H11), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (H12) were examined on the basis of the theory of marketing and conveys the cohesiveness of the multi-internal stakeholders unit.

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The findings indicate that robust evidence in this respect and that there is a definite relationship between the communication and corporate identity. This relationship is well established and validated in numerous previous studies (Burnett, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1985).

A company’s communication can also influence the organisation’s distinctiveness in addition to services and products, advertising, sales promotion, sponsorship and direct selling (Barich and Kotler 1991; Van Riel 1995), corporate advertising (Argenti, 1998) and public relations activities (Hunt and Grunig, 1994), which are directed at company familiarity and recognition rather than individual advertising communicating a company’s identity. For example, one participant stated that:

*“The ways we communicate to people demonstrate our personality, who we are, we all have different type of personality, and might influence on person’s individual communication style ... sometimes the lack of interpersonal communication ultimately affect the others. The institution is very similar, we communicate through media and different channel to public. We aim to communicate the same message through our logo, Brunel Business School as a name, what we are famous at to all our stakeholders, to transmit coherence, credibility and ethic. Communication is linking the organisation to the stakeholders ... we tried to build and attain a positive perception in stakeholders’ mind” (Operations Administrator).*

Consistent with the theoretical expectation, the hypothesis examination in the current research confirmed the impact of communication on physical structure/spatial layout and functionality (LAYOUT) and ambient conditions/physical stimuli (PHY\_STMLI), and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts (ARTIFACTS) are statistically significant. The regression path shows that Hypothesis 10 (the more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders), Hypothesis 11 (the more favourable the marketing

communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the ambient conditions/physical stimuli is perceived by internal-stakeholders), and Hypothesis 12 (the more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts is perceived by internal-stakeholders) were supported (COM ---> LAYOUT  $\gamma = 0.14$ , t-value= 3.369; COM --> PHY\_STMLI  $\gamma = 0.136$ , t-value = 0.003; and COM ---> ARTIFACTS  $\gamma = 0.139$ , t-value = 0.005). In addition to the statistical results, the participants gave their opinions about the relationships as follows,

*“The new branded our innovative offices the arrangement of the place effects on our movement and affect face-to-face our interaction in office. Also, the arrangement of the place has a powerful role in the communication...more importantly; the spatial structure of each office layout reflects the interaction school goals of an organisation” (Operations Administrator).*

I think the concepts behind ideal teaching spaces are very similar everywhere but with the technological advances and new BBS building, and developments in Brunel, improve the quality of communication between students and lecturers and has dynamic teaching spaces...our new better places with better interior can communicate better to their target audience”.

*“Corporate communication perspectives usually talk about corporate identity and architecture is a tangible visual product... Organisations prefer open space architecture with informal communication and spatial layout to symbolise infringement into individual privacy”... “I think our new office layouts have different interaction and communication potentials” (Focus Group 1).*

In addition, two participants gave commented follows,

*“Office layout and architecture of a company should match to company’s behaviour and company’s culture... The interior design can communicate the company’s culture to the stakeholders and in different line of business may more vital than others... An appropriate spatial layout in school settings, together with individuals’ activities, such as working, studying, playing, communicating together, all combine to form the basis of community... BBS gives information about the location of that university both locally and globally” (Focus Group 2).*

*“By having more student friendly school environments, school systems could increase the university quality as well as future educational programs in the university and architecture of the building can be used by to symbolise companies and the design of the new place helped us to interact with our*

*colleagues which influence on school communities” (Focus Group 3).*

Based on the findings from the related literature, the qualitative results – interviews and focus groups with experts - confirmed the role of organisation management or decision-makers in communication to convey a consistent message to internal and external audiences through the architecture.

## **8.6. SUMMARY**

This chapter has explored and discussed the research findings based on the relationships between the architecture, corporate identity, and stakeholders’ identification triad from qualitative and quantitative research. Data from the survey was considered in relation to the existing literature and follow-up interviews and focus groups. Architecture scale dimensions (symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli) and corporate identity dimensions (corporate visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission, and values) were discussed. The three sub-constructs were supported, from a multi-disciplinary perspective via the following literature: visual/graphic design, organisational studies, integrated communication, and marketing. Insights from follow-up interviews and focus groups provided a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. In addition, the research model outlined in the Chapter III was discussed and the relationships between the constructs were confirmed. Furthermore, this chapter commented on the findings of the measurement scales development and hypotheses testing in relation to theoretical expectations. Moreover, a qualitative study was employed to account for the findings and it provided a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. Both statistical and qualitative results support the triad relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. In addition, the relationships between the components of corporate identity and the components of architecture were examined and interestingly the relationship between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts was non-significant. Surprisingly, the philosophy, mission, and value construct has no relationship to architecture components (physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts).

Based on the findings from the multiple-internal stakeholder perspective of a middle-ranked and London-based Business School, the next section, presents the study’s conclusions,

research limitations, research implications (theoretical, managerial and policy), and suggestions for future research.

## **IX: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

### **9.1. INTRODUCTION**

This research has examined the triad relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification from the multi-internal stakeholders' perspectives of a middle-ranked and London-based Business School; the outcomes discussed in conjunction with the support from the theory presented in Chapter III (Literature Review) and the information obtained from the in-depth interviews and focus groups conducted during the exploratory stage. This chapter details the main theoretical contribution from the study and shows how it makes a theoretical advance regarding an explanatory investigation of the corporate identity, architecture, identification triad, which is this thesis's main theoretical contribution. This research has, it is hoped, filled research gaps mostly by providing substitute insights into the potential antecedent factors of corporate identity as well as antecedents' factors of architecture and its main consequences to identification from the multi-internal stakeholders' perspective and by examining theories in a service setting - middle-ranked Business School - to increase their external validity.

According to the discussion of the findings from the qualitative and quantitative research, Section 9.2 reviews the contribution (in three areas: theoretical, managerial and policy) of the research findings. The limitations of the study, with recommendations and implications for the future research avenues arising from the current study are presented in Section 9.3. Future research directions are suggested in Section 9.4. Finally, some conclusions are drawn in Section 9.5.

### **9.2. RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS**

The findings of this research confirm, expand, and in addition challenge extant observations on five broad areas: corporate identity, architecture and multiple internal stakeholders' identification interplay, main elements of corporate identity/main elements of architecture interplay, corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification. The research

contribution of this research covers i) a gap-bridging empirical study relating to the research theoretical development and a substantive area (service industry – middle-ranked London-based Business School); ii) prospective research deriving from the current study; iii) theoretical implications, as well as managerial and policy makers implications; and iv) and interesting and important questions being raised.

### **9.2.1. Theoretical contribution**

Regarding the theoretical contributions of the current study, this research offers several potential theoretical contributions to the literature, as follows: the findings advance current knowledge by adding alternative insights to service industry and higher education views on possible antecedent factors of corporate identity and architecture. As discussed earlier, (i) to create a favourable architecture, a favourable corporate identity is required (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Balmer, 2001, 2005, 2006; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Melewar, 2003, 2007; Pittard et al., 2007; Van den Bosch et al., 2005); (ii) the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity, the more favourably they identify themselves with that company (Barney and Stewart, 2000; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Dutton et al., 1994); and (iii) the more favourable the architecture is perceived to be by the internal-stakeholders, the more favourably they identify themselves with that company (Elsbach, 2003, 2004; Kioussi and Smyth, 2009; Rooney, 2010).

The main contribution of this research is based on the gaps found in the literature, i.e. 'what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?', 'what is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?', 'what is the relationship between architecture and identification?', and 'what is the relationship between corporate identity dimensions and architecture dimensions?'. This study also enhanced the understanding of certain determinants and outcomes of architecture. More particularly, the research makes three contributions: (i) examine the corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification scales, (ii) empirically tests research hypotheses, and (iii) measures and applies key analytical methods which are explained in this section. Based on the multi-disciplinary approach, the research generated four empirical insights; (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture

increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on the Business School architecture on five dimensions.

There is a vast quantity of literature devoted to outlining the increasing significance of architecture for companies. As noted earlier, there is a paucity of empirical studies in architecture from the marketing perspective. In addition, there is a lack of research on the interplay between corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification. Given the fundamental nature of the current research, in light of the multi-disciplinary approach, the qualitative research in the first stage of the study with case study design can be extremely useful for underdeveloped concepts (Eisenhardt, 1989; Gill and Johnson, 1991; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Yin, 1994).

There are the literature gaps in the existing body of knowledge, which may be summarised as follows: (i) there is an absence of research on employees and open offices phenomenon within the more modern office environment (McElroy and Morrow, 2010, p. 615); (ii) there is a lack of empirical research into how architecture might be defined; (iii) little is known about contemporary changes in office environments (McElroy and Morrow, 2010 p. 612); (iv) there is a lack of empirical research on how the introduction of new or re-designed offices may be successfully managed (Davis, 2010, p. 221) (v) little is known about the connections between place and the formation of identities or how a connection to place influences responses to organisational change (Rooney, 2010); (vi) there is little study of the different levels of importance among the components of the physical environment in predicting outcome variables (Han and Ryu, 2009); (vii) almost no research has examined how employees perceive specific dimensions of workplace identity in work environments that limit the display of personal identity markers (Elsbach, 2003, p. 623); (viii) marketing literature has no systematic study of the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification. (ix), there is a lack of explanatory models and theory building studies in the area of ARC. (x), there is no study of the relationship between the work environment and the ways people interact, and organisation-related identification, identity enactment (Thatcher and Xhu, 2006); and (xi) the assumption of Elsbach (2003) and Rooney, (2010) that there is relationship between corporate identity, architecture has not been tested and validated yet. From the identity/architecture/identification interplay perspective, this study represented a major empirical examination and filled the above research gaps.

In the academic literature, a distinction was made between different approaches from the key perspectives graphic design, integrated-communication, organisational studies, marketing and multi-disciplinary approaches (See Chapter II). A well-managed architecture can be a powerful means of integrating the many disciplines and activities essential to an organisation's success, which requires a multi-disciplinary approach that attempts to harmonise the insights from the different areas. This study contributes to the current belief. The findings from this study contribute to the literature by providing a further explanation of why and how a modern Business School's architecture communicates the corporate identity where it is agreed among marketing scholars (Balmer, 1997; Van den Bosch *et al.*, 2005) that "corporate identity is about appearance" and 'everything a company does, express its characteristics' (Abratt, 1989, p. 66), and can be visualised, in addition to the stakeholders' identification being supported.

The present study, therefore, adds new knowledge to the design literature, which (Bernstein, 1986; Carter, 1982; Lippincott and Margulies, 1957; Margulies, 1977; Olins, 1989, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Selame and Selame 1988) asserts that corporate identity is about corporate visual design to present the company to the internal and external audience via visible artefacts such as building, communication material, exterior design, interior design, symbol, colour etc. and invisible means such as organisational behaviours. This research scrutinises internal-stakeholders' perception-based attributes to the architecture and its elements, as well as its relations to corporate identity and identification as the main outcomes. These findings, therefore, add to current research by representing important rationales for the relationships between architecture and the antecedent factors of interest, namely spatial layout and functionality; ambient conditions/physical stimuli; symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts in regards to corporate identity and the antecedent factors (corporate visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission and value) to internal stakeholders' identification.

The present research complements the belief of scholars (Becker, 1981; Bitner, 1992; Campbell, 1979; Davis, 1984; Elsbach, 2004; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fischer *et al.*, 2004; Morrow and MeElroy, 1981; Schmitt *et al.*, 1995) that internal-stakeholders' perceptions of the servicescape and associated elements can lead their beliefs, attributions, and judgmental outcomes connected with the organisation, its people, and its products in two directions; i) affecting how people assess their work environment, and ii) how they see themselves on the



basis of the attributes and functioning of their work environment (Fischer et al., 2004).

This study also contributes by to marketing theory. Architecture has drawn the attention of marketing literature which states that architecture is an important part of communication strategy (Melewar and Saunders, 2000) and covers corporate design (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007). Marketing professionals take aesthetics and style (as a kind of language which architect select the essential elements to communicate) considerations in their work into account (Olins, 1990; Weggeman *et al.*, 2007). Corporate communication and marketing are significant for workplace productivity and innovation and organisations need to integrate the latest innovations into workspaces to serve the multiple needs of today's organisations (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007) and, consequently, its identification (Nguyen, 2006). The findings of this research, so far is one of the first studies to empirically validate the assumption made by researchers (Elsbach, 2003; Rooney, 2010) that there is relationship between corporate identity and architecture in higher education in this case, a London-based Business School.

In addition, this study contributes to grasping a broader view of architecture as a main element of corporate identity, as well as marketing by examining the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, and identification from the eyes of internal-stakeholders. Architecture (physical environment) “must be designed in response to two types of needs: operations needs expressed by the maximisation of organisational efficiency, and marketing needs to create an environment which influences stakeholders' attitudes and beliefs toward the organisation and, as a result, and identification” (Nguyen, 2006). So far, this is one of the earliest studies to empirically validate the assumption made by scholars that there is an interplay between corporate identity, architecture, and identification in the service industry (Davis, 2010; Elsbach, 2003; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Rooney, 2010). Meanwhile, the current study also expands understanding regarding the interplay between corporate identity, architecture, and identification, therefore, advancing current knowledge by adding alternative insights to the service setting - and helping to validate and refine the findings in the literature in this field. The main contribution of this research is to the corporate identity, design and services marketing literatures.

Contribution to new knowledge is the most significant element of a doctoral thesis. This empirical study, on which this thesis is based, has made significant contributions to knowledge, both theoretically and managerially, which is concerned with aligning the importance of the study to the development of the discipline being studied. This research offers a threefold theoretical contribution to the literature (i) as an extension of the theory, (ii) in conceptualisation and measurement and (iii) in theory testing and generalisation.

### **Theory extension level**

The current research findings advance present knowledge by illustrating the relationship between corporate identity and architecture and positively impacts on identification. Furthermore, it is accumulating additional insights to marketing and other fields' views on possible antecedent factors of architecture and corporate identity and has the potential to aid long-term relationships with customers. In addition, this research contributes to the stock of knowledge in the corporate identity and design literature by assessing the recognised hypotheses and providing original theoretical results. These findings extend knowledge of corporate identity theory by offering the first systematic empirical support for the literature which proposed a connection between corporate identity and architecture by examining within a service setting a middle-ranked London-based Business School.

Some authors (Elsbach, 2003, 2004; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Rooney, 2010) have suggested that architecture and corporate identity are related, however, little extant literature has attempted to categorise the various relationships between corporate identity, architecture, and stakeholders' identification. Furthermore, the relationship between architecture and identification has been confirmed by the scholars (Ellemers et al., 2004; Elsbach, 2003; Hogg and Terry, 2000; Rooney, 2010), nevertheless, little is known about the connections between places and how a connection to place influences responses to organisational identity (Elsbach, 2003; Rooney, 2010; Thatcher and Xhu, 2006). Additionally, the present research extends past studies in the field of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification, but also, the present research extends past studies in the higher education context and it presents a validated research model, which traces the association between the construct of corporate identity, its antecedents as well as architecture and its antecedents and identification as its consequences. Moreover, the validated research model, from multiple internal-stakeholders' viewpoint in a London-Based Business School and higher education/service context is

addressed (Pl See Chapter I and II) and is a response to earlier calls for examination of these fields from the marketers (Becker, 1981; Bitner, 1992; Campbell, 1979; Davis, 1984; Elsbach, 2003, 2004; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007; Fischer et al., 2004; Morrow and MeElroy, 1981; Schmitt et al., 1995).

The development of a multi-disciplinary foundation for the architecture as the main element of the corporate identity domain is a major contribution of this research. Indeed, by employing simultaneously different schools of thought to conceptualise corporate identity/architecture interplay management, the current study adds to the multi-disciplinary approach advocated in the corporate identity literature. It thus contributes a holistic perspective of corporate identity/architecture management. The research mainly concentrated on the management of corporate identity/architecture interplay as a key challenge by developing multi-disciplinary insights into relationships, which were translated into findings and operationalised the concept (Palmer and Bejou, 2006). This present study, therefore, empirically supported the conception of the embeddedness of architecture throughout the business, and corporate identity as a core part of architecture, as advocated in the marketing literature (Elsbach, 2003). This research is the first systematic empirical work to incorporate these concepts through a synthesis of the literature of architecture, corporate identity, identification, corporate visual identity and the literature of design to portray the corporate identity/architecture interplay in a more holistic manner. Moreover, this research adds to the core corporate identity, marketing and design literature, and helps to develop and validate the architecture scale, and test the research model.

This research sought to redefine and rekindle research into the area of corporate identity/architecture/stakeholders' identification on the basis of social identity theory and attribution theory. The statistical results show that most of its hypotheses are valid (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H10, H11, H12: supported; H6, H7, H8, H9: not supported). This study has found evidence that (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on Business School architecture on five dimensions. The investigation contributes to the corporate identity, architecture and identification literature by

developing and testing a scale that specifies the sphere of a constructs' relationships. In addition, the findings from this study contribute to the literature by providing a further explanation of why and how the Business School's corporate identity influences a Business School's architecture and how internal stakeholders perceive and feel towards the spatial layout and functionality; ambient conditions/physical stimuli; symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts in a UK modern Business School context.

The developed research model identified the antecedents of corporate identity and the main factors influencing architecture and identification as the main consequences of a given architecture in the eyes of service industry stakeholders, in this case of middle ranked London-based Business School. Corporate identity management as a multifaceted phenomenon (Balmer, 1995, 1998) is the expression made manifest in the communications of the organisation (Balmer, 1995, 1998; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Baker and Balmer, 1997; Bernstein, 1986; Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; Comelissen and Harris, 2001; Ind, 1990; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). This study described the conceptualisation of corporate identity management as consisting of three components: i) philosophy, mission, and values (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1994; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Simoes et al., 2005), ii) communications (Balmer, 1996; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel 1995), and iii) corporate visual identity (Carter, 1982; Dowling, 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins, 1991; Pilditch, 1970; Simoes et al., 2005).

Architecture as a physical environment of an organisation influences customer behaviours by creating an overall aesthetic impression and corporate image, especially pertinent in a service industry (Han and Ryu, 2009). According to some authors (Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009; McElroy and Morrow, 2010; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1999) and based on the research findings, the three main components of architecture which supported in this study are: i) decor and artifacts/symbolic artifacts, ii) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and iii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli will explain in the following sections. These factors are the main sufficient factors of the physical environment for customer behaviour research in a service context (Han and Ryu, 2009; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002). This result of the current study extends existing research from the stakeholder perspective. It thus further adds to the services management literature by providing evidence in the context of architectural management. Moreover, the findings call for great caution

when invoking the architecture model and employing in different setting any theories developed in a service context such as a London-based middle-ranked Business School.

Another key gap in the existing body of knowledge concerning architecture was a lack of explanatory models, theory building research, comprehensive understanding of favourable architecture and its relation to corporate identity and identification, conceptualisation offering a common terminology, a shared mindset in the existing literature, and the lack of structural managerial approaches. The study provided a validated framework, which identified some factors in the service industry, for example in a London-based middle-ranked Business School, as a challenge to address the research gaps and the knowledge gaps existing in the previous marketing and design literature. The developed research framework (See Chapter III) for evaluating and examining architecture (See Chapter VI) is a novel aspect of the current PhD research.

### **Conceptualisation and measurement level**

Having recognised the importance of the corporate identity/architecture/stakeholders' identification interplay, the question arises of its significance. Why the relationships are significant? What are the main factors which influence the construct? Do these relationships have any impacts on key business areas? These questions lead to the research questions: (i) what is the relationship between corporate identity and architecture?; (ii) what is the relationship between corporate identity and identification?; (iii) what is the relationship between architecture and identification?; and (iv) what is the relationship between the corporate identity dimensions and the architecture dimensions?, To address the research questions, the research's conceptual model was urbanised and empirically established (See Chapters IV and V).

This study provides a research framework (from a multi internal stakeholders' perspective) based on the combination of social identity theory, place identity theory, and attribution theory in order to make explicit the relationship between the research constructs. To address the research questions, the research framework (See Figure 5.6) was developed to assess the relationship between corporate identity, architecture, stakeholders' identification and their antecedents as a novel contribution in this PhD research.

Particular attention was given to the measurements validation. Furthermore, this PhD research offers measurement items for measuring the aspects of corporate identity and architecture and identification in a higher education institution context. Moreover, the research also adds to existing work on the conceptualisation and measurement of constructs in services. In addition to the scale developed for architecture, and based on the research objectives, this research adapts and (re)examined measurements formerly applied and provides further understanding about the dimensionality and operationalisation of the studied concepts. This should help future services researchers to operationalise a number of key variables. Regarding the measurement scale development, this study shows that the constructs are multi-dimensional concepts and, as far as the results are concerned, it might be that the concepts are not equally relevant to different stakeholders in different settings. Concerning the measurement items of architecture, the research so far, from the marketing and organisation based perspective has shown differences in the measurement of the architecture (layout, office space, etc.) used in the workspace (Davis et al., 2010; Sutton and Rafaeli, 1987). In light of the multi-disciplinary approach, this study provides validated measurement items for architecture in addition to corporate identity from multi-internal stakeholders' perspective in higher education.

Estimating the structural model established the relative weighting of the antecedent factors influencing a favourable corporate identity and architecture. The main factor, which influences corporate identity is communication which had the greatest influence (the more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders', the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity), followed by corporate visual identity and philosophy, mission, and values. The findings of this research will help managers to ensure that they know that generating a favourable corporate identity to communicate in the market strengthens the architectural design.

In addition, examining the structural model recognised that the main factor which impacts architecture is layout with the greatest influence (the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the architecture) followed by ambient conditions/physical stimuli and artifacts/decor and artifacts. The current research is the first research to conceptualise and operationalise the concepts of the favourable corporate identity and its influences on

architecture in order to create identification in a service context, in this case, in a London-based middle-ranked Business School. The finding has significant implications for decision-makers, managers, and designers who are paying attention to developing or modifying a favourable architecture in order to produce stakeholders' identification. The theoretical contribution of this research implies that the generalisability of the findings should be adequate.

Additionally, this research contributes to current understanding about the operationalisation of corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification construct as the process of connecting concepts to observations from the London-based Business School, internal-stakeholders' perspective, the operationalisation of the research construct was found to be more diverse than its theoretical elements. Furthermore, from the multi-disciplinary based perspective, the literature suggests that corporate identity consist of i) organisation's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), mission, and values (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer, 1996, 2007, 2008; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Gray and Balmer 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005); ii) communications (Balmer 1996; Van Riel 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter 1982; Dowling 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins 1991; Pilditch 1970). In addition to architecture measurement from the literature of the multi-disciplinary based perspective, three constructs were identified as i) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and iii) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts. The model was well-explained and validated by qualitative and quantitative studies, illustrates that the model can be profitably used in other research contexts. In addition, the study model should help service researchers, specific in higher education to examine in the field.

Given the significance of the architecture, and building upon the evidence, there is no theoretical framework describing the adoption and evaluation of a favourable architecture, corporate identity and identification interplay. This is recognised in the fact that the architecture, as a multifaceted study area, the diversity of its conceptualisations in the literature with different issues, needs more in-depth exploration. In the quantitative stage, measurement items of the research constructs were identified, refined, and subjected to rigorous statistical examination to check validity and reliability, though; many items were

removed from the conceptual framework in the scale validation process. On the basis of the reliability, discriminant and validity examination, the current research is the first to statistically support the multi-dimensionality of the constructs. In addition, by the re-development of the existing items to measure the research constructs from qualitative study and then investigating the scales in confirmatory factor analysis (EFA), Cronbach alpha, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the measurements were psychometrically sound and appropriate for representing the concepts and this research provides a significant contribution in its measurement model.

### **Theory testing and generalisation**

As stated above, this study focuses on explaining the constructs, in a holistic manner the way in which multi-internal stakeholders produced corporate identity for the company and its dimensions (visual identity; philosophy, mission and value; and communication) to influence the company's architecture in order to create multi-internal stakeholders' attachments (identification) towards the middle-ranked Business School in the context of the United Kingdom.

This research is expected to present supplementary insights into the earlier literature, in addition, contributing to theory testing and generalisation. Though, UK consumers may have idiosyncratic characteristics, which influence the findings of this research, the findings can be generalised across the university sector (Aaker, 1997). Recent developments within the literature point to the growing importance of concepts of corporate identity and architecture. Guided by these important concepts four research questions were formulated which have underpinned this research: i) what are the underlying dimensions that constitute the construct of corporate identity?; ii) what are the underlying dimensions that constitute the construct of architecture?; and iii) does the relationship between corporate identity and architecture have any influence on key business areas? These research questions lead to other research questions. In theoretical terms, this research expands the existing view of corporate identity and architecture by focusing on a complex conceptualisation of corporate identity and architecture management to gain a deeper understanding of the role played by the architecture in building the identification. This study provides from a multi-internal stakeholders' research framework which is based on the social identity theory, place identity theory, and attribution theory in order to make explicit the relationship between the research constructs. To address



the research questions, the research framework (See Figure 5.6) was developed to assess the architecture and the association between the relevant variables as a novel contribution to this PhD research.

Particular attention was given to the measurements validation. Furthermore, this PhD research offers measurement items for measuring the aspects of corporate identity and architecture and identification in higher education institution context. Moreover, the research also adds to existing work on the conceptualisation and measurement of constructs in services. In addition to the scale developed for architecture, and based on the research objectives, this research adapts and (re)examined measurements formerly applied and provides further understanding about the dimensionality and operationalisation of the studied concepts. This should help future services researchers to operationalise a number of key variables. Regarding the measurement scale development, this study shows that the constructs are multi-dimensions concepts and, as far as the results are concerned, the concepts are not equally relevant to different multi-internal stakeholders in different settings. Concerning the measurement items of architecture, in the research so far from the marketing and organisation based perspective (Davis et al., 2010; Sutton and Rafaeli, 1987), there have been differences in the measurement of the architecture (layout, office space, etc.) used in the workspace. Even though, the number of measurement items was not the same as in the original, the statistical results showed a high degree of reliability and validity for each construct. Accordingly, the results of the current study can be generalised to a population (Aaker, 1997; Churchill, 1999).

Estimating the structural model established the relative weighting of the antecedent factors influencing a favourable corporate identity and architecture. The main factor, which influences the corporate identity is communication which had the greatest influence (the more favourable the marketing communication of a company perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the company's corporate identity), followed by philosophy, mission, and values and corporate visual identity. The findings of this research will help managers to ensure that they generate a favourable corporate identity with which to communicate in the market in order to strengthen the architecture design.

In addition, examining the structural model recognised that the main factor, which impacts architecture, is layout with the greatest influence (the more favourable the spatial layout and functionality is perceived by internal-stakeholders, the more favourable the attitude internal-stakeholders have towards the ARC) followed by physical stimuli and artifacts. The current research is the first research to conceptualise and operationalise the concepts of the favourable corporate identity and its influences on architecture in order to create identification in this service context, a middle-ranked Business School. The finding has significant implications for decision-makers, managers, and designers who are paying attention in developing or modifying a favourable architecture in order to produce stakeholders' identification. The theoretical contribution of this research implies that the generalisability of the findings should be adequate.

Additionally, this research contributes to current understanding about the operationalisation of corporate identity, architecture and identification construct as the process of connecting concepts to observations. That is, from the internal-stakeholders' perspective, the operationalisation of the research construct was found to be more diverse than its theoretical elements. Furthermore, from the multi-disciplinary based perspective, the literature suggests that corporate identity consists of i) organisation's philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Balmer 1994; Bernstein, 1986; Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Melewar, 2003), mission, and value (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Balmer, 1996, 2007, 2008; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Gray and Balmer 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005); ii) communications (Balmer 1996; Van Riel 1995); and corporate visual identity (Carter 1982; Dowling 2001; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999, 2000; Melewar et al., 2001; Olins 1991; Pilditch 1970). In addition to architecture measurement from the multi-disciplinary based perspective literature, three constructs have been identified i) physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, ii) ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and iii) symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts.

Given the significance of the architecture and building upon the evidence, there is no theoretical framework describing the adoption and evaluation of a favourable architecture, corporate identity and identification interplay. This is recognised in the fact that the architecture as a multifaceted study area has diversity of its conceptualisations in the literature with different issues, which need more in-depth exploration. In the quantitative stage, measurement items of the research constructs were acknowledged, refined, and subjected to

rigorous statistical examination to check validity and reliability, though; many items were removed from the conceptual framework in the scale validation process. On the basis of the reliability, discriminant and validity examination, the current research is the first to statistically support the multi-dimensionality of the constructs. Furthermore, satisfactory fit indices with important pathways in the hypothesised direction among the theorised constructs were evident. The findings of the empirical analysis indicate that the measurements were psychometrically sound and appropriate for representing the concepts. The current research, then, makes a contribution to the literature by modifying the scales employed to measure certain constructs and examining them within the service and could be used for further research. The results confirmed that the majority of the measurement items satisfied the reliability and validity criteria in the service context, even though some items were removed. The findings help to assess the direct relationship between the constructs as variables within the model. Thus, this research by filling the research gap makes a further contribution.

The use of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Cronbach alpha, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), enabled a refined validation test of the corporate identity and architecture scales. Moreover, as a preliminary stage of structural equation modelling (SEM), three measurement models were examined to test measurement validity. In corporate identity and architecture research, the use of CFA and SEM (with weighted least squares) is a pioneering approach; this study provides an important contribution in its measurement model.

The result of the current research proposes that the architecture is recognised as an important element of corporate visual identity. Support is extended here for the theory regarding the antecedents and consequences of the architecture. The research model elucidates well the study constructs and designates that the concept can be profitably employed in other research contexts. In addition, the research framework should help service researchers to explore in the field. In addition, the results of this study indicated that corporate identity and architecture management forms a useful tool for articulating the business unit strategy.

The lack of an agreed definition of architecture has in turn spawned various methodologies for measuring the construct. Though, there is no universally accepted definition of architecture, there is at least some consensus in that architecture denotes the added value to the company. This value can serve as a bridge that links what happened to the brand in the

past and what should happen to the brand in the future (Keller, 2003). Hence, Ambler's (2003) characterisation of brand equity as a repository of future profits or cash flows that results from past marketing investment.

The results of the CFA demonstrated that the definition of architecture is a visual presentation of a company (Jun and Lee, 2007) which encapsulates a company's purpose, identity (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006), and culture (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005) and which influences stakeholders' attitude, and behaviour (Alessandri, 2001; Bitner, 1992; Brennan et al., 2002; Han and Ryu, 2009; Kamarulzaman et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2006; Rooney, 2010). It can be decisive in facilitating stakeholders' identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Knight and Haslam, 2010). Simultaneously, this research evaluates the extent of the current definition of architecture and generalises to other sectors as a result of the dimensions that emerged from the data. Nevertheless, it is critical that subsequent study validates the scale employing exactly the same procedures. The same exploratory factor and structural equation modelling estimation methods should be used given the range of findings that different estimation methods produce. Despite the research limitations, this research supplies some important results about the construct dimensions of the architecture. The results propose that this architecture is undoubtedly a multidimensional construct.

### **9.3.2. Policy and managerial contribution**

According to the previous section, the theoretical and empirical insights derived from the research have several implications. In light of the findings, this thesis provides policy/management recommendations to multiple substantive areas, such as university managers, school managers, and senior managers (who are instrumental in planning and delivering the changes that supported the new policy and strategic agenda, Rooney, 2010), board directors, identity management, strategic management and corporate branding to Brunel Business School. Generally, the high or upper levels of the organisation are responsible for strategic planning, policy and decision-making. The results of this research confirm, expand but also challenge the extant understanding of the corporate identity/architecture /identification interplay. In other words, a clear understanding of the dimensions of the relevant concepts can assist managers in policy development to develop a coherent policy for

managing favourable corporate identity and architecture which can influence stakeholders' identification.

The findings of this study should enable policy makers whose responsibilities it will be to determine the future identity of the corporation to be better informed about the ways in which universities can actively improve identification within their stakeholders. It is argued that i) corporate identity should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the identity elements (company's corporate visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission and value); ii) company's architecture should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the identity elements (symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts, physical structure/spatial layout and functionality, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli); iii) corporate identity/architecture gap should be constantly carefully managed; iv) architecture/identification (emotional attachment) gap should be regularly monitored. Moreover, the thesis provides policy recommendations for higher education in UK. In addition, the findings of this study may support and shape business policy.

By taking a holistic approach, this study suggests that the goals of the organisation should ideally be transformed into a clear corporate identity, together with corporate visual identity; philosophy, mission and values; and corporate communication. From this research it becomes clear that in order to gain a competitive advantage; organisations should have clear guidelines about organisation's corporate image they desire and how it can be achieved. Today's business environment requires that companies develop long-term relationships with customers and this research proposes three main areas of action that could be undertaken in order to manage corporate identity to attain higher levels of business performance. These relate to the dissemination of philosophy, mission and values, implementation of corporate visual identity and communication (See Figure VI.1). The related items of corporate identity management and its elements may already be managed by a business and in addition, the current study emphasised the need for their integration and consistency. Decision makers and policy makers should make more emphasis on a differentiation between a company and the competitors by paying particular attention to the dimensions of corporate identity management. For instance, attention should concentrate on corporate visual identity implementation because this can present a main form of differentiation, especially in a rapidly changing competitive situation. A deeper view of visual aspects should be adopted and the overall visual presentation in the

organisation business units should be consistent. Managers and policy makers should realise that the identity of an organisation must be based on solid foundations that contain an overall message. It is extensively established in the related literature that organisations should manage stakeholders as they impact on business survival and prosperity. Managers may be concerned with a consistent and a continuous programme of actions as a preferred way to transmit the desired message and image to stakeholders, as corporate identity is unquestionably functional in reaching different stakeholders.

In the present competitive environment, customers expect institutions to present a wide array of services. Introducing new courses that best meet the changing stakeholders' needs is thus a main element in the image management process and the positioning of the service institutions. Similarly, as company's corporate identity impacts image, more attention is needed to ensure those elements such as visual identity and communication, and other features that differentiate the institution from competitive offerings are salient in the stakeholders' mind.

In practical terms, managers can use the corporate identity management scale as a checklist for measuring a business unit's level of management and its consistency by coordinating the dimensions and monitor them as part of a whole process. It is recommended to organisations that they pay more attention to measuring corporate identity management as a routine in every business unit to develop a favourable internal and external image; certain dimensions of corporate identity may be stressed in relation to particular business variables.

In addition, this research suggests that multi-internal stakeholders-oriented organisations are concerned with internal stakeholders' interests and it shows that corporate identity is a significant tool with which to gain key customers especially in customer-oriented companies. It is vital to understand the company's values and what it stands for to employees. Managers from competitor-oriented organisations perceive corporate identity as an instrument that enables them to handle competition and potentially manage a competitive advantage. In addition, a facilities manager should play a full part in the implementation of a corporate identity programme to integrate whatever corporate or visual changes are proposed in the premises plan that the facilities manager is responsible for.

Managers can develop a favourable company's corporate identity in order to maintain

marketing contribution by developing idiosyncratic corporate communication and visual identity. In addition, it is necessary that internal-stakeholders are involved in corporate identity management (based on the literature and interviews). The company's visual identity and communication should be consistent with its philosophy, mission and value and managers should integrate the corporate identity management scale items into a coherent set so that a favourable and consistent image is achieved.

With respect to the architecture/environment, this study recommends that feelings of self-efficacy are maintained if the environment facilitates, or at least does not hinder, a person's everyday lifestyle. In the environmental literature, Winkel (1981) debates the concept of manageable environments as one in which the residents of an area are able to organise information from their immediate socio-physical environment in such a way that they can develop a predicative system that allows them to judge whether a setting supports their goals and purposes. "Living in a manageable environment means a person feels self-efficacious with respect to their daily functioning in that environment" (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996, p. 208). At an applied level, the current study has implications for how policy makers and managers might facilitate (re)design of the architecture of the company to create a strong sense of social identity based on their identifications and connections with the workplace. The result of this study is consistent with Rooney (2010).

According to the findings of this study, the relationship between architecture and identification illustrates the impacts on stakeholders' identification. According to policy/strategy, this study suggests that it is more likely that stakeholders can support the goals and contribute to overall organisational effectiveness. According to Ayoko and Hartel (2003) managers need to be aware of how territorial dynamics affect workplace satisfaction. This study recommends that when an environment is perceived as unmanageable it constitutes a threat to self-efficacy. It is at these junctures that architecture management is accorded particular importance by policy makers.

The policy makers or decision makers usually define the set of written rules and entitlements to an informal set of standards in which organisation members tend to follow each other's example and bargain over who gets what. For instance, furniture selection, placement, and seating arrangements may be determined partly by the office administrative staff or partly by

the individual manager. The control over physical stimuli in the immediate environment, such as piles of paper is likely to be more under the control of the individual manager. Symbolic artifacts such as carpeting and what is put on the walls may be partially under the control of the manager and partially determined by the office administrator. Therefore, providing a pleasing and innovative atmosphere and high quality of spaces to customers is required to develop and improve internal-stakeholders' perception. Theoretical and empirical insights derived from this research have several implications for policy makers and managers in respect of architecture which assist them in improving the work/study place.

The decision makers usually define the set of written rules and entitlements to an informal set of standards in which organisation members tend to follow each other's example and bargain over who gets what. For instance, furniture selection, placement, and seating arrangements may be determined partly by the office administrative staff or partly by the individual manager. For instance, the control over physical stimuli in the immediate environment, such as piles of paper is likely to be more under the control of the individual manager. Symbolic artifacts such as carpeting and what is put on the walls may be partially under the control of the manager and partially determined by the office administrator. Therefore, providing a pleasing and innovative atmosphere and high quality of spaces to customers is required to develop and increase internal-stakeholders' perception. The managerial implications of the current study, which were discussed in the earlier section, are also applicable to all higher education in UK.

Admittedly, the design or re-design of a favourable building or place is very costly and demanding for an organisation and policy makers make every effort to create one which is favourable and which reliably communicates the favourable corporate identity to the market (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Hatch and Schultz, 2001; Van den Bosch *et al.*, 2005; Van Riel *et al.*, 2001). Hence, in order to improve the stakeholders' identification and corporate image, the results of this research can be used as a guideline to policy makers; who play an imperative role in the growth of an organisation through physical artefacts.

As some authors (Elsbach and Bechky, 2007; Elsbach and Pratt, 2007) noted, architecture management requires committing sufficient creative resources to 'work smart' and understanding how they can attain multiple functions with the same objects and arrangements.



This research suggests that managers and decision makers are unambiguously mapping out how a specific set of design features facilitates the variety of instrumental, symbolic, and aesthetic functions within an association. According to Weggeman et al. (2007) “the aesthetic function is to inspire to create visions of the better and give us the courage to pursue it, whatever short run sacrifices are required. Inspiration and aspiration go hand in hand. Art therefore consists of the works of people capable of stimulating new aspirations, and inspiring commitment to their pursuit”, which is called “capability beauty” (p. 354). This study recommends how the physical features assist decision making, verify the position of diverse groups, and permit individuals and groups to tailor their aesthetic experiences to meet their aesthetic needs. For example, certain functions might need to be controlled in different parts of the company such as, aesthetics in the entrance lobby.

The result of this study is consistent with the study by the authors Han and Ryu (2009) and Menon and Kahn (2002) which show that decor and artifacts, spatial layout, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli had an important independent role in forming stakeholders’ identification. Predominantly, the elements of decor and artifacts such as ceiling, wall decor, furniture, floor, plants, flowers, painting, and pictures are likely to distinguish a specific middle-ranked Business School from its competitors. Decision makers should carefully consider the ambience and spatial layout as a marketing and operational tool to control the physical elements representing ambience (e.g. light, temperature) and spatial layout (e.g. seating arrangement). Stakeholders should have control and be able to adjust the furniture arrangement according to their preferences, and this would encourage positive reactions, and improve stakeholders’ identification with the organisation. The physical environment of an organisation as an internal communication can influence employee attitudes and behaviours towards organisational change. From a practical, pragmatic basis, managers and policy makers should consider the implications of the office and work place environment on workers’ well-being in the design and re-design of offices.

By bridging the gap between professionals and academic, management a favourable architecture can be seen as an incorporated approach to expressing the company’s communication skills internally and externally. By establishing that the architecture is a chief tangible asset in the expression of a service company can impact on internal-stakeholders’

identification, thus this study aims to be supportive to communication, managers, decision makers, and professionals alike.

From a more practitioner-oriented perspective, the degree of 'manageability' can significantly develop a manager's ability to navigate the complication in the design of the architecture and corporate identity. By isolating the impact of the corporate identity on architecture and the impact of architecture on both customers and employees, the theoretical framework raises several challenging managerial implications. From the research, it becomes clear that when it comes to issues of architecture management, the findings of the present study point to ways in which managerial control of workspace can compromise employees' organisational identification and lead to sub-optimal work experiences. Certainly, according to some social identity authors (e.g. Ellemers, de Gilder and Haslam, 2004; Haslam, 2004; Knight and Haslam, 2010; Marin and de Maya, 2013; Tyler and Blader, 2000; Van Dick, 2004), if the path to organisational success passes throughout identification then closer interrogation of the received wisdom relating to issues of space management seems warranted.

Management must continually promote a consistent message for selling services to customers. Results also show that corporate identity impacts on architecture and this finding agrees with LeBlanc and Nguyen (1996) who propose that corporate identity is the main dimension that can be related to (re)designing a company's architecture. Though, the findings of this study show that the physical environment is significant in explaining a company's identity and identification. For this reason, management must nevertheless control the environmental settings where the service is offered, and convince personnel that concern for quality is part of their jobs (Shetty, 1988).

The present study has demonstrated a significant effect of architecture as a main element of corporate visual identity on corporate identity that evokes an emotional response in the minds of stakeholders (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Olins, 1978, 1989; Van den Bosch *et al.*, 2005; Van Riel, 1995). This contribution indicates that a CVI could serve as an important tool to visualise and emphasis organisation. Moreover, for a favourable implementation of a corporate visual identity it was demonstrated that extensive information provision for both employees and consumers is essential. For stakeholders it is important that they internalise the new corporate visual identity, and feel strongly committed to the corporate

visual identity and to the organisation. For stakeholders, it also seems significant that the meaning of the new corporate visual identity and the reason for the CVI change was communicated. It is recommended that organisations constantly monitor effectiveness and suitability of the corporate visual identity, to adjust organisation communication. Accordingly, it is essential for a company's designers and managers to note the significance of the emotional aspect of the architecture as a key element of corporate visual identity rather than simply focusing on its aesthetics or just on functionality.

In addition, there is a significant correlation between knowledge of architecture as a main element of corporate visual identity as the root of corporate identity and the consistency of a corporate visual identity within the organisation. This study suggests that the organisation should ensure that leaders and managers are clear about the organisations' corporate identity and based on the corporate identity, design or redesign the organisation's building which communicates high expectations to the stakeholders in order to inspire and demonstrate to them an appealing image of what they might perform as a corporate/institute supporter. The scale of corporate identity and architecture could be used by the management as a guideline for creating favourable corporate identity/architecture/identification interplay as well as for monitoring the stakeholders' perception. Besides, the organisation may also provide this guideline to their designers/architect for evaluating their works.

The design of buildings usually is considered to be the specialised province of architects, builders, and engineers. Nevertheless, architects who design buildings often have little detailed information of the uses to which the building will be put as well as little knowledge about the company's identity (Hillier, Musgrove, and O'Sullivan, 1976). Furthermore, limited communication usually takes place between the designers who create the setting and the managers who occupy the setting. The architectural aim is one of accommodating a definite number of employees in a given space at a given cost. Usually, how a building looks is treated as more essential to the architect than how it functions. As soon as the building is completed, the architects are little concerned with the behaviour that takes place within the setting.

As discussed earlier, architecture in the service sector does not connect with universities which are based on knowledge from higher education sectors. The results of this research supply practical guidelines for the managers of the universities in actively managing the

university's corporate identity/architecture/identification from the inside out. Fundamentally, this research recommends that a Business School should enhance corporate identity and support behaviour from the internal stakeholders by communicating institutional corporate identity via corporate visual identity and internal corporate communications activities. Furthermore, corporate identity should be seen as an important factor that greatly affects the design of the building of a Business School. In addition, the corporate identity of a Business School has direct support for internal stakeholders' identification. As presented in the previous section, the results of the current research could perhaps be generalised in several other schools or industries. In practice, the recommendation from this study could be an important and helpful guideline for the management teams of educational institutions as well as other industries, particularly service industries, to encourage multi-internal stakeholders' perception towards corporate identity/architecture/identification effectively.

This study's advice to policy makers in management and marketing academics is that they need to recognise (within the literature) that architecture and corporate identity are both a complicated and a distinctive area of research. This holistic view should be taken of corporate communications, and that further employ mixed-methodology and use of case studies which may facilitate further research into the relationship between the corporate identity, architecture, and identification triad.

According to the findings, fostering the internal-stakeholders' identification contributes to the long-term success of an organisation and policy makers can impact on organisational identification by exposing internal-stakeholders to the organisations' favourite values. The current research recommendation is concerning the analysis that provides a basis for architectural practices to become more active in relationship marketing, brand management, and managing internal-stakeholders' identification. In other words, this research illustrates that the management of an organisation should encourage their internal-stakeholders to behave in alignment with the institutional corporate identity. In addition the recommendation is for rigorous research to be conducted on how clients and end-users identify with design and designers from their perspective, leading to practical guidelines on choosing and setting the right image according to the project phases or practice profile.

The findings of this study should enable policy makers to be better informed about the ways in which the Brunel Business School can actively improve identification within their multi-internal stakeholders. As we discussed earlier, information on the service offering provided by contact personnel is significant, realistic and helpful to a cooperative whose priority is to satisfy its members' needs and expectations. In fact, the service context is based on internal-stakeholders' needs and in reference to physical environment settings, as it is a highly regarded aesthetic element in the creation process of corporate image and may have a strong impact on the performance of contact personnel, it must be designed in response to two types of needs: operations needs expressed by the maximisation of organisational efficiency, and marketing needs to create an environment which influences stakeholders' attitudes and beliefs toward the organisation and, consequently, its corporate image and identification (Bateson, 1989; Bitner, 1992; Nguyen, 2006). The marketing concept should be strategically applied and be more customer-focused appealing to a new generation of customers while maintaining identification with existing customers. The spatial layout of the environment must aid the achievement of the employee's and the stakeholders' tasks during the service encounter. Furthermore, since the internal-stakeholders' physical presence and participation is generally essential in services, not only do stakeholders expect to have easy access to the setting, but stakeholders also believe that a part of the place should be reserved for their role.

The current study has shown a significant articulated link between architectural design and client identification. This study has explored in greater detail some of the dimensions in the process of internal-stakeholders' identification. Internal-stakeholders' identification is conceptually part of marketing and specifically branding. Furthermore, it links with issues of personal and social identity. In addition, the decision makers should be aware of the design of the setting, which may be dictated by professional image considerations; such as aesthetic and functional features, which can be essential in the design of offices. Based on the company's corporate identity, the management of the company should concentrate on the sense of what the company values, and how to use the physical environment as a means to enact these values. In addition to the issue of space management, the results of this study suggests that an organisation's managers should be more experienced in representing the internal-stakeholders' requirements and in order to reach, the more intelligent decisions and compromises that are required. The current study presents increased understanding and awareness of how the architecture and design settings affect identification and to determine

how study/work-place can manipulate or (re)arrange the physical environmental design to support more efficient behaviour at work or study.

The results of this study are consistent with the study by the authors Han and Ryu (2009) and Menon and Kahn (2002) in that decor and artifacts, spatial layout, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli all had an important independent role in forming stakeholders' identification. Predominantly, the elements of decor and artifacts such as ceilings, wall decor, furniture, floor, plants, flowers, painting, and pictures are likely to distinguish a specific middle-ranked Business School from its competitors. Decision makers should carefully consider the ambience and spatial layout as a marketing and operational tool to control the physical elements representing ambience (e.g. light, temperature) and spatial layout (e.g. seating arrangement). Stakeholders should have control and change a bit the table positioning and seating based on their preferences, which encourage positive reactions, and to improve stakeholders' identification with the organisation. The physical environment of an organisation as an internal communication can influence employee attitudes and behaviours towards organisational change. From a practical, pragmatic basis, managers and policy makers should consider the implications of the office and work place environment on worker well-being in the design and re-design of offices.

An additional conclusion can be drawn from this study with regard to the differentiation between designers and managers' mind-sets (Walker, 1990). Walker (1990) states that designers and managers belong to "two different tribes" and are characterised by different backgrounds and types of education with different outlooks (p. 146). For example managers are more inclined to highlight words whereas designers highlight visuals. Designers are more inclined to experiment but managers tend more to think in economic and financial terms. The incorporation of designers' and managers' skills and attitudes hold great potential for an organisation. The current thesis presents managers with insights into the implications of the architecture design management. To progress a high quality design, managers and designers need to communicate in a common language from a similar standpoint. In the organisations, the design manager and an organisational manager (e.g. CEO and marketing manager) are responsible for facilitating communication and the flow of information between managers and designers. Furthermore, they both need to support the designers' ideas as well as encouraging the competitive strategies and full incorporation of the design philosophy in the organisation.

Management needs to understand the process of design so as to communicate with designers by using a common language with a similar point of view (Henderson *et al.*, 2003; Kohli *et al.*, 2002). The findings of this study will, it is hoped, help managers and design managers to collaborate with designers in a mutual understanding of the concept to enrich the market.

#### **9.4. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

The current research represents a preliminary foray into the conceptualisation of *corporate identity*, *architecture* and *internal-stakeholders' identification* as the main consequences. Notwithstanding the support that it lends to the research theoretical framework, it is clearly the case that there are a number of limitations to the present research. In addition, it is limited in terms of its sole focus on a multi-internal stakeholders' perspective, sole focus on a single distinctive sector, and its methodology of case studies. Nonetheless, it remains true that there is certainly a need for future research to scrutinise the variables that have been investigated in the current study. The following sections identify some of the research's limitations and propose avenues for future work that will enable researchers to gain a better understanding of the realm of corporate identity/architecture/identification interplay. Due to the resources available, however, this information was deemed beyond the scope of the current research. These limitations do not lessen the importance of the present findings.

The researcher attempted to expand the understanding of the construct of corporate identity, architecture, and identification interplay. Although the endeavour was valuable, it was not without its limitations. The following section concerns the presentation of the research limitations and avenues for future research, which would identify and aid further improvements in this area. It can be grouped into two sub-sections: (i) the method of sampling/analysis; (ii) measurement level.

##### **9.4.1. The method of sampling/analysis**

This study has several limitations that should be considered in interpreting the results and planning future research. Due to the distribution of population, the sampling method chosen to collect the data was the probability method (Sekaran, 2000). The obtained response rate confirmed the requirements of the data analysis techniques (structural equation modeling, SEM) and illustrates an insignificant difference in non-response bias examination (i.e. using the Mann-Whitney-U-test), however still random selections of the participants and the

response rate needs caution when understanding or interpreting the research results. Future research possibilities in this area seem plentiful and future studies should target a large sample as a means of increasing statistical power and more conclusively establishing the robustness of the findings explored in the current study.

A limitation of the research refers to the fact that due to the size of the survey, the empirical study was conducted entirely within a single industry. This limits the generalisability of the research findings. Nevertheless, input from a variety of practitioners was obtained during the exploratory phase of the study. This provided insights into the corporate identity, architecture, and identification arena and provided confirmation of the generic constructs' scale. Another research stream can replicate this study in an additional sector or country in order to examine the generalisability of the findings.

In terms of the research setting, the current research was carried out in a single setting, which was limited to the UK context. Though, conducting the study in a single setting presents the researcher with better control over market and environmental differences (Conant et al., 1990), it does limit the external validity (generalisability of the findings). The Business School setting enabled the researcher to clearly detect the effects of corporate identity factors and architecture factors on the internal-stakeholders' identification, as the nature of the institution is more likely to generate active involvement. In addition, middle ranking Business Schools are, therefore, not quite the same as other schools; for example, Business Schools might be more market-oriented than the rest of the schools. According to Walford (1996) the new public management and quasi market policies employed by governments around the world encourage educational institutions to be altogether more market-orientated. Furthermore, higher education institutions are being transformed into corporate enterprises (Henkel, 1997). This implies that the generalisability of the research results should be adequate. Nevertheless, since the research was conducted in the UK, the findings of this study might not easily be generalised to the higher education institutions of other countries. Therefore, a future study would be recommended to repeat this research in other countries in order to test the generalisability of the outcome (external validity). In addition, as the survey was started when the employees and students moved in to the new building, the future research should include conducting research before and after moving to the new building to understand stakeholders' feelings about the place.



One potential limitation of this study concerns the number and type of modern building architecture used. Future empirical study should be conducted to replicate this study with two or more types of building architecture. This may therefore overcome reservations about the generalisability of the research findings (Churchill, 1999). Therefore, future empirical research should be conducted to replicate this study in different settings.

Another limitation of the current research is that data were collected from convenient samples of multi-internal stakeholders in a service industry which was a London-based middle-ranked Business School in the quantitative phase. As such, the study does not allow for the generalisation of the findings. Given the importance and dynamic nature of architecture, future studies should attempt to understand how internal-stakeholders experience service organisations over time, for instance, assessing internal-stakeholders' perception throughout a variety of stages of consumption.

#### **9.4.2. Measurement level**

This study investigates the relationship between *corporate identity*, *architecture* and *internal-stakeholders' identification* constructs, as perceived by multi-internal stakeholders within a single setting, in this case a Business School, several measurement level limitations existed which must be kept in mind when viewing the results of this study.

All of the measures resulted from the existing scales used in the literature. Furthermore, during the analysis, the validity and reliability of the measurements were assessed (See Chapter V). However, some of the items such as aroma and sound were removed prior to the pilot study. Additional tests, possibly applying the scale to other samples, could enhance its validity. As the study was conducted in the service industry which was, in this case, a London-based middle-ranked Business School, replication in the context of middle-ranked Business Schools in general and in other Business Schools may well prove an interesting area for future research.

The study examined the main elements of corporate identity without regard for more internal and environmental business aspects. A future study could perhaps seek to assess, for example, how different types of corporate culture influence *corporate identity*.

The current study depicted a one-sided view, multi-internal stakeholders-based perspective. The actual consideration of the audiences, namely managers' perspectives, would probably yield different results in terms of constructs/scales and results. The results enhanced the understanding of the realm of corporate identity/architecture/identification interplay.

As a result, the findings provided in this study may improve the understanding of the relationships between the constructs of interest, but only from the perspective of multi-internal stakeholders in contemporary Business Schools. Nevertheless, the selected group of respondents was desirable for this study because of their general knowledge, understanding and experience within the institution. Another stream of research that represents an important future direction can look at the role of managers and employees' perspective in contemporary Business Schools.

Some of the findings of this study, e.g. the relationships between corporate visual identity and symbolic artifacts as well as the relationships between philosophy, mission and value and architecture (spatial layout and functionality, ambient conditions/physical stimuli, and symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts), were unexpected and could be related to the type of business that the case company belongs to, future study might usefully repeat this study in another sector or country in order to examine the generalisability of the findings.

Furthermore, the limitations in terms of the measurement should be pointed out, because some potential items might not have been appropriate items for measuring the constructs, and were removed after performing the exploratory factor analysis and reliability test. However, on the basis of Churchill's "paradigm for developing better measures of marketing construct" (Churchill, 1979, p. 64), the research instrument employed in this study was solidly well developed. The reliability and validity of the measurement scales obtained from the literature were supported by the qualitative findings (in-depth interviews and focus group) as well as performing several rounds of factor analysis. This research is survey-based single case study, however, qualitative used in the first stage of the research and a wider research study may increase the knowledge of the relationships between the research constructs.

## **9.5. SUMMARY**

The most significant contribution of the current research is that it fills the gaps identified in Chapter I. This research has sought to comprehensively examine the relationships between corporate identity (philosophy, mission, and values; communication; and corporate visual identity), architecture (symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts; physical structure/spatial layout and functionality and ambient conditions/physical stimuli) and internal-stakeholders' identification, mainly on the basis of social identity theory, place identity theory, and attribution theory.

This research was informed by survey based, single case study and adopting a multi-internal stakeholder perspective of a middle-ranked a Business School, and constitutes an explanatory investigation of the corporate identity, architecture, identification triad and their antecedents. The dissertation draws on social identity and attribution theories. It focuses on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. Based on the multi-disciplinary approach, the research generated four empirical insights; (i) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on architecture; (ii) a favourable Business School corporate identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholders; (iii) a favourable Business School architecture increases identification with the Business School; and (iv) specifically, a favourable Business School corporate identity impacts on Business School architecture on five dimensions.

Since this study is the first research to identify the relationship between corporate identity/architecture/internal-stakeholders' identification constructs, no theoretical justification was available from previous studies. However, a range of theoretical implications was discussed. Indeed as the thesis demonstrated, the relationships between corporate identity, architecture and stakeholders' identification should be a key consideration in a service industry, in this case, a middle-ranked London-based Business School and has significant implications for management and policy makers. Despite several limitations, this research provides a significant contribution by providing a platform for and stimulation for future work on measurement and causal relationships. Accordingly, this and other future research will not render the present studies superfluous, but rather should serve to complement and flesh out their contribution. The researcher believes that, overall, the current

research, along with recent relevant studies, lays down a solid underpinning for an emerging research topic: corporate identity/architecture/stakeholders' identification interplay.

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## APPENDIXES

### Appendix 3.1: Some of the key definitions of corporate identity concept

Authors	Definitions
<b>Powell, 2011</b>	<p>Corporate identity is the values and ethos of an organisation that reflects the foundations around which the corporate brand is built (Balmer and Gray, 2003).</p> <p>Corporate identity (not to be confused with the graphic design paradigm of identity): What are the corporation's distinctive attributes? (p. 1368).</p>
<b>Balmer <i>et al.</i>, 2009</b>	<p>Corporate identity is what we really are (p. 7).</p> <p>Corporate identity is actual Identity (p. 7).</p>
<b>He and Mukherjee, 2009</b>	<p>Corporate identity (CI) “refers to the features, characteristics, traits or attributes of a company that are presumed to be central, distinctive and enduring” (p. 2).</p> <p>Corporate identity is “constituted of core values (e.g. operating philosophy, vision and mission, leadership) and demographics (e.g. business, size, age, competitive position, country of origin, location) of the company (p. 1).</p> <p>Corporate identity is “important for consumer marketing, because: (a) it defines the essence of a company and accords economic, social and symbolic meanings to a company in the perception of the consumer; (b) it situates the company at the fundamental level among the social and economic exchange networks of other organisations, e.g. competitors, suppliers, distributors, buyers, governmental agents; (c) it represents the basic subject for evaluation by consumers, which in turn has cognitive, affective and behavioural consequences by those consumers, such as consumers' perceptions, images, identifications and action for/ against the focal company (e.g. Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994; Pratt 1998); and (d) consumers with more positive perception of corporate identity will, through association, have more positive attitude toward the company's products, i.e. there will be a positive consumer response (be it cognitive, affective or behavioural) to the company's products” (p. 2).</p> <p>Corporate identity is “increasingly important for contemporary consumer marketing due to the post-modern levity resulting from globalisation of consumer markets, technologically savvy consumers” (p. 2).</p> <p>“Corporate identity mainly refers to the organisation's communication (p. 3).</p> <p>Corporate identity “forms a central and integrative function within the corporate and competitive strategy and that corporate identity forms a pivotal role which can influence the strategy content as well as providing a corporate communication system to stakeholders” (p. 3).</p> <p>“Corporate identity is translated into consumer responses through a variety of mechanisms, which can originate from the</p>



	<p>company (e.g. corporate communications, corporate branding, and other identity communicators), from cultural environments, from the consumers themselves, and from the interaction between the consumers and the company. In this paper, we only focus on the final one: the interaction between the consumers and the company” (p. 5).</p> <p>“Corporate identity influences consumers to develop identification with a company” (p. 13).</p> <p>Corporate identity is “central to marketing thought as it shapes consumer attitudes and behaviour towards marketing activities of companies” (p. 13).</p>
<b>Powell et al., 2009</b>	Corporate identity refers to an organisation’s unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of members of the organisation” (p. 422).
<b>Elsbach, 2009</b>	Corporate identity “is seen not just as involving the visible outward presentation of a company [through corporate logos and products], but also the set of intrinsic characteristics or ‘traits’ that give the company its specificity, stability, and coherence” (p. 1047).
<b>Van den Bosch, 2008</b>	Most research on managing corporate identity deals with the strategic development of corporate identity and the design and effects of specific elements of the CVI.
<b>Kottasz et al., 2008</b>	<p>Corporate identity “is a presentation to the outside world of the core values, philosophy, products and strategies of an organisation.</p> <p>Corporate identity involves the projection of “who you are, what you do, and how you do it”.</p> <p>“The planned self-presentation of an organisation normally involved the transmission of cues via its behaviour, communications and symbolism, and that the regulation of these transmissions constituted “corporate identity management”. Successful corporate identity management results in an enhanced corporate image and, over time, an improved corporate reputation.</p> <p>The “characterisation of corporate identity management as comprising three components (behaviour, communication and symbolism), the potential contributions of a CAC to corporate identity management can be summarised as follows” (p. 237).</p>
<b>Balmer, 2007, 2008 Identity based</b>	<p>The characterisation of identity should be adapted so that an institution’s corporate identity is characterised by its central, distinctive and evolving nature (p. 888).</p> <p>Corporate identity is as follows: “Articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and the way it goes about its business especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment” (p. 899).</p> <p>Corporate identity management is concerned with the conception, development, and communication of an organisation’s mission, philosophy and ethos. Its orientation is strategic and is based on a company’s values, cultures and behaviours”. “The management of corporate identity draws on many disciplines, including strategic management, marketing, corporate communications, organisational behaviour, public relations and design” (p. 899).</p>
<b>Balmer, 2008</b>	<p>Corporate identity as the central platform upon stakeholder identifications/associations with the corporation.</p> <p>Corporate identity is “articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and the way it goes about its</p>

	<p>business especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment” (p. 899).</p> <p>Corporate identity (the distinctive attributes of an organisation) (pp. 29-30).</p> <p>Corporate identity (identity here being defined as the distinct and defining characteristics of the organisation) (p. 37).</p>
<b>Balmer et al., 2007, 2006 nature</b>	Corporate identity is the signature that runs through the core of all a corporation does and communicates (p. 8).
<b>Fukukawa et al., 2007</b>	Corporate identity is the notion that identity (what we really are) (p. 3).
<b>Cornelissen et al., 2007</b>	The distinctive public image that a corporate entity communicates that structures people (p. 3).
<b>He and Balmer, 2007</b>	Corporate identity is an organisation’s distinctive attributes addressing “what the organisation is” (p. 771).
<b>Balmer, 2006</b>	Corporate identity (not to be confused with corporate identity as it relates to systems of visual identification) (p. 8).
<b>Balmer, 2006</b>	<p>Notions of corporate identity as it relates to (i) the identity of an organisation (focusing on the juridical and economic foundations), (ii) identification from an organisation (focusing on the symbolic and promotional), (iii) identification with an organisation (focusing on the affective and personal) and (iv) collective identification to an organisational culture (focusing on the collective, emotional and cultural) (P. 3).</p> <p>Corporate identity is aligned to visual this represents is a narrow conceptualisation of the territory (p. 4).</p> <p>Corporate identity is something of a doppelganger in that it is used to refer to an organisation’s distinctive traits as well as to its visual house style: the latter being reinforced by the notion that a symbol can in some magical way encapsulate the whole idea of the organisation (P. 8).</p> <p>Corporate identity is analogous to the characteristic of identity (P. 8).</p> <p>Corporate identity is aligned to visual this represents is a narrow conceptualisation of the territory (p. 4).</p>
<b>Balmer and Liao, 2006</b>	<p>Corporate identity was conceptualised in terms of visual identification (p. 6).</p> <p>Corporate identity as a distinctive attributes (p. 10).</p> <p>Corporate identity was originally conceptualised in terms of visual identification (p. 9).</p>
<b>Barnett et al., 2006</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “the set of values and principles employees and managers associate with the company” (p. 29).</p> <p>Fombrun and van Riel (2004, pp. 165-166 ), who state that it consists of ‘ (a) features that employees consider central to the company, (b) features that make the company distinctive from other companies (in the eyes of employees) and (c) features that are enduring or continuing, linking the present and the past to the future’. The idea of enduring, central features of organisations that makes them distinctive from other (p. 32).</p>
<b>Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005</b>	The behaviour is intangible part of corporate identity, corporate behaviour includes employee behaviour and management behaviour and corporate behaviour can affect the organisational identity in the long-run. More over, employee behaviour can influence customer and other stake holder.

**Simoes *et al.*, 2005**

Corporate identity and image is a way for companies to encourage positive attitudes toward their organisation.

The effective corporate identity management (CIM) provides a potential route to competitive advantage.

Corporate identity deals with the impressions, image, and personality that an organisation presents to its stakeholders. Consumers' and other audiences' perceptions of organisations are key in determining their response to the companies' products and services (p. 153).

The corporate identity concept reflects this sense of "essential character" and suggests that each company has its own personality, uniqueness, and individuality.

From an organisational perspective, identity can be viewed as a vehicle by which a company's character is conveyed to different audiences.

Corporate identity is an expression of identity is also an inherently dynamic process that tends to evolve over time as the organisational context changes.

Corporate identity refer to image or personality rather than to identity, or they interchange the terms image and identity (p. 154).

Corporate identity refers to "the way in which an organisation's identity is revealed through behaviour, communications as well as through symbolism to internal and external audiences" (p. 341).

Corporate identity comprising symbols (visual identity and design aspects, such as corporate name and house style), communications (both internal and external corporate communications (p. 157).

Corporate identity refers to soul (e.g. values, culture), voice (e.g. communication, symbolism), and mind (e.g. vision, philosophy, whereas discussed core values (e.g. organisational mission) and demographics (e.g. industry or product category, size) (p. 158).

Corporate identity extends beyond visual symbols and how they are communicated to the articulation of a company's company's philosophy, mission, and values.

The creation of a corporate identity often begins with the articulation of a business philosophy. The business philosophy can be expressed in the mission statement to convey a sense of commonality and purpose.

Corporate identity is the implementation, support, and maintenance of visual systems, the expression and pursuit of brand and image consistency through global organisational symbols and forms of communication, and the endorsement of consistent behaviour through the diffusion of a company's mission, values, and goals.

Corporate identity is a form of communication that conveys an image and seeks an integrated approach to articulate identity in coherent and harmonised messages through internal and external forms of communication.

Corporate identity articulates what is intrinsic and unique to the organisation. Through the clear articulation of the company's philosophy and mission, organisational values and norms are unified and can (p. 158).

<b>He and Balmer, 2005</b>	<p>“Corporate identity tells the world- whether actively or by default- just what the corporate strategy is”.</p> <p>Corporate identity addresses four questions: “who you are, what you do, how you do it and where you want to go” (p. 6).</p> <p>Corporate identity forms a central and integrative function within the corporate and competitive strategy and that corporate identity forms a pivotal role which can influence the strategy content as well as providing a corporate communication system to stakeholders” (p. 6).</p>
<b>Pondar, 2005</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “Expression of culture, values, philosophy/strategy, vision, mission” and “Distinctiveness, recognition, diversification” (p. 74).</p> <p>The managing corporate identity is of great importance for company success. Although there is no general definition of corporate identity the understanding of corporate identity is quite homogenous - the most common definition according to the research is: corporate identity is a mix of characteristics that organisation possesses as a subject (p. 79).</p> <p>Corporate identity refers to the internal as well as external communications (p. 80).</p>
<b>Suvatjis and de Chernatony, 2005</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “the set of meanings by which an object allows itself to be known and through which it allows people to describe, remember and relate to it”.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a multidimensional area requiring a multidimensional model” (p. 822).</p>
<b>Balmer, 2004</b>	<p>“Corporate identity refers to those intended characteristics of an organisation that decisionmakers and marketers of an organisation within the group chose to promote to their internal and external constituents. As many corporate reputation and image theorists have noted, however, this is only half the story. It is often the case that the intended characteristics of a group marketed by decision makers are not the same aspects associated with the group by internal and external constituencies. Thus, the other half of the story includes the interpretations and responses of those other internal and external individual, group and societal constituents”.</p> <p>Corporate identity differs from that of the author. The above concerns appear to focus on two elements: corporate communication and corporate perception. However, such a perspective has, traditionally, been the dominant perspective adopted by marketing scholars.) (p. 11).</p>
<b>He and Balmer, 2004</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “the distinct characteristics of the organisation” (p. 5).</p> <p>Corporate identity is graphic design (as corporate logo, and/or company name).</p> <p>Corporate identity is self-presentation via symbolism, behaviour, and communication (p. 6).</p> <p>Corporate identity “refers to those critical attributes and traits that make us distinctive and which defines who we are and what we are as an organisation” (p. 6).</p>
<b>Topalian, 2003</b>	<p>Corporate identity is the articulation of what an organisation is, what it stands for, what it does and how it goes about its business (especially the way it relates to its stakeholders and the environment) (p. 1119).</p> <p>Corporate identity as visual identification (p. 1121).</p>

<b>Steiner, 2003</b>	<p>Corporate identity ‘the body’ of a company, thus viewing the company as a living thing (p. 181).</p> <p>Corporate identity is connected to corporate culture and core competence, in many cases survives structural changes, because it is retained in employees’ knowledge (p. 182).</p>
<b>Stuart, 2003</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “the planned and operational self-presentation of a company, both internal; and external, based on an agreed company philosophy” (p. 32).</p> <p>Corporate identity is an action or expression of a company could be classified under the headings of behaviour, communication, and symbolism, and these media are the means by which the personality of a company manifests itself. Corporate identity is often erroneously used when referring to the visual identity, and this incorrect terminology persists among practitioners (pp. 30-31).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the tangible representation of the organisational identity, and that efforts to manage corporate identity should reflect the organisational identity of the company, that is, members' beliefs about its existing character (p. 32).</p>
<b>Balmer and Gray, 2000; 2003</b>	<p>Corporate identity as a powerful tool to communicate strategy and facilitating the realisation of strategy.</p>
<b>Dacin and Brown, 2002</b>	<p>Corporate identity refers to those intended characteristics of an organisation that decision makers and marketers within the group choose to promote to their internal and external constituents (p. 254).</p> <p>Corporate identity “inextricably linked to understanding how and why various constituents form corporate associations and the specific corporate associations that they hold” (p. 254).</p> <p>Corporate identity of an “organisation, along with understanding how organisational constituent groups interpret and respond to corporate information, are critical areas for continued research by researchers who study marketing-related Phenomena” (p. 255).</p> <p>“The concept corporate identity, as used here, refers to the desired set of corporate associations that decision-makers in an organisation would like their various constituencies to hold - the attributes of the organisation that the decision-makers wish to promote” (p. 256).</p> <p>Develop and “manage corporate identity is inextricably linked to understanding how and why various constituents form corporate associations and the specific corporate associations that they hold” (pp. 254-255).</p>
<b>Balmer and Gray, 2002</b>	<p>Corporate identity refers to the distinct attributes of an organisation and as such addresses the questions “What are we?” and “Who are we?” (p. 10).</p>
<b>Melewar and Jenkins, 2002</b>	<p>Corporate Identity is the firm’s actions, as far as these actions and is “the degree to which the firm has achieved a distinct and coherent image in its aesthetic output”.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the firm’s presentation of itself to its different stakeholders mine.</p>
<b>Abratt, 1989; Christensen and Askegaard, 2001; Balmer, 1995; Olins, 1989; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).</b>	<p>“Corporate identity is a set of symbolic representations including graphic designs and, sometimes, organisational behaviour”</p> <p>The “notion of corporate identity is generally seen as belonging to the sender side of the communication process” (p. 295).</p>

<b>Balmer 1995; Balmer 2001; van Reckom, 1997; Balmer and Wilson, 1998</b>	Corporate identity is defined as what the organisation is.
<b>Balmer, 2001</b>	<p>Corporate identity is (a) The mix of elements which gives organisations their distinctiveness: the foundation of business identities; (b) Although there is still a lack of consensus as to the characteristics of a corporate identity, authors do, for the main, emphasise the importance of several elements including culture (with staff seen to have an affinity to multiple forms of identity), strategy, structure, history, business activities and market scope.</p> <p>Corporate identity is erroneously used when referring to visual identity (p. 254).</p> <p>Corporate identity is What are we? Also involves addressing a series of questions including: What is our business/structure/strategy/ethos/ market/performance/history and reputation/relationships to other identities? (p. 257).</p>
<b>Alessandri, 2001</b>	Corporate identity is the outward presentation of the company and pleasing corporate identity can produce positive corporate image.
<b>Melewar <i>et al.</i>, 2001</b>	The act of building corporate identity and visual identity into the strategic management equation provides companies with a dimension of difference that is impossible for competition to duplicate (p. 417).
<b>Zinkhan <i>et al.</i>, 2001</b>	Corporate identity represents “the ways a company chooses to identify itself to all the publics (p. 154).
<b>Melewar and Wooldridge, 2001</b>	Corporate identity originated from the positive and negative influences of communication between planned and perceived image.
<b>Urde, 2003</b>	The values can serve as a connection between the soul of the organisation and the identity of the customers.
<b>Balmer and Gray, 1999, 2000</b>	Corporate identity is the reality and uniqueness of an organisation which is integrally related to its external and internal image and reputation through corporate communication (p. 256).
<b>Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000</b>	<p>The notion of corporate identity addresses the question ‘Who are we?’.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the vision and aims of the top management board and reflects the organisation’s identity which the management board wish to acquire, that is, the desired identity of the organisation. This desired identity is communicated mainly through streamlining organisational symbolism and corporate communications on an external basis in order to achieve a favorable market image and to promote competitive advantage (p. 50).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the tangible representation of the organisational identity, the expression as manifest in the behaviour and communication of the organisation (p. 51).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the based on the vision and aims of the top management (p. 57).</p>
<b>Fombrun and Shanley 1990; Grunig 1993; Dowling 1993; Cornelissen 2000; Hatch and Shultz 1997</b>	Corporate identity influences corporate image through the constant interplay of information.

<p><b>Gioia et al., 2000</b></p>	<p>Corporate identity field are most concerned with “visual representations of the corporation emphasised through the design and management of corporate symbols.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a projected image, in recent work on corporate identity (p. 66).</p> <p>Corporate identity is a consistent and targeted representation of the corporation emphasised through the management of corporate symbols and logos; strategically planned and operationally applied internal and external self -representation (p. 67).</p> <p>Expressing corporate identity is a dynamic process.</p> <p>Corporate identity program- is aimed at influencing outsiders’ perceptions to be better aligned with self definitions.</p> <p>Shell's initial response to the negative publicity, for instance, involved numerous corporate identity efforts aimed at helping outsiders see who the ‘real Shell’ was (p. 70).</p> <p>Corporate identity composed of three things; who you are, what you do and how you do it.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a plan visual element that distinguishes the firm from all others.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a representation of the firm with emphasis on the firm’s symbolic and logos. It is a strategic both applied internally and externally.</p>
<p><b>Melewar and Saunders, 2000</b></p>	<p>The corporate identity as the meaning of an object which allows itself to be recognised allowing a group to explain, remember and communicate as it is a fusion of strategy, behaviour, culture, design, market conditions, products and services.</p>
<p><b>Van Heerden, 1999</b></p>	<p>Corporate identity consists solely of visual identity cues.</p> <p>Corporate identity consists of both visual and behavioural cues.</p> <p>The impression that corporate identity consists solely of visual and graphical artefacts (p. 492).</p> <p>Corporate identity consists of both visual elements and the way that the corporation behaves (p. 493).</p> <p>Every corporation is unique, it is essential that the corporate identity should spring from its roots, personality, strengths, and weaknesses.</p> <p>Corporate identity is all about values -corporate values, societal values, and living values (p. 493).</p> <p>Corporate identity aims to create coherence, symbolism, and positioning (p. 494)</p> <p>Corporate identity creates corporate image (p. 494).</p> <p>A well-managed corporate identity is one of a company's most valuable marketing assets (p. 495).</p>
<p><b>Balmer and Soenen, 1999</b></p>	<p>Corporate identity is conceptualised as a function of leadership and by its focus on the visual (p. 77).</p> <p>Corporate identity is defined as encompassing the ‘Soul’, ‘Mind’ and ‘Voice’ of an organisation and delineates “what an organisation is”, or “is a set of interdependent characteristics of the organisation which gives it specificity, stability and coherence”.</p>

<b>Melewar and Saunders, 1999</b>	Corporate visual identity is a main part of the corporate identity that a company can use to project their quality, prestige and style to stakeholders.
<b>Gregory, 1999</b>	Corporate identity is what the firm is and how the firm is perceived. Corporate identity is the distinct characteristics of the firm. Corporate identity is a plan visual element.
<b>Balmer and Soenen, 1998</b>	Corporate identity distinguishes the company from the other competitors and articulate what the firm is, what it does, and how it does it and is and the strategies it adopts. Corporate identity is the mind, soul, and voice of an organisation.
<b>Balmer, 1995, 1998</b>	Corporate identity and its management is a multifaceted phenomenon.
<b>Balmer, 1998</b>	Corporate Identity is formed by the aggregate of messages and experiences received about an organisation's products and services by an individual, group or groups over a period of time (p. 970). Corporate identity is about behaviour as much as appearance. Corporate identity is the source of the corporate culture. He asserted that culture is the 'whar' of a company and concluded that identity is the 'why'; "corporate culture - which has been described as a company's shared values, beliefs and behaviour - in fact flows from and is the consequence of corporate identity" (p. 976). Corporate identity is fundamentally concerned with reality, "what an organisation is," i.e. its strategy, philosophy, history, business scope, the range and type of products and services offered and its communication both formal and informal (p. 979). Corporate identity is multi-faceted and draws on several disciplines. A number of writers support this proposition. The elements of corporate identity mix as personality traits (a predisposition to act in a particular way), acts of behaviour, communications and symbols. The mix comprises five elements: corporate culture, corporate behaviour, products and services, communication and design as well as market conditions and strategies. It has also been postulated that corporate identity is eclectic in that it draws on many management and non-management disciplines and may in fact be regarded as an emerging philosophy or approach to management. Third, corporate identity is based on the corporate personality, i.e. it is based on the values present within the organisation. A number of authors hold this to be the most important of all the concepts associated with the area (p. 980).
<b>Gray and Balmer, 1998</b>	Corporate identity is the distinct characteristic of the company. Corporate identity is distinctiveness and centrality. Corporate identity is the reality of the corporation. Corporate identity refers to the distinct characteristics of the organisation or, stated very simply, 'what the organisation is' (p.



	<p>4)</p> <p>The management of a corporate identity involves the dynamic interplay amongst the company's business strategy, the philosophy of its key executives, its corporate culture, and its organisational design. The interaction of these factors results in differentiating the firm from all others, making, to use a marketing metaphor, its 'corporate brand' distinct (p. 696).</p>
<b>Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1998, Olins, 1990; Van Riel, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity called as the distinct characteristics of a firm.</p> <p>Corporate identity focuses on culture, strategy, structure, history, business activity and business scope. Corporate identity is the mix of elements, which give the organisation their distinctiveness. And the key questions are who are we, what are structure, strategy, business, reputation, performance, business and history.</p>
<b>Balmer and Wilson, 1998</b>	<p>"Corporate identity refers to an organisation's unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of employees" (p. 15).</p>
<b>Baker and Balmer, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity summarises the mission, purpose or positioning of the organisation or a product or service (p. 366).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the explicit management of all the ways in which the organisation presents itself through experiences and perceptions to all of its audiences (p. 373).</p>
<b>Balmer and Stotvig, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is now seen to refer to the distinct attributes of an organisation, i.e. 'What it is'. The distinguishing features of corporate identity may be described as follows (p. 169).</p> <p>Corporate identity is concerned with reality, and encompasses corporate strategy, philosophy, history, business scope, the range and type of products and services offered. Second, corporate identity is multi-faceted and draws on several disciplines. Third, corporate identity is based on the corporate personality, in other words, the values held by staff within the organisation.</p> <p>Managing and evaluating an organisation's identity is complicated. It involves: understanding the company's philosophy, personality, identity, image and reputation; examining key internal-external-environment interfaces for signs of inconsistency and incompatibility; ongoing management by senior management, with the chief executive taking a particular interest.</p> <p>The main objective of corporate identity management is to ensure that an organisation's key stakeholders and stakeholder groups are favourably disposed towards the organisation (p. 170).</p> <p>Corporate identity refers to, 'what an organisation is', or explained slightly differently, it may also be seen to refer to an organisation's distinct characteristics.</p> <p>An organisation's identity should be central, distinctive and enduring. An identity is experienced through everything an organisation says, makes or does. The elements comprising the corporate identity mix have been variously described as strategy, culture and communications, symbolism, behaviour and communication and culture, behaviour, market, communication design, products and services (p. 170).</p>
<b>Hatch and Schultz, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is a very important business concept because it demonstrates corporate ethos, aims and values and presents a sense of individuality that can help to differentiate an organisation from its competitors</p>
<b>Van Riel and Balmer, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity refers to an organisation's unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of members of the organisation (p. 341).</p>

	<p>Corporate identity sees corporate identity management as taking into account an organisation's historical roots, its personality its corporate strategy and the three parts of the corporate identity mix (behaviour of organisational members, communication and symbolism) in order to acquire a favourable corporate reputation which results in improved organisational performance (p. 342).</p>
<p><b>Markwick and Fill, 1997</b></p>	<p>Corporate identity is individual characteristics by which a person or thing is recognised. In this sense identity refers to individuality, a means by which others can differentiate one person from another. This differentiation can be influenced by the use of visual cues, for example the choice of clothes, gestures and hairstyle, to name but a few. However, the use of visual cues alone can be misleading and, in order that we understand the individual at a deeper level, we rely on other cues such as speech, behaviour and mannerisms. Identity at the individual level is concerned with aspects of identification and recognition. Just as individuals have an identity, so do organisations.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the organisation's presentation of itself to its various stakeholders and the means by which it distinguishes itself from all other organisations. Corporate identity is the articulation of what the organisation is, what it does and how it does it and is linked to the way an organisation goes about its business and the strategies it adopts.</p> <p>Corporate identity is projected to stakeholders using a variety of cues and represents how the organisation would like to be perceived. These cues can be orchestrated so that deliberately-planned messages are delivered to specific target audiences to achieve particular objectives. Typical of these planned communications are the use of corporate identity programmes, consistent content in advertising messages (Perrier, British Airways), dress codes and operating procedures (McDonald's) and policies towards customer contact (answering the telephone at TNT Overnight). Some of these planned cues will constitute the organisation's visual identity, that is the design and graphics associated with an organisation's symbols and elements of self-expression (p. 239).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the organisation's presentation of itself to its various stakeholders and the means by which it distinguishes itself from all other organisations. Corporate identity is the articulation of what the organisation is, what it does and how it does it and is linked to the way an organisation goes about its business and the strategies it adopts.</p> <p>Corporate identity is projected to stakeholders using a variety of cues and represents how the organisation would like to be perceived. These cues can be orchestrated so that deliberately-planned messages are delivered to specific target audiences to achieve particular objectives. Typical of these planned communications are the use of corporate identity programmes, consistent content in advertising messages (Perrier, British Airways), dress codes and operating procedures (McDonald's) and policies towards customer contact (answering the telephone at TNT Overnight). Some of these planned cues will constitute the organisation's visual identity, that is the design and graphics associated with an organisation's symbols and elements of self-expression (397).</p> <p>Corporate identity focus on behaviour, the actions of the organisation and other forms of communication (397).</p> <p>The management of corporate identity is the corporate personality (399).</p> <p>Corporate identity forms a central and integrative function within the corporate and competitive strategy and that corporate identity forms a pivotal role which can influence the strategy content as well as providing a corporate communication system to stakeholders (401).</p>

<b>Hatch and Schultz, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity “differs from organisational identity in the degree to which it is conceptualised as a function of leadership and by its focus on the visual. Although both concepts build on an idea of what the organisation is, strong links with company vision and strategy emphasise the explicit role of top management in the formulation of corporate identity. The marketing approach has specified more fully the ways in which management expresses this key idea to external audiences (e.g. through products, communications, behaviour and environment), while the organisational literature has been more concerned with the relationship between employees and their organisation (e.g. studies of organisational commitment and identification) (p. 357).</p> <p>“The symbolic construction of corporate identity is communicated to organisational members by top management, but is interpreted and enacted by organisational members based on the cultural patterns of the organisation, work experiences and social influence from external relations with the environment” (p. 358).</p> <p>Corporate identity “focus on how these material aspects express the key idea of the organisation to external constituencies, studies of organisational culture address how they are realised and interpreted by organisational members” (p. 360).</p> <p>Corporate identity “as any other device top managers use to influence what employees and other constituencies perceive, feel and think about the organisation” (p. 363).</p> <p>“Corporate identity management involves formulating and communicating organisational vision and strategy in reference to external Constituencies” (p. 363).</p>
<b>Stuart, 1997</b>	<p>“Identity is formed by an organisation’s history, its beliefs and philosophy, the nature of its technology, its ownership, its people, the personality of its leaders, its ethical and cultural values and its strategies” (p. 360).</p>
<b>Baker and Balmer 1997; Van Rekom 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is one basis for achieving this and can be defined as ‘what an organisation is’.</p>
<b>Baker and Balmer, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is “what an organisation is”. Corporate identity can be viewed as a vehicle by which a company’s character is conveyed to different audiences.</p>
<b>Van Rekom, 1997</b>	<p>“What an organisation is” (p. 411).</p> <p>Corporate identity is “the set of meanings by which an object allows itself to be known and through which it allows people to describe, remember and relate to it” (P. 411).</p> <p>Corporate identity is a set of meanings by which an object that allow people to describe, remember and relate to it.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a set of meaning by which the object allow itself to be known and through which it allow people to describe remember and relate to it.</p>
<b>Leuthesser and Kohli, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is the way company reveals its philosophy and strategy through communication, behaviour and symbolism.</p>
<b>Van Riel and Balmer, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is a way the company represent it self through behaviour and symbolism to internal and external audiences. It rooted in the behaviour of individual of the firm member expressing the firm’s sameness overtime.</p> <p>Corporate identity as “the self presentation of an organisation, rooted in the behaviour of individual organisational members,</p>

	<p>expressing the organisation's sameness over time or continuity, distinctiveness, and centrality" (p. 290).</p> <p>There paradigms of corporate identity are graphic design, integrated corporate communications and interdisciplinary.</p> <p>Corporate identity characteristics of an organisation, and works as a means for establishing the desired identity perception in the minds of an organisation's both internal and external stakeholders.</p> <p>Corporate identity indicates the way a company present itself though behaviour and symbol to internal and external audiences and express the firm's sameness overtime and distinctiveness.</p>
<b>Balmer, 1997</b>	<p>"Corporate identity refers to an organisation's unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of members of the organisation" (p. 341).</p>
<b>Schmitt and Simonson, 1997</b>	<p>The visual school of thought focuses on the visual and tangible manifestations of what the firm.</p>
<b>Markwick and Fill, 1997</b>	<p>Corporate identity is something that symbolises the organisation as a whole identity.</p> <p>Corporate identity is who a person is or what a thing is.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the instrument of management by means of which all consciously-used forms of internal and external communication are harmonised as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships with the groups upon which the company is dependent (p. 411).</p> <p>Corporate identity has been defined above as "what an organisation is (p. 411).</p> <p>Corporate identity is a crucial factor determining the effectiveness of communication (p. 413).</p> <p>Corporate identity is the domain of the signals which can be sent to stakeholders. The organisation's central value orientations, which permeate all its behaviour and are consciously or unconsciously present in the minds of an organisation's employees, can form an excellent source of inspiration, especially if they are unique for the organisation in question (p. 413).</p> <p>Corporate identity is to establish the elements that constitute the 'centrality' within the organisation (p. 416).</p> <p>"Corporate identity as the "the organisation's presentation of itself to its various stakeholders and the means by which it distinguishes itself from all other organisations" (p. 397).</p> <p>Corporate identity is obtained through understanding an organisation's personality and its corporate values.</p>
<b>Van Heerden and Puth, 1995</b>	<p>The management of corporate identity is that the corporate identity consists solely of visual and graphical artefacts (p. 12).</p> <p>Corporate identity create a set of beliefs, experiences, feelings, knowledge, attitudes and perceptions about the institution in the minds of different stakeholders. This interaction creates overall impressions which constitute a corporate image.</p> <p>Corporate identity consists of both visual elements and the way in which the corporation behaves (p. 12).</p> <p>Corporate identity communicating a distinctive.</p> <p>Corporate identity is a major means of achieving a unique positioning, which may lead to increased profits and improved business relationships with customers, suppliers, intermediaries, subsidiaries, the authorities, the media and international</p>

	contacts (p. 13).
<b>Van Riel, 1995</b>	Corporate identity has been too barely understood. Corporate identity demonstrates the bundle of characteristics of the company and displays the company's personality.
<b>Balmer, 1995; Downey, 1986</b>	Corporate identity impacts beliefs and behaviours of organisational members on which the corporate culture is built.
<b>Balmer, 1995</b>	Corporate identity has many ways to communicate to make organisation distinctiveness. Corporate identity is defined as what the organisation is.
<b>Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1995</b>	Corporate identity the existence of a system of characteristics which has a pattern which gives the company its specificity, its stability and its coherence' (p. 253). Corporate identity is a set of interdependent characteristics of the firm that provide the firm specificity, stability, and coherence and thus make the firm also identifiable.
<b>Olins, 1995</b>	Corporate identity is the ways the company presents itself through experiences and perceptions to all people. Corporate identity is part of the strategic process, which consist of the vision, mission and philosophy of the firm.
<b>Bernstein, 1984; Schmitt and Pan, 1994</b>	Corporate identity reflects the sense of "essential character", since each company has its own personality, uniqueness and individuality.
<b>Dowling, 1994</b>	Corporate Identity of an organisation as "the symbols an organisation uses to identify itself to people. Corporate identity is related to corporate values and sharing them with organisational members. Company's philosophy indicates the company's decisions, policies and actions. Every organisation has a vision and mission statement.
<b>Balmer, 1993</b>	Corporate identity is a fusion of strategy, communication and behaviour and it come in to being when there is a common ownership of organisation's philosophy. Corporate identity is a fusion of strategy, behavioural communications.
<b>Olin, 1990</b>	Corporate identity is consisted of the explicit management company's activities which are perceived. Corporate identity projects three things; who you are, what you do and how you do it.
<b>Abratt, 1989</b>	Corporate identity is a set of visual cues; physical and behavioural that make the firm different and distinguish from other and this cues are use to symbolise and represent the firm. Corporate identity is a set of visual cues which included physical and behaviour, it makes a firm identical from other and these cues were use to represent the firm. Corporate identity is strongly emphasises the key requirement of integrated corporate communications for both internal and external audiences. An organisation's corporate identity articulates what the organisation is, what it stands for, and what it does . . . (and) . . . will include details of size; products manufactured and/or services offered; markets and industries served; organisational structure;

	<p>geographical spread; and so on.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the fundamental style, quality, character and personality of an organisation, those forces which define, motivate and embody it.</p> <p>Corporate identity is about appearance.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the “impression of the overall corporation held by (its) various publics” (Gray and Smeltzer 1985)</p> <p>Corporate identity is the sum of the visual cues by which the public recognises the company and differentiates it from others (p. 67).</p> <p>Corporate identity is a set of visual cues-physical and behavioural-that makes a company recognisable and distinguishes it from other companies. These cues are used to represent and symbolise the company.</p>
<b>Lambert, 1989</b>	Corporate identity is all distinctive manifestation of the firm.
<b>Ackeman, 1988</b>	Corporate identity is a firm’s unique capabilities.
<b>Bernstein, 1986</b>	Corporate identity is the holistic and multi-disciplinary approach to corporate identity management. Organisation should pay attention to internal or external groups mine.
<b>Albert and Whetten, 1985</b>	Corporate identity is that which is central, continuing, and different about an organisation’s character.
<b>Bernstein, 1984</b>	<p>Corporate identity is the visible expression of the corporate image, which can be result of the interaction of all experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings and knowledge that public have about a corporation.</p> <p>Corporate identity deals with the experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings and knowledge that public have about a corporation.</p>
<b>Margulies, 1977</b>	<p>Corporate identity management is concerned with the terms of graphic design and visual identity and could shape or influence externally held perceptions of companies.</p> <p>Corporate identity is all the way a firm should to identify itself to its entire stake holder; community, customer, employee, stock holder and investment bankers.</p>
<b>Selame and Selame, 1975</b>	<p>Corporate identity is who and what the firm is and how it views it self in the world.</p> <p>Corporate identity is the company’ visual statement to the world of who and what the company is-of how the company views itself-and therefore has a great deal to do with how the world views the company.</p>
<b>Pilditch, 1970</b>	Corporate identity can identify and communicate the corporate personality.
<b>Abratt, 1989; Alessandri, 2001; Balmer, 1995; Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Gray, 2000; Olins, 1989; Simoes <i>et al.</i>, 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Van Rekom, 1997</b>	Corporate identity management is to achieve a favourable image between company’s internal and external stakeholders.

<b>He and Mukherjee, 2009; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997</b>	Corporate identity is the expressions of a company.
<b>Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; Margulies, 1977; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Olins, 1989; Van Riel, 1995</b>	Corporate identity as self-presentation.
<b>Ackerman, 1988; Balmer, 2001; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Dowling 1986; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Van Rekom, 1997</b>	Corporate identity as organisational distinctiveness.
<b>Balmer and Soenen, 1998; Birkigt and Stadler, 1986; He and Balmer, 2007; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Olins, 1989; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997</b>	Corporate identity refers to the totality of the self-presentation of an organisation to various stakeholders (mainly customers) which associates to the elements of corporate identity mix which are personality, behaviour, communication and the symbolism to create a favourable image and a good reputation between its internal and external stakeholders.
<b>Balmer, 1995; Birkigt and Stadler, 1980; Olins, 1978</b>	Corporate identity management relates to a corporate values and principles which constitute its personality.

**Appendix 3.2: Some of the key definitions of architecture concept**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
<b>Gruber, 2011</b>	Architecture is “material structure that defines space and enables interactions” (p. 9).
<b>Bitner, 1992; Davis <i>et al.</i>, 2010; Leblanc and Nguyen, 1996; Meenaghan, 1995; Saleh, 1998</b>	A favourable design a space can meet any functional demand.
<b>Knight and Haslam, 2010</b>	Design can be decisive in facilitating customer and client identification.
<b>Han and Rye, 2009</b>	Physical environment influence on customer behaviours by creating an overall aesthetic impression and corporate image, especially pertinent in a service industry.
<b>Vischer, 2007</b>	Architecture is an integration of industry, art and new social needs. Architecture affects people emotionally and imply as the balance of culture, power, and values of the organisation.
<b>Jun and Lee, 2007</b>	Architecture is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company.
<b>Kent, 2007</b>	Architecture of a place can be understood as a ‘perception design’ that designers appreciative consumer’s taste and stimulated ideas within signalling in environment.
<b>Elsbach and Bechky, 2007</b>	Architecture involves buildings, which are designed to portray an idea or an emotion of a company’s purpose, position in time, and creators. The concept of environment is not only related to the physical part, but also it is related to the social and cultural parts.
<b>Jun and Lee, 2007</b>	Architecture is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company.
<b>Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar et al., 2006; Van den Bosch <i>et al.</i>, 2006; He and Balmer, 2005</b>	Architecture is the key elements of a corporate visual identity.
<b>Balmer and Stotvig, 1997; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van den Bosch <i>et al.</i>, 2006; Yee, 1990</b>	Architecture and landscape can establish a strong universal corporate identity.
<b>Bitner, 1992; Han and Ryu, 2009</b>	The physical environment is a purposeful environment to fulfill customers’ specific and wants.
<b>He and Balmer, 2005; Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007; Melewar <i>et al.</i>, 2006; Van den Bosch et al., 2006</b>	Architecture is the key elements of a corporate visual identity.
<b>Jun and Lee, 2007</b>	Architecture is the comprehensive visual presentation of the company.



<b>Rocca, 2007</b>	Architecture has aimed to generate a new association among nature and man by discovering what it means to design with nature in mind.
<b>Kent, 2007</b>	Human perceptions and ideas concern the physical environment are central to inquiry of architecture.
<b>Myfanwy and Cornelius, 2006</b>	Architecture of a building can communicate the purpose and identity a company.
<b>Nguyen, 2006</b>	Physical environment as an aesthetic element creates corporate image which impacts on the performance of contact personnel.
<b>Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005; Van den Bosch <i>et al.</i>, 2006</b>	Architecture supports corporate communication.
<b>Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006</b>	Building architecture is present the values and philosophy of a company. Architecture has a significant role in an organisation, internal, external and stakeholders as a vehicle for communicating image. The seven component of corporate identity which included corporate communication, corporate design, corporate culture, corporate behaviour, corporate structure, corporate strategy and corporate art.
<b>Balmer, 2005</b>	Building architecture is an art and it is significant piece of symbolism that operates in a competitive environment.
<b>Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2005</b>	Architecture and interior office design symbolise many aspects of the corporate culture.
<b>Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005</b>	Architecture as an art which could be associated with the image of an organisation.
<b>Balmer, 2005; Huppertz, 2005</b>	Architecture is an art and it is significant piece of symbolism that operates in a competitive environment.
<b>Balmer, 2005; Huppertz, 2005</b>	Architecture is an art and it is significant piece of symbolism that operates in a competitive environment.
<b>Hoeken and Ruikes, 2005</b>	Architecture is an art which could be associated with the image of the organisation.
<b>King, 2004</b>	Architecture is signifiers of economic, political and cultural power. Architecture is national corporate collective identities. Architecture is sings of modernity in the city, nation, and different discursively constricted worlds. Architecture is overlapping symbolic and spatial. Architecture is overlapping symbolic and spatial. Architecture is visual symbolic and physical-spatial and is circulates in the discourses of geography of cultural research.
<b>Porter, 2004</b>	“Architecture is an extension; a modification establishing absolute meanings relative to a place” (p. 30). “Architecture is the will of the age conceived in spatial terms” (p. 165).
<b>Kornberger and Clegg, 2004</b>	“Architecture is power” (p. 1104). “Architecture is a powerful means of directing and redirecting our attention, feelings, and thoughts to certain points through

	the organisation of spatial structures — shopping centres are, of course, an excellent example of this organisation” (p. 1104).
<b>Melewar, 2003</b>	A company’s building architecture, location, and interior decor of offices can help people to recognise the company
<b>Delanty and Jones, 2002</b>	<p>“Architecture plays an increasingly ambivalent role in the state project today” (p. 457).</p> <p>“Architecture is “quintessentially universalistic expression of civilisation” (p. 452).</p> <p>“Architectures create and codify national cultures, which can be recognised as a landmark building, which reflect “national identity and historical narrative of memory” (p. 457).</p>
<b>Ballantyne, 2002</b>	“Architecture is s thing of mind, a dematerialised or conceptual discipline with its typological and morphological variations, and on the other, architecture as an empirical event that concentrates on the senses, on the experience of space” (p. 174).
<b>Melewar and Jenkins, 2002</b>	<p>“Architecture is illustrated by the attention, that firms give to the influence of architecture on how their identity is perceived” (p. 82).</p> <p>Architecture is a tangible visual product.</p>
<b>Delanty and Jones, 2002</b>	Architecture is “quintessentially universalistic expression of civilisation” (p. 452).
<b>Balmer, 2001</b>	Architecture communicates to people.
<b>Alessandri, 2001</b>	<p>Office layout and architecture of a company should match to company’s behaviour and company’s culture.</p> <p>Architecture is technical and sociological; due to this the atmosphere of an office is a key expression. Theorists agree that well-designed architecture should be recognised and evoke positive affect. Architecture design is defined as the preparation of instructions for the manufacturer of artefacts to create an image of corporate identity.</p>
<b>Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Olins, 1990</b>	Architecture is tangible component part of corporate visual identity, but also corporate building architecture can helps transmit a company’s visual identity through fixed assets.
<b>Balmer and Gray, 2000</b>	<p>Architecture is acknowledged to have a positive influence on consumers’ awareness of the company and their familiarity with the company.</p> <p>Architecture is presented visibility and recognisability of the company and its products.</p>
<b>Melewar and Saunders, 2000</b>	<p>Architecture is factors include the range of external and internal of a building and overall appearance of the buildings and the degree of landscaping and gardens surrounding are the vital factors.</p> <p>Architecture is an important part of communication strategy.</p>
<b>Wasseman <i>et al.</i>, 2000</b>	Architecture is the designing and construction of buildings, which would offer human inhabitation as well as human affairs.
<b>Gans, 2000</b>	“Architecture is the coherent construct of the mind” (p. 18).
<b>Veryzer, 1999</b>	Architecture is the connection between nature and the human perception.

<b>Gray and Balmer, 1998</b>	Architecture is about the design of corporate buildings, and the interior layout of offices and factories. Architecture has become particularly important in service industries. Architecture is probably the most relevant example of design and involves the design of a building or the layout of an area.
<b>Gray and Balmer, 1998</b>	Architecture is the design of building and layout of a place to communicate the company's culture to the stakeholders.
<b>Gary and Balmer, 1998</b>	Architecture is probably the most definite example of design. Design of architecture influences the image of the organisation and creates a feeling of recognition to build an image. Architecture is the design of building and layout of a place to communicate the company's culture to the stakeholders. Architecture is the design of building and layout of a place.
<b>Saleh, 1998</b>	"Architecture presents an image of the present and future, and not just the past. It should be an architecture that allows for flexibility, the implementation of new ideas, and searches for new outlooks. The new architecture should be considered optional not mandatory, offering flexibility in choice where the client can become a part of the design process" (p. 163).
<b>Becker and Steele, 1995</b>	The aesthetic aspects of architecture is essential for organisations, since is an increase in desire among corporate managers to promote the physical expression of the building as a means of building corporate image.
<b>Bloch, 1995</b>	Architecture is element of corporate visual identity and it can be a central element in an organisation's visual identity. Corporate building of a company may express or emphasis on company and can communicate to people.
<b>Conway and Roenisch, 1994</b>	Architecture can be defined as the science of designing and constructing a building, which incorporates an aesthetic design to fully develop architecture.
<b>Malaquais, 1994</b>	"Architecture and architect ... are linked in a symbiotic relation at whose heart stands one fundamental concern: the acquisition of power. In particular, the link between man and structure hinges on one, key concept: a vision of houses as embodiments of the people who construct them" (p. 22). "Architecture plays a critical role in the construction of social identity" (p. 21).
<b>Conway and Roenisch, 1994</b>	Architecture is the science of designing and constructing a building, which incorporates an aesthetic design to fully develop architecture.
<b>Bitner, 1992</b>	Architecture can be considered as the packaging of services with three components: ambient conditions, spatial layout, and decor and orientation signals. The responses to design of architecture lead in turn to human behavioural responses and attitudes towards corporation.
<b>Bitner, 1992</b>	The responses to design of architecture lead in turn to behavioural responses. That human behaviour is influenced by the architecture design and architecture influence on customer and employee behaviours. Behaviour is the consequences of the physical environment that create an image which particularly apparent for organisations.

<b>Yee, 1990</b>	Architecture and landscape can establish a strong universal corporate identity.
<b>Tufte, 1990</b>	Architecture is, in many ways, a reflection of the society in which we live and therefore we cannot look at it as a profession or as education without, considering many different factors influencing it and receiving its influence. Architecture is, in different ways, a reflection of the group in where we live and as a result we cannot look at it as a Profession or as education without. In view of many different issues influence it and receiving its pressure.
<b>Olins, 1990</b>	Architecture is tangible component part of corporate visual identity. Architecture is expressing the corporate identity.
<b>Shimp, 1990</b>	Architecture is the more important part of a store's image is its architecture design and exterior design, interior design.
<b>Abratt, 1989</b>	Architecture and the office layout are the visible artifacts.
<b>Olins, 1989</b>	Architecture is a signs, and fundamental organisational identity behind the tangible manifestations.
<b>Olins, 1989</b>	Architecture is a signs, and fundamental organisational identity behind these tangible manifestations.
<b>Lang, 1987</b>	The physical setting defines human needs and human behaviour describes the physical environment.
<b>Yee and Gustafson, 1983</b>	“Architecture is an artistic synthesis of economic, political, social and technical circumstances” (p. 20). “Architecture style is inevitably an arbitrary cultural choice” (p. 24). “The size of an object comes from relating it to the dimensions of human body, using such indicators as doors, windows and furniture” (p. 229).
<b>Bernard and Bitner, 1982</b>	“Physical Evidence: The environment in which the service is assembled and in which seller and customer interact, combined with tangible commodities that facilitate performance or communication of the service” (p. 36).
<b>Krasner, 1980</b>	“Environmental design as nonverbal communication” (p. 9).
<b>Mikellides, 1980</b>	“Architecture is to design things that people get pleasure in making and want to make things that people get pleasure in using” (p. 6).
<b>Oldham and Brass, 1979</b>	“Architecture and physical layout can substantially influence variables such as patterns of communication and social interaction” (p. 24). Architecture is a reflection of man’s corporal essence for his habits, which “expresses the lebensfuhr of an epoch.
<b>Rapoport, 1977</b>	Architecture expresses cultural values.
<b>Wright, 1970</b>	Architecture is that great living creative spirit which from generation to generation, from age to age, proceeds, persists, creates, according to the nature of man, and his circumstances as they both change. That really is architecture.
<b>Rasmussen, 1964</b>	“Architecture is a very special functional art; it confines space so we can dwell in it, creates the framework around our lives” (p. 10).

<b>Martineau, 1958</b>	<p>Architecture is part of retail identity.</p> <p>Architecture is the way makes up a store's image in the minds of customers.</p>
<b>Johnson, 1955</b>	<p>“Architecture as “a veritable oratory of power made by form” (p. 44).</p>
<b>Oxford Dictionary</b>	<p>Architecture is the art, the design or style of a building.</p> <p>Architecture is a general word that is used as the name of a product such as building.</p> <p>Architecture is part of retail identity.</p>
	<p>Pronunciation: /'ɑ:kɪtɛktʃə/noun [mass noun].</p> <p>1the art or practice of designing and constructing buildings: schools of architecture and design.</p> <p>The style in which a building is designed and constructed, especially with regard to a specific period, place, or culture: Georgian architecture.</p> <p>2the complex or carefully designed structure of something: the chemical architecture of the human brain.</p> <p>the conceptual structure and logical organisation of a computer or computer-based system.</p>
<b>Oxford Dictionary</b>	<p>1the surroundings or conditions in which a person, animal, or plant lives or operates: survival in an often hostile environment [usually with modifier] the setting or conditions in which a particular activity is carried on: a good learning environment [with modifier] Computing the overall structure within which a user, computer, or programme operates: a desktop development environment (the environment) the natural world, as a whole or in a particular geographical area, especially as affected by human activity: the impact of pesticides on the environment [as modifier]: a parliamentary environment committee.</p>
<b>Cambridge dictionaries</b>	<p>The art and science of designing and making buildings.</p>

**APPENDIX 5.1: BBS Interviews Question Sheet (Managers)**

Date: .....

I.1. What do you think about what corporate identity means?
I.2. In your opinion, what is the current identity of the school? Or what we really are? (Actual identity, concept = corporate identity) What are the business activities? What are the purposes of the school? What is the corporate style and ethos?
I.3. In your opinion, what BBS say BBS is? Or what BBS try to communicate to people? (Communicated identity, concept = corporate communications) Do you think the messages from both official and informal sources from the University, can influence stakeholders' perceptions of the University? What do you think about the school's visual identification such as logo What do you think about the school's advertising? What do you think about the school's public relations?
I.4. In your opinion, What BBS is seen to be (Conceived identity, concept = Corporate Image) Do you have a positive or negative image of this school? Why? What do you think other people think about the school?
I.5. In your opinion, What the school stands for (Covenanted identity, concept = Corporate Brand)
I.6. In your opinion, What we ought to be? (Ideal identity, concept = Corporate Strategy)
I.7. In your opinion, What we wish to be? Desired identity concept = CEO Vision)
A.1. How do you describe the current buildings?
A.2. Why you build the new building? Or what is the purpose of the new school building?
AI.1. What the current building says about the present identity of the school?
AI.4. Has the new building changes the identity of the school?

## APPENDIX 5.2: BBS Interviews Question Sheet (Employees)

Date: .....

About the informants:

Would you please give some details about your academic, professional qualifications and experiences?

I.1. What do you think about what corporate identity means?

I.2. How do u feel about the *current identity* of the school (eg. Proud,...)

I.3. In your opinion, what it the current identity of the school? Or what BBS really is? (Actual identity, concept = corporate identity)

What are the business activities?

What are the purposes of the school?

What is the corporate style and ethos?

I.4. In your opinion, what BBS say BBS is? Or what BBS try to communicate to people? (Communicated identity, concept = corporate communications)

What do you think about the school's visual identification such as logo

What do you think about the school's advertising?

What do you think about the school's public relations?

I.5. In your opinion, What BBS is seen to be (Conceived identity, concept = Corporate Image)

Do you have a positive or negative image of this school? Why?

What do you think other people think about the school?

I.6. In your opinion, What the school stands for (Covenanted identity, concept = Corporate Brand)

I.7. In your opinion, What we ought to be? (Ideal identity, concept = Corporate Strategy)

I.8. In your opinion, What we wish to be? Desired identity concept = CEO Vision)

A.1. How do u feel about the *current building* of the school (experience, feeling, atmosphere)? Do u like the building?, why?, and what do u like about the current building?

A.2. How do you describe the current buildings?

A.3. How do u feel about the *current building* of the school (experience, feeling, atmosphere)? Do u like the building?, why?, and what do u like about the new building?

A.4. What is the purpose of the new school building?

A.5. Has the new building changes the identity of the school?

AI.1. What the *current building* says about the present identity of the school?

AI.2. How do you feel about the *physical structure/spatial layout and functionality* of the school? (eg. Location)

AI.3. How do you feel about the *physical stimuli/ambient conditions* of the school? (eg. Noise, Privacy, Light)

AI.4. How do you feel about the *symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts* of the school? (eg. Design, Floor, Table/chair)

How do you describe yourself related to the school? (eg. Are you proud to tell others that I you are part of the BBS, Does the BBS's image in the community represents you)

### APPENDIX 5.3: BBS Interviews Question Sheet (Students)

Date: .....

About the informants:

Would you please give some details about your academic, professional qualifications and experiences?

I.1. How do u feel about the current identity of the school? (eg. Proud,...)

I.2. How do u feel about the future identity of the school (eg. Proud,...)

I.3. What do you believe the current identity of the school is?

I.4. What do you believe the identity of the school would be in future?

A.1. How do u feel about the current building of the school (experience, feeling, atmosphere)? Do u like the building?, why?, and what do u like about the current building?

A.2. How do u feel about the new building of the school (experience, feeling, atmosphere)? Do u like the building?, why?, and what do u like about the new building?

AI.1. What the current building says about the present identity of the school?

AI.2. What the current building says about the future identity of the school?

AI.3. What would the new building is going to say about identity of the school?

AI.4. Would the new building changes the identity of the school?



## APPENDIX 5.4: Focus Group Questions

Date: .....

About the informants:	
Would you please give some details about your academic, professional qualifications and experiences?	
	I.1. What do you think about what corporate identity means? (eg. set of characteristics – behavioural and intellectual – which serve to distinguish the institution from another)
	I.2. How do you feel about the <i>current identity</i> of the school (eg. Proud...)
	I.3. In your opinion, what is the current identity of the school? Or what BBS really is? (Actual identity, concept = corporate identity) What are the business activities? What are the purposes of the school? What is the corporate style and ethos?
	I.4. In your opinion, what BBS say BBS is? Or what BBS try to communicate to people? (Communicated identity, concept = corporate communications) What do you think about the school's visual identification such as logo What do you think about the school's advertising? What do you think about the school's public relations?
	I.5. In your opinion, What BBS is seen to be (Conceived identity, concept = Corporate Image) Do you have a positive or negative image of this school? Why? What do you think other people think about the school?
	I.6. In your opinion, What the school stands for (Covenanted identity, concept = Corporate Brand)
	I.7. In your opinion, What we ought to be? (Ideal identity, concept = Corporate Strategy)
	I.8. In your opinion, What we wish to be? Desired identity concept = CEO Vision)
	A.1. How do you feel about the <i>current building</i> of the school (experience, feeling, atmosphere)? Do you like the building? why? and what do you like about the current building?
	A.2. How do you describe the BBS buildings?
	A.3. How do you feel about the <i>physical structure/spatial layout and functionality</i> of the school? (eg. Location)
	A.4. How do you feel about the <i>physical stimuli/ambient conditions</i> of the school? (eg. Noise, Privacy, Light, )
	A.5. How do you feel about the <i>symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts</i> of the school? (eg. Design, Floor, Table/chair)
	AI.1. Has the new building changes the identity of the school?
	AI.2. What the <i>current building</i> says about the present identity of the school?
	IDN. How do you describe yourself relation to the school? (eg. Are you proud to tell others that you are part of the BBS, Does the BBS's image in the community represents you)

**APPENDIX 5.5: Measurement items of the theoretical constructs and the codes**

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Codes</b>
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY</b>		
	To what extent do BBS's administrators have a sense of pride in the school's goals and missions.	CI1
	To what extent do top administrators feel that BBS has carved out a significant place in the higher education community.	CI2
	To what extent does BBS have administrators, faculty, and students who identify strongly with the school.	CI3
	To what extent the BBS administrators are knowledgeable about the institution's history and traditions.	CI4
	To what extent do the top management team members not have a well-defined set of goals or objectives for the BBS.	CI5
	To what extent do the top management team members of BBS have a strong sense of the school's history.	CI6
<b>VISUAL IDENTITY</b>		
	A visual audit of our facilities is undertaken periodically.	CVI1
	BBS has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements	CVI2
	BBS transmits a consistent visual presentation through facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication material.	CVI3
	BBS stationery are designed to match the overall visual elements/image of our BBS unit	CVI4
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE</b>		
	BBS's values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.	PMV1
	All employee/students s are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave, and appropriate attitudes).	PMV2
	Employees/students view themselves as partners in charting the direction of the BBS.	PMV3
	There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.	PMV4
	Managers periodically discuss BBS's mission and values.	PMV5
	Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees/students.	PMV6
	BBS has a well-defined mission.	PMV7
	There is total agreement on our mission across all levels and BBS areas.	PMV8
	All employees are committed to achieving the BBS's goals.	PMV9
<b>COMMUNICATION</b>		
	Much of our marketing is geared to projecting a specific image.	COM1
	Employees are dressed in a manner to project the BBS image.	COM2
	Our employees and staff understand symbols (or visual branding) of our school.	COM3
	BBS name is part of school image.	COM4
	BBS corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours/visual style, signage) are constituents of school image.	COM5
	BBS facilities are designed to portray a specific image.	COM6
	Merchandising and brochures are an important part of BBS marketing.	COM7
<b>ARCHITECTURE</b>		
<b>Physical structure/Spatial layout and functionality</b>		
<b>Layout</b>		
	My department's physical layout supports collaborative work/study.	LAYOT1
	Table/seating arrangement gives me enough space.	LAYOT2
	My work/study area is located close to people I need to talk to with my job/study.	LAYOT3
	The general office work/study-place layout facilitates teamwork.	LAYOT4
	The physical layout of my department helps make this a nice place to come to work/study.	LAYOT5
	Overall, layout makes it easy for me to move around.	LAYOT6
	I like the way my department's offices/rooms are configured.	LAYOT7
	Confidential and/or sensitive information is handled well in the present office layout.	LAYOT8
<b>Location</b>		
<b>Location (Outdoor)</b>		

Outdoor space is attractive.	OUTLAY1
The school is well-located.	OUTLAY2
Enough space and easy access to parking.	OUTLAY3
Outdoor space is comfortable.	OUTLAY4
The location of the building is attractive.	OUTLAY5
Outdoor space is familiar.	OUTLAY6
Outdoor space is attractive.	OUTLAY7
Outdoor space is suitable.	OUTLAY8
Outdoor space is well organised.	OUTLAY9
<b>Location (Entrance)</b>	
The entrance of the building is convenient.	LOCLAY1
The entrance of the building is safe.	LOCLAY2
The entrance of the building is attractive.	LOCLAY3
Attractive interior decor and pleasant atmosphere.	LOCLAY4
Personal traffic corridors are well defined.	LOCLAY5
<b>Spatial comfort</b>	
The size of staff office corresponds to their position in the BBS hierarchy.	COMLAY1
I have enough storage space at my work/study-place.	COMLAY2
Conditions at work/study is appropriate to my activities.	COMLAY3
I have enough work surface area at my work/study-place.	COMLAY4
<b>Physical stimuli /Ambient conditions</b>	
<b>Light/Music/noise/ Temperature</b>	
The noises (e.g. phones, other people talking) are not bothersome.	PHS1
Temperature is comfortable.	PHS2
There is enough natural light at our work/study-place.	PHS3
The lighting is appropriate.	PHS4
Given the option, which light do you prefer for work/study.	PHS5
Mixture of incandescent/fluorescent	
Daylight	
Incandescent	
Fluorescent	
Mixture of all three	
Lighting creates a warm atmosphere.	PHS6
<b>Privacy/ Security</b>	
I find it hard to concentrate on my work.	PHSPRCY1
The noise level makes me irritable and uneasy.	PHSPRCY2
I can talk privately and not be overheard.	PHSPRCY3
My area provides the quite I need to do my work.	PHSPRCY4
I am aware of others passing nearby.	PHSPRCY5
I feel personally safe and secure coming to and going from BBS.	PHSPRCY6
The visual privacy I need to do my work/study is favourable.	PHSPRCY7
I am aware of others working/studying nearby.	PHSPRCY8
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b>	
<b>ART</b>	
The BBS's size viewed as a symbolic artefact.	ART1
The overall design of the BBS building is interesting.	ART2
Appearance of building and ground are attractive.	ART3
The design of BBS is in scale with rest of campus.	ART4
I like the material the BBS is made off.	ART5
The design of BBS is functional.	ART6
The design of BBS is cold.	ART7
The design of BBS is dynamic.	ART8
I think the design of BBS is symbolic of something.	ART9
The design of BBS is attractive.	ART10
<b>Interior Design Plants/flowers/ Paintings/pictures/Wall/Floor/ Colour/technology</b>	
Ceiling decor is attractive.	INART1
Paintings/pictures are attractive.	INART2

Wall decor is visually attractive.	INART3
Plants/flowers make me feel happy.	INART4
Colours used in the wall or ceiling create a warm atmosphere.	INART5
Floor is of high quality.	INART6
Colours used in the building create a warm atmosphere.	INART7
Tables used in the building is of high quality.	INART8
The BBS has up-to-date equipment (e.g. computer).	INART9
<b>IDENTIFICATION</b>	
When I talk about the BBS, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	IDN1
If a story in the media criticised the BBS, my school would feel embarrassed.	IDN2
When someone praises the BBS it feels like a compliment of my school.	IDN3
When someone criticises the BBS, it feels like a personal insult.	IDN4
I am very interested in what others think about the BBS.	IDN5
This BBS's successes are my successes.	IDN6

Source: Developed for the current study by the researcher

**APPENDIX 5.6: Reliability measures for each construct on the basis of the pilot study**

Constructs	Corrected item-to-total correlation	Mean	St. D	EFA Final loading	Items deleted
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY (A = .942)</b>					
CI1	.859	5.15	1.420	.861	CI3
CI2	.892	5.07	1.612	.852	
CI4	.719	4.98	1.548	.728	
CI5	.877	5.17	1.356	.842	
CI6	.886	4.96	1.504	.848	
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE (A = .970)</b>					
PMV1	.966	4.20	1.509	.866	
PMV2	.970	4.50	1.820	.812	
PMV3	.964	4.17	1.599	.919	
PMV4	.965	4.30	1.537	.872	
PMV5	.967	4.50	1.611	.854	
PMV6	.966	4.52	1.501	.883	
PMV7	.964	4.41	1.654	.928	
PMV8	.966	4.37	1.582	.843	
PMV9	.965	4.48	1.599	.926	
<b>COMMUNICATION (A = .919)</b>					
COM1	.718	5.33	1.213	.756	COM3
COM2	.780	5.44	1.093	.745	
COM4	.822	5.44	1.040	.793	
COM5	.689	5.46	.946	.800	
COM6	.796	5.37	1.069	.865	
COM7	.825	5.48	1.112	.841	
<b>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY (A = .957)</b>					
CVI1	.952	4.83	1.788	.804	
CVI2	.939	4.93	1.757	.806	
CVI3	.941	4.89	1.679	.796	
CVI4	.944	4.93	1.747	.818	
<b>PHYSICAL STIMULI /AMBIENT CONDITIONS</b>					
<b>Physical stimuli (<math>\alpha = .942</math>)</b>					
PHS2	.801	5.33	1.671	.774	PHS1
PHS3	.857	5.06	1.547	.803	
PHS4	.873	5.43	1.632	.843	
PHS5	.871	5.09	1.696	.806	
PHS6	.816	4.72	1.595	.770	
<b>Privacy (<math>\alpha = .957</math>)</b>					
PHSPRCY1	.958	5.17	1.145	.718	
PHSPRCY2	.952	5.19	1.065	.838	
PHSPRCY3	.949	5.33	1.116	.879	
PHSPRCY4	.952	5.11	1.160	.846	
PHSPRCY5	.954	5.39	1.172	.826	
PHSPRCY6	.950	5.30	1.192	.872	
PHSPRCY7	.949	5.33	1.166	.890	
PHSPRCY8	.949	5.30	1.207	.912	
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b>					
<b>ART (<math>\alpha = .968</math>)</b>					
ART1	.792	4.67	1.427	.727	ART9
ART2	.917	4.41	1.584	.841	
ART3	.866	4.37	1.533	.773	
ART4	.897	4.59	1.548	.857	
ART5	.858	4.37	1.594	.837	
ART6	.919	4.52	1.657	.861	
ART7	.829	4.39	1.687	.828	

ART8	.793	4.87	1.347	.805
ART10	.910	4.67	1.614	.900
<b>Interior design (<math>\alpha = .964</math>)</b>				
INART1	.965	5.07	1.528	.894
INART2	.967	5.04	1.671	.823
INART3	.964	4.76	1.636	.863
INART4	.966	4.80	1.653	.839
INART5	.966	5.11	1.423	.917
INART6	.964	5.02	1.560	.880
INART7	.963	4.72	1.630	.879
INART8	.966	4.96	1.541	.886
INART9	.965	4.98	1.536	.851
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>				
<b>LAYOUT (<math>\alpha = .970</math>)</b>				
LAYOT1	.970	5.07	1.452	.717
LAYOT2	.964	4.76	1.601	.786
LAYOT3	.963	4.87	1.683	.845
LAYOT4	.966	4.85	1.583	.837
LAYOT5	.965	4.87	1.591	.836
LAYOT6	.964	4.70	1.644	.806
LAYOT7	.963	4.87	1.649	.842
LAYOT8	.971	4.96	1.466	.715
<b>Outdoor Location (<math>\alpha = .977</math>)</b>				
OUTLAY1	.974	4.65	1.814	.838
OUTLAY2	.974	4.96	1.843	.815
OUTLAY3	.974	4.48	1.778	.832
OUTLAY4	.974	4.85	1.816	.831
OUTLAY5	.976	4.74	1.650	.812
OUTLAY6	.976	4.78	1.777	.827
OUTLAY7	.974	5.06	1.698	.855
OUTLAY8	.974	4.83	1.702	.866
OUTLAY9	.975	5.02	1.775	.813
<b>Location (Entrance) (<math>\alpha = .987</math>)</b>				
LOCLAY1	.993	5.22	1.787	.896
LOCLAY2	.981	5.30	1.839	.938
LOCLAY3	.981	5.28	1.847	.934
LOCLAY4	.980	5.30	1.818	.936
LOCLAY5	.984	5.31	1.725	.913
<b>Comfort (<math>\alpha = .977</math>)</b>				
COMLAY1	.889	5.72	1.265	.849
COMLAY2	.892	5.50	1.476	.817
COMLAY3	.866	5.20	1.509	.823
COMLAY4	.911	5.07	1.315	.772
<b>IDENTIFICATION (<math>\alpha = .959</math>)</b>				
IDN1	.952	4.78	1.690	.837
IDN2	.948	4.78	1.839	.865
IDN3	.950	4.52	1.724	.810
IDN4	.954	4.89	1.712	.839
IDN5	.952	4.70	1.678	.784
IDN6	.953	4.69	1.725	.841

Source: Analysis of survey data (SPSS file)

## APPENDIX 5.7: Main Questionnaire



**Dear Sir/Madam,**

This research project is conducted by Mohammad Mahdi Foroudi who is currently a PhD student at the Brunel Business School, UK. This study is concerned with trends in architecture and corporate identity, and their interplay within the Brunel Business School.

We would like to ask your valuable time to complete the questionnaire as a part of this research. Your participation in completing this questionnaire is vital for the success of the research and hence Mohammad Mahdi Foroudi's PhD studies successfully.

All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and it will not be possible to identify individuals as a result. The data will be used in an aggregated form.

An envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation  
Yours Sincerely,

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Brunel University  
Uxbridge  
Middlesex UB8 3PH  
United Kingdom  
Phone: (44) 7595959592  
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Notes to the fieldworkers:

1. Please read the questions very clearly and slowly enough in order to give sufficient time to the respondents to elaborate on the statements.
2. Please do not insist to get an answer for the questions that the respondents tend to leave as "missing" or "don't know".

1. Below are statements concerning your feeling about the current identity of Brunel Business School, please indicate your general impression about this school

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
To what extent do BBS's administrators have a sense of pride in the school's goals and missions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To what extent do top administrators feel that BBS has carved out a significant place in the higher education community.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To what extent does BBS have administrators, faculty, and students who identify strongly with the school.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To what extent the BBS administrators are knowledgeable about the institution's history and traditions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To what extent do the top management team members not have a well-defined set of goals or objectives for the BBS.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To what extent do the top management team members of BBS have a strong sense of the school's history.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. The following statements refer to the management of corporate identity (Philosophy, mission and value) within Brunel Business School. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
BBS's values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All employee/students are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave, and appropriate attitudes).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees/students view themselves as partners in charting the direction of the BBS.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Managers periodically discuss BBS's mission and values.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees/students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS has a well-defined mission.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is total agreement on our mission across all levels and BBS areas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All employees are committed to achieving the BBS's goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. The following statements refer to the management of corporate identity (communication) within Brunel Business School. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Much of our marketing is geared to projecting a specific image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees are dressed in a manner to project the BBS image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Our employees and staff understand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



symbols (or visual branding) of our school.							
BBS name is part of school image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours/visual style, signage) are constituents of school image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS facilities are designed to portray a specific image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Merchandising and brochures are an important part of BBS marketing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. The following statements refer to the management of corporate identity (visual identity) within Brunel Business School. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A visual audit of our facilities is undertaken periodically.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication material.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BBS stationery are designed to match the overall visual elements/image of our BBS unit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. The section below is prepared to understand your impression about your attitude towards the symbolic artifacts/decor and artifacts of the current Brunel Business School's building. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The BBS's size viewed as a symbolic artefact.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The overall design of the BBS building is interesting.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Appearance of building and ground are attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The design of BBS is in scale with rest of campus.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I like the material the BBS is made off.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The design of BBS is functional.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The design of BBS is cold.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The design of BBS is dynamic.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I think the design of BBS is symbolic of something.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The design of BBS is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ceiling decor is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Paintings/pictures are attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wall decor is visually attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Plants/flowers make me feel happy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Colours used in the wall or ceiling create a warm atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Floor is of high quality.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Colours used in the building create a warm atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tables used in the building is of high quality.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The BBS has up-to-date equipment (e.g. computer).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
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6. The section below is prepared to understand your impression about your attitude towards the physical stimuli/ambient conditions of the current Brunel Business School's building. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The noises (e.g. phones, other people talking) are not bothersome.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Temperature is comfortable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is enough natural light at our work/study-place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The lighting is appropriate.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Given the option, which light do you prefer for work/study							

Mixture of  Daylight  Incandescent  Fluorescent  Mixture of all three incandescent/fluorescent

I find it hard to concentrate on my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The noise level makes me irritable and uneasy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can talk privately and not be overheard.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My area provides the quiet I need to do my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am aware of others passing nearby.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel personally safe and secure coming to and going from BBS.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The visual privacy I need to do my work/study is favourable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am aware of others working/studying nearby.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. The section below is prepared to understand your impression about your attitude towards the physical structure/spatial layout and functionality of the current Brunel Business School's building. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My department's physical layout supports collaborative work/study.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Table/seating arrangement gives me enough space.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My work/study area is located close to people I need to talk to with my job/study.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The general office work/study-place layout facilitates teamwork.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The physical layout of my department helps make this a nice place to come to work/study.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Overall, layout makes it easy for me to move around.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I like the way my department's offices/rooms are configured.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Confidential and/or sensitive information is	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

handled well in the present office layout.							
Outdoor space is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The school is well-located.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enough space and easy access to parking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outdoor space is comfortable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The location of the building is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outdoor space is familiar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outdoor space is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outdoor space is suitable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outdoor space is well organised.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The entrance of the building is convenient.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The entrance of the building is safe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The entrance of the building is attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attractive interior decor and pleasant atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Personal traffic corridors are well defined.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The size of staff office corresponds to their position in the BBS hierarchy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have enough storage space at my work/study-place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Conditions at work/study is appropriate to my activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have enough work surface area at my work/study-place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. Below are statements concerning your feeling about the current Brunel Business School, please indicate your general impression about this company (stakeholders identification)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
When I talk about the BBS, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If a story in the media criticised the BBS, my school would feel embarrassed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When someone praises the BBS it feels like a compliment of my school.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When someone criticises the BBS, it feels like a personal insult.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am very interested in what others think about the BBS.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This BBS's successes are my successes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



## A FEW THINGS ABOUT YOURSELF

**How often do you visit BBS?**

- Never       A few times year       A few times a month       A few times a week
- Other (please state) .....

**Your gender**

- Female       Male

**Your age group:**

- 18-23       24-30       31-39       40-59       60-above

**Are you:**       Postgraduate Student       PhD Student       Doctorate       Professor

**Are you:**       Lecturer       Student       Admin

**THIS IS THE END OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.**

If you would like a summary of the results of this survey, please attach your business card or provide correspondence details. In order to ensure anonymity, any correspondence details will be detached survey upon receipt. If you prefer you may email your request (email: [mohammad.foroudi@brunel.ac.uk](mailto:mohammad.foroudi@brunel.ac.uk)).

APPENDIX 6.1: Missing data examination at item-level

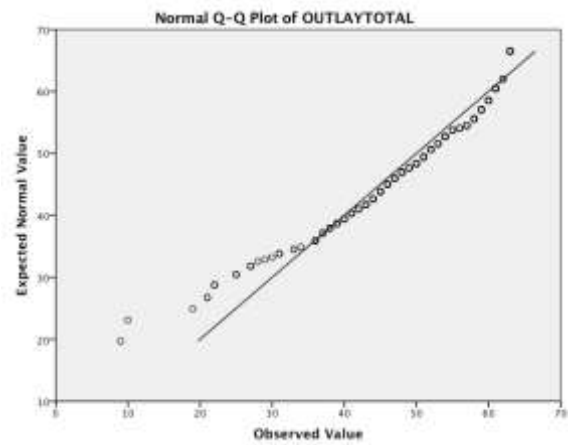
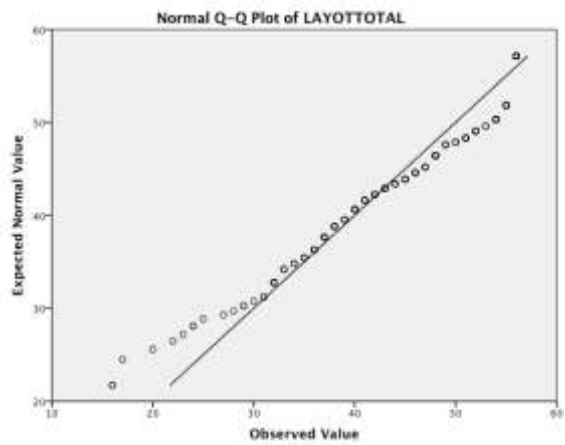
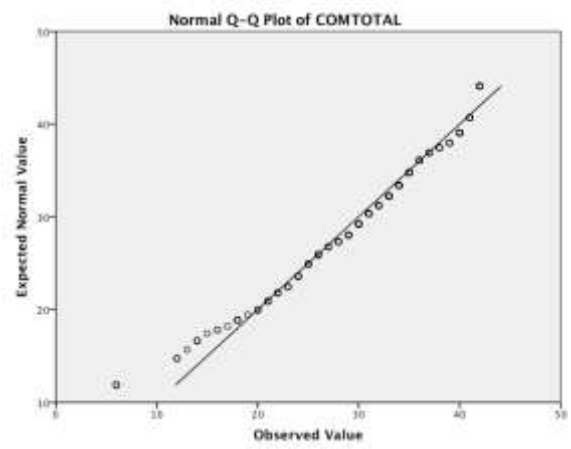
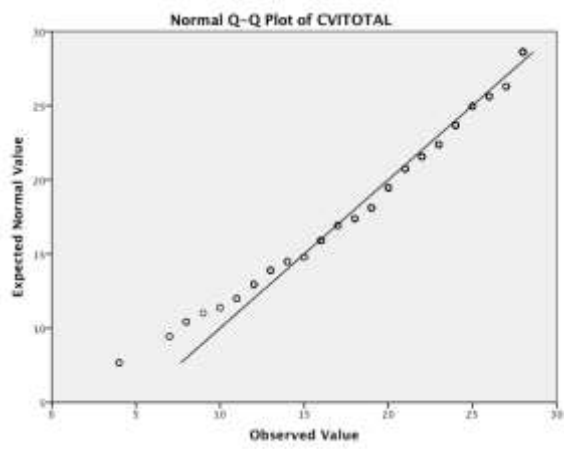
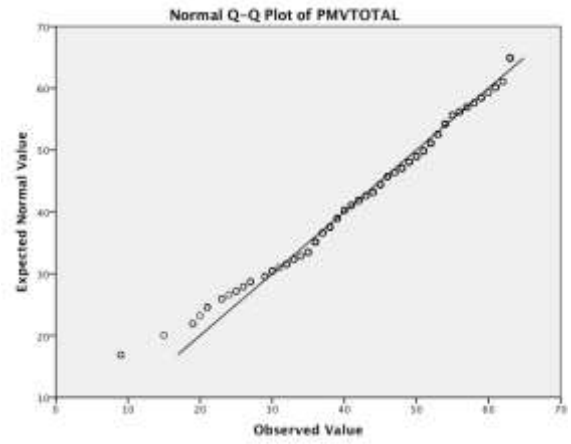
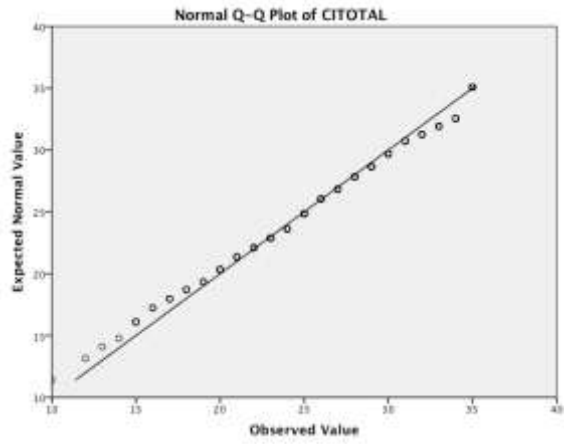
Constructs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing		No. of Extremes(a)	
	Cos unt	Percent	Low	High	Count	Percent	Low
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY (<math>\alpha = .931</math>)</b>							
CI1	309	5.43	1.232	0	.0	21	0
CI2	309	5.50	1.255	0	.0	5	0
CI4	309	5.47	1.306	0	.0	0	0
CI5	309	5.48	1.183	0	.0	16	0
CI6	309	5.43	1.271	0	.0	24	0
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE (<math>\alpha = .960</math>)</b>							
PMV1	309	5.03	1.327	0	.0	3	0
PMV2	309	5.20	1.389	0	.0	4	0
PMV3	309	5.04	1.401	0	.0	6	0
PMV4	309	5.05	1.338	0	.0	2	0
PMV5	309	5.04	1.410	0	.0	7	0
PMV6	309	5.04	1.392	0	.0	6	0
PMV7	309	5.07	1.374	0	.0	7	0
PMV8	309	5.07	1.339	0	.0	3	0
PMV9	309	5.10	1.345	0	.0	5	0
<b>COMMUNICATION (<math>\alpha = .936</math>)</b>							
COM1	309	5.15	1.423	0	.0	8	0
COM2	309	5.26	1.359	0	.0	5	0
COM4	309	5.03	1.551	0	.0	8	0
COM5	309	4.98	1.540	0	.0	9	0
COM6	309	4.87	1.547	0	.0	8	0
COM7	309	5.48	1.376	0	.0	10	0
<b>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY (<math>\alpha = .929</math>)</b>							
CVI1	309	5.17	1.372	0	.0	6	0
CVI2	309	5.31	1.475	0	.0	7	0
CVI3	309	5.20	1.427	0	.0	6	0
CVI4	309	5.23	1.422	0	.0	6	0
<b>PHYSICAL STIMULI /AMBIENT CONDITIONS</b>							
<b>Physical stimuli (<math>\alpha = .896</math>)</b>							
PHS2	309	5.74	1.202	0	.0	5	0
PHS3	309	5.60	1.206	0	.0	4	0
PHS4	309	5.95	1.165	0	.0	4	0
PHS5	309	5.75	1.229	0	.0	5	0
PHS6	309	5.36	1.273	0	.0	23	0
<b>Privacy (<math>\alpha = .957</math>)</b>							
PHSPRCY1	309	5.54	1.298	0	.0	9	0
PHSPRCY2	309	5.61	1.303	0	.0	7	0
PHSPRCY3	309	5.56	1.334	0	.0	7	0
PHSPRCY4	309	5.59	1.330	0	.0	10	0
PHSPRCY5	309	5.54	1.361	0	.0	11	0
PHSPRCY6	309	5.53	1.388	0	.0	11	0
PHSPRCY7	309	5.53	1.371	0	.0	12	0
PHSPRCY8	309	5.60	1.344	0	.0	12	0
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b>							
<b>ART (<math>\alpha = .952</math>)</b>							
ART1	309	5.46	1.273	0	.0	20	0
ART2	309	5.27	1.324	0	.0	3	0
ART3	309	5.21	1.386	0	.0	2	0
ART4	309	5.46	1.257	0	.0	21	0
ART5	309	5.13	1.403	0	.0	4	0
ART6	309	5.28	1.373	0	.0	2	0
ART7	309	5.24	1.401	0	.0	2	0

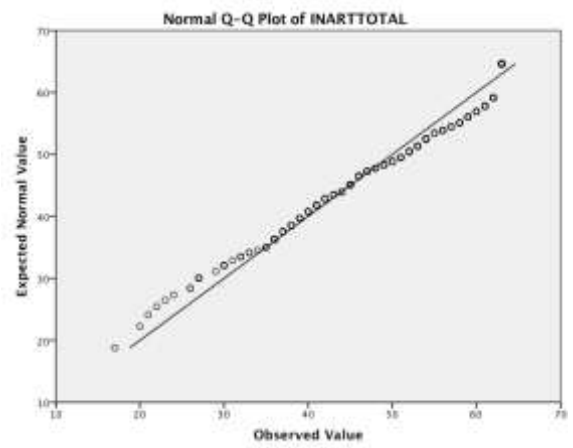
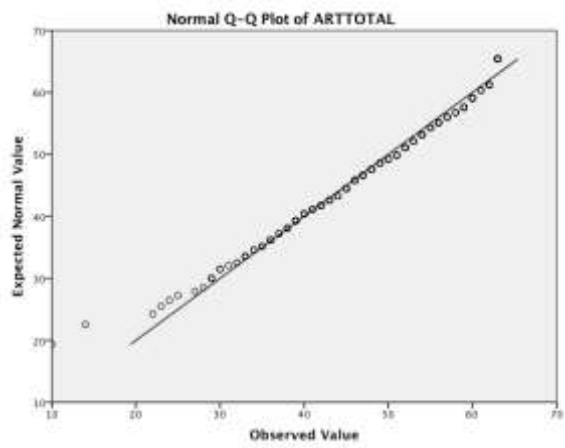
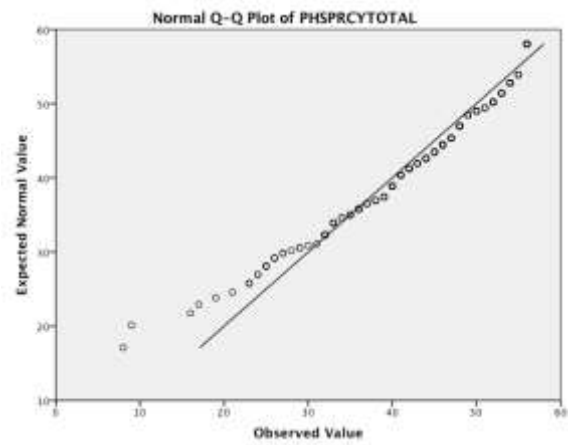
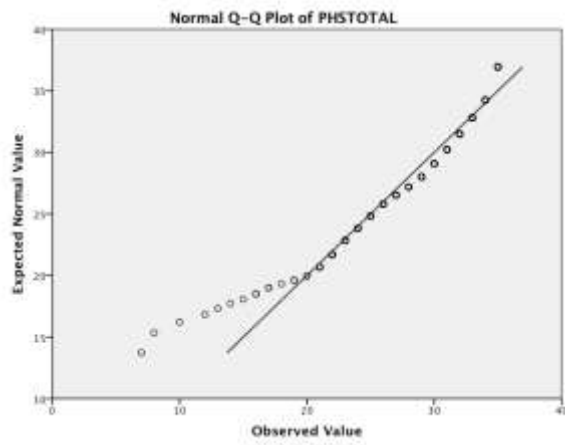
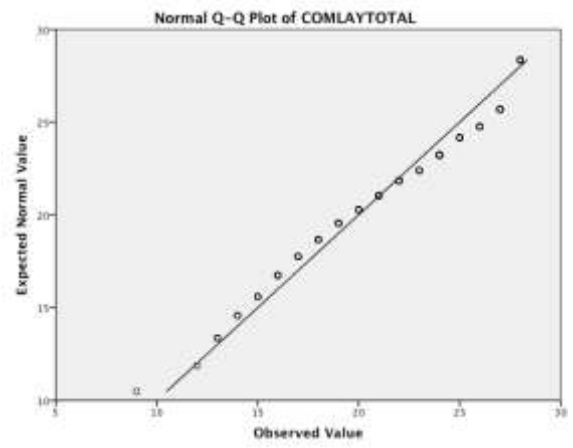
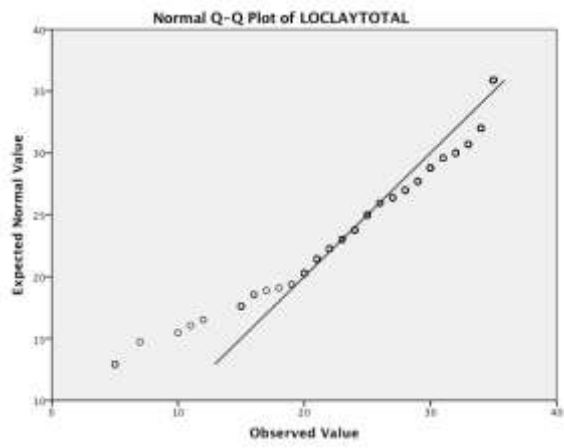
ART8	309	5.63	1.165	0	.0	1	0
ART10	309	5.59	1.223	0	.0	17	0
<b>Interior Design (<math>\alpha = .970</math>)</b>							
INART1	309	5.54	1.349	0	.0	7	0
INART2	309	5.59	1.315	0	.0	7	0
INART3	309	5.56	1.412	0	.0	10	0
INART4	309	5.63	1.348	0	.0	6	0
INART5	309	5.56	1.349	0	.0	6	0
INART6	309	5.53	1.338	0	.0	4	0
INART7	309	5.56	1.398	0	.0	9	0
INART8	309	5.60	1.302	0	.0	4	0
INART9	309	5.52	1.311	0	.0	3	0
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>							
<b>LAYOUT (<math>\alpha = .969</math>)</b>							
LAYOT1	309	5.84	1.207	0	.0	6	0
LAYOT2	309	5.77	1.301	0	.0	7	0
LAYOT3	309	5.88	1.283	0	.0	8	0
LAYOT4	309	5.83	1.251	0	.0	5	0
LAYOT5	309	5.81	1.269	0	.0	6	0
LAYOT6	309	5.73	1.330	0	.0	6	0
LAYOT7	309	5.81	1.334	0	.0	8	0
LAYOT8	309	5.85	1.211	0	.0	4	0
<b>Outdoor Location (<math>\alpha = .968</math>)</b>							
OUTLAY1	309	5.61	1.343	0	.0	9	0
OUTLAY2	309	5.68	1.316	0	.0	7	0
OUTLAY3	309	5.35	1.424	0	.0	14	0
OUTLAY4	309	5.66	1.320	0	.0	9	0
OUTLAY5	309	5.59	1.296	0	.0	6	0
OUTLAY6	309	5.43	1.391	0	.0	12	0
OUTLAY7	309	5.72	1.250	0	.0	5	0
OUTLAY8	309	5.68	1.291	0	.0	6	0
OUTLAY9	309	5.65	1.312	0	.0	7	0
<b>Location (Entrance) (<math>\alpha = .965</math>)</b>							
LOCLAY1	309	5.71	1.274	0	.0	6	0
LOCLAY2	309	5.91	1.329	0	.0	8	0
LOCLAY3	309	5.93	1.311	0	.0	6	0
LOCLAY4	309	5.89	1.319	0	.0	7	0
LOCLAY5	309	5.84	1.269	0	.0	4	0
<b>Comfort (<math>\alpha = .907</math>)</b>							
COMLAY1	309	5.90	1.129	0	.0	1	0
COMLAY2	309	5.82	1.219	0	.0	4	0
COMLAY3	309	5.71	1.351	0	.0	6	0
COMLAY4	309	5.61	1.229	0	.0	1	0
<b>IDENTIFICATION (<math>\alpha = .956</math>)</b>							
IDN1	309	5.61	1.396	0	.0	9	0
IDN2	309	5.62	1.366	0	.0	9	0
IDN3	309	5.52	1.443	0	.0	10	0
IDN4	309	5.62	1.333	0	.0	7	0
IDN5	309	5.54	1.438	0	.0	10	0
IDN6	309	5.51	1.459	0	.0	13	0

a. Number of cases outside the range ( $Q1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR, Q3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$ ).

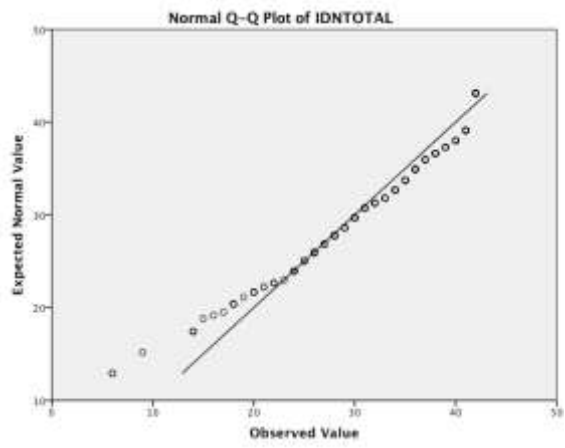
Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

## APPENDIX 6.2: Normal probability Q-Q plot









Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

**APPENDIX 6.3: Univariate variables**

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
			Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
<b>CORPORATE IDENTIT</b>								
CI1	5.58	1.258	0.196	309	0.000	0.883	309	0.000
CI2	5.59	1.313	0.185	309	0.000	0.875	309	0.000
CI4	5.61	1.292	0.222	309	0.000	0.873	309	0.000
CI5	5.63	1.220	0.193	309	0.000	0.882	309	0.000
CI6	5.63	1.274	0.196	309	0.000	0.875	309	0.000
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE</b>								
PMV1	5.03	1.327	0.155	309	0.000	0.927	309	0.000
PMV2	5.20	1.389	0.192	309	0.000	0.901	309	0.000
PMV3	5.04	1.401	0.159	309	0.000	0.921	309	0.000
PMV4	5.05	1.338	0.169	309	0.000	0.924	309	0.000
PMV5	5.04	1.410	0.171	309	0.000	0.919	309	0.000
PMV6	5.04	1.392	0.150	309	0.000	0.924	309	0.000
PMV7	5.07	1.374	0.192	309	0.000	0.912	309	0.000
PMV8	5.07	1.339	0.175	309	0.000	0.921	309	0.000
PMV9	5.10	1.345	0.163	309	0.000	0.921	309	0.000
<b>COMMUNICATION</b>								
COM1	5.53	1.301	0.192	309	0.000	0.886	309	0.000
COM2	5.58	1.298	0.183	309	0.000	0.880	309	0.000
COM4	5.41	1.465	0.180	309	0.000	0.883	309	0.000
COM5	5.38	1.436	0.184	309	0.000	0.892	309	0.000
COM6	5.33	1.446	0.168	309	0.000	0.898	309	0.000
COM7	5.81	1.230	0.219	309	0.000	0.844	309	0.000
<b>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY</b>								
CVI1	5.65	1.253	0.204	309	0.000	0.871	309	0.000
CVI2	5.72	1.264	0.200	309	0.000	0.858	309	0.000
CVI3	5.74	1.210	0.205	309	0.000	0.861	309	0.000
CVI4	5.70	1.252	0.199	309	0.000	0.864	309	0.000
<b>PHYSICAL STIMULI /AMBIENT CONDITIONS</b>								
<b>Physical stimuli</b>								
PHS2	5.74	1.202	0.235	309	0.000	0.856	309	.000
PHS3	5.60	1.206	0.199	309	0.000	0.882	309	.000
PHS4	5.95	1.165	0.233	309	0.000	0.818	309	.000
PHS5	5.75	1.229	0.227	309	0.000	0.855	309	.000
PHS6	5.36	1.273	0.185	309	0.000	0.908	309	.000
<b>Privacy</b>								
PHSPRCY1	5.56	1.307	0.208	309	0.000	0.875	309	0.000
PHSPRCY2	5.62	1.317	0.204	309	0.000	0.863	309	0.000
PHSPRCY3	5.57	1.338	0.198	309	0.000	0.872	309	0.000
PHSPRCY4	5.61	1.326	0.207	309	0.000	0.864	309	0.000
PHSPRCY5	5.56	1.373	0.209	309	0.000	0.868	309	0.000
PHSPRCY6	5.53	1.401	0.206	309	0.000	0.870	309	0.000
PHSPRCY7	5.56	1.396	0.207	309	0.000	0.862	309	0.000
PHSPRCY8	5.62	1.342	0.203	309	0.000	0.852	309	0.000
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b>								
<b>ART</b>								
ART1	5.46	1.273	0.207	309	0.000	0.896	309	0.000
ART2	5.27	1.324	0.170	309	0.000	0.913	309	0.000
ART3	5.21	1.386	0.178	309	0.000	0.914	309	0.000
ART4	5.46	1.257	0.204	309	0.000	0.898	309	0.000
ART5	5.13	1.403	0.157	309	0.000	0.918	309	0.000
ART6	5.28	1.373	0.184	309	0.000	0.907	309	0.000
ART7	5.24	1.401	0.217	309	0.000	0.904	309	0.000
ART8	5.63	1.165	0.208	309	0.000	0.886	309	0.000
ART10	5.59	1.223	0.231	309	0.000	0.875	309	0.000

<b>Interior Design</b>								
<b>INART1</b>	5.54	1.349	0.188	309	0.000	0.879	309	0.000
<b>INART2</b>	5.59	1.315	0.190	309	0.000	0.874	309	0.000
<b>INART3</b>	5.56	1.412	0.195	309	0.000	0.865	309	0.000
<b>INART4</b>	5.63	1.348	0.200	309	0.000	0.864	309	0.000
<b>INART5</b>	5.56	1.349	0.194	309	0.000	0.874	309	0.000
<b>INART6</b>	5.53	1.338	0.188	309	0.000	0.882	309	0.000
<b>INART7</b>	5.56	1.398	0.209	309	0.000	0.869	309	0.000
<b>INART8</b>	5.60	1.302	0.204	309	0.000	0.875	309	0.000
<b>INART9</b>	5.52	1.311	0.182	309	0.000	0.885	309	0.000
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>								
<b>LAYOUT</b>								
<b>LAYOT1</b>	5.84	1.207	0.222	309	0.000	0.838	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT2</b>	5.77	1.301	0.233	309	0.000	0.840	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT3</b>	5.88	1.283	0.246	309	0.000	0.813	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT4</b>	5.83	1.251	0.227	309	0.000	0.836	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT5</b>	5.81	1.269	0.225	309	0.000	0.838	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT6</b>	5.73	1.330	0.222	309	0.000	0.845	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT7</b>	5.81	1.334	0.235	309	0.000	0.824	309	0.000
<b>LAYOT8</b>	5.85	1.211	0.234	309	0.000	0.838	309	0.000
<b>Outdoor Location</b>								
<b>OUTLAY1</b>	5.61	1.343	0.202	309	0.000	0.865	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY2</b>	5.68	1.316	0.206	309	0.000	0.854	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY3</b>	5.35	1.424	0.158	309	0.000	0.893	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY4</b>	5.66	1.320	0.203	309	0.000	0.856	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY5</b>	5.59	1.296	0.185	309	0.000	0.876	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY6</b>	5.43	1.391	0.184	309	0.000	0.890	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY7</b>	5.72	1.250	0.205	309	0.000	0.858	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY8</b>	5.68	1.291	0.204	309	0.000	0.863	309	0.000
<b>OUTLAY9</b>	5.65	1.312	0.220	309	0.000	0.861	309	0.000
<b>Location (Entrance)</b>								
<b>LOCLAY1</b>	5.71	1.274	0.203	309	0.000	0.856	309	0.000
<b>LOCLAY2</b>	5.91	1.329	0.257	309	0.000	0.792	309	0.000
<b>LOCLAY3</b>	5.93	1.311	0.273	309	0.000	0.793	309	0.000
<b>LOCLAY4</b>	5.89	1.319	0.256	309	0.000	0.802	309	0.000
<b>LOCLAY5</b>	5.84	1.269	0.244	309	0.000	0.829	309	0.000
<b>Comfort</b>								
<b>COMLAY1</b>	5.90	1.129	0.240	309	0.000	0.840	309	0.000
<b>COMLAY2</b>	5.82	1.219	0.223	309	0.000	0.843	309	0.000
<b>COMLAY3</b>	5.71	1.351	0.223	309	0.000	0.844	309	0.000
<b>COMLAY4</b>	5.61	1.229	0.196	309	0.000	0.878	309	0.000
<b>IDENTIFICATION</b>								
<b>IDN1</b>	5.67	1.398	0.224	309	0.000	0.841	309	0.000
<b>IDN2</b>	5.70	1.388	0.208	309	0.000	0.835	309	0.000
<b>IDN3</b>	5.62	1.440	0.209	309	0.000	0.847	309	0.000
<b>IDN4</b>	5.69	1.343	0.202	309	0.000	0.849	309	0.000
<b>IDN5</b>	5.65	1.429	0.207	309	0.000	0.840	309	0.000
<b>IDN6</b>	5.61	1.436	0.198	309	0.000	0.849	309	0.000

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

APPENDIX 6.4: Multivariate normality

Constructs	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
<b>CORPORATE IDENTITY (<math>\alpha = 0.962</math>)</b>						
CI1	5.58	1.258	-.582	.139	-.369	.276
CI2	5.59	1.313	-.714	.139	.016	.276
CI4	5.61	1.292	-.680	.139	-.315	.276
CI5	5.63	1.220	-.619	.139	-.177	.276
CI6	5.63	1.274	-.732	.139	-.033	.276
<b>PHILOSOPHY, MISSION, AND VALUE (<math>\alpha = 0.960</math>)</b>						
PMV1	5.53	1.301	-.423	.139	-.036	.276
PMV2	5.58	1.298	-.787	.139	.355	.276
PMV3	5.41	1.465	-.584	.139	.114	.276
PMV4	5.38	1.436	-.517	.139	-.077	.276
PMV5	5.33	1.446	-.641	.139	.218	.276
PMV6	5.81	1.230	-.508	.139	.055	.276
PMV7	5.07	1.374	-.720	.139	.527	.276
PMV8	5.07	1.339	-.588	.139	.070	.276
PMV9	5.10	1.345	-.573	.139	.187	.276
<b>COMMUNICATION (<math>\alpha = 0.941</math>)</b>						
COM1	5.53	1.301	-.551	.139	-.540	.276
COM2	5.58	1.298	-.650	.139	-.179	.276
COM4	5.41	1.465	-.687	.139	-.266	.276
COM5	5.38	1.436	-.626	.139	-.319	.276
COM6	5.33	1.446	-.617	.139	-.313	.276
COM7	5.81	1.230	-.939	.139	.258	.276
<b>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY (<math>\alpha = 0.950</math>)</b>						
CVI1	5.65	1.253	-.756	.139	.180	.276
CVI2	5.72	1.264	-.871	.139	.439	.276
CVI3	5.74	1.210	-.661	.139	-.454	.276
CVI4	5.70	1.252	-.841	.139	.349	.276
<b>PHYSICAL STIMULI / AMBIENT CONDITIONS</b>						
<b>Physical stimuli (<math>\alpha = 0.896</math>)</b>						
PHS2	5.74	1.202	-1.022	.139	.911	.276
PHS3	5.60	1.206	-.817	.139	.690	.276
PHS4	5.95	1.165	-1.144	.139	1.181	.276
PHS5	5.75	1.229	-.936	.139	.531	.276
PHS6	5.36	1.273	-.575	.139	.038	.276
<b>Privacy (<math>\alpha = 0.963</math>)</b>						
PHSPRCY1	5.56	1.307	-.926	.139	.661	.276
PHSPRCY2	5.62	1.317	-1.006	.139	.994	.276
PHSPRCY3	5.57	1.338	-.901	.139	.629	.276
PHSPRCY4	5.61	1.326	-.983	.139	.826	.276
PHSPRCY5	5.56	1.373	-.968	.139	.621	.276
PHSPRCY6	5.53	1.401	-.918	.139	.390	.276
PHSPRCY7	5.56	1.396	-1.004	.139	.648	.276
PHSPRCY8	5.62	1.342	-1.125	.139	1.277	.276
<b>SYMBOLIC ARTIFACTS/DECOR AND ARTIFACTS</b>						
<b>ART (<math>\alpha = 0.952</math>)</b>						
ART1	5.46	1.273	-.692	.139	.178	.276
ART2	5.27	1.324	-.506	.139	-.079	.276
ART3	5.21	1.386	-.463	.139	-.392	.276
ART4	5.46	1.257	-.604	.139	-.044	.276
ART5	5.13	1.403	-.461	.139	-.183	.276
ART6	5.28	1.373	-.615	.139	-.092	.276
ART7	5.24	1.401	-.660	.139	-.207	.276
ART8	5.63	1.165	-.554	.139	-.450	.276

<b>ART10</b>	5.59	1.223	-.955	.139	.972	.276
<b>Interior Design (<math>\alpha = 0.970</math>)</b>						
<b>INART1</b>	5.54	1.349	-.622	.139	-.323	.276
<b>INART2</b>	5.59	1.315	-.829	.139	.467	.276
<b>INART3</b>	5.56	1.412	-.809	.139	.101	.276
<b>INART4</b>	5.63	1.348	-.760	.139	-.169	.276
<b>INART5</b>	5.56	1.349	-.664	.139	-.154	.276
<b>INART6</b>	5.53	1.338	-.588	.139	-.471	.276
<b>INART7</b>	5.56	1.398	-.809	.139	-.019	.276
<b>INART8</b>	5.60	1.302	-.644	.139	-.477	.276
<b>INART9</b>	5.52	1.311	-.532	.139	-.517	.276
<b>PHYSICAL STRUCTURE/SPATIAL LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONALITY</b>						
<b>LAYOUT (<math>\alpha = 0.969</math>)</b>						
<b>LAYOT1</b>	5.84	1.207	-.959	.139	.546	.276
<b>LAYOT2</b>	5.77	1.301	-.852	.139	.009	.276
<b>LAYOT3</b>	5.88	1.283	-1.086	.139	.602	.276
<b>LAYOT4</b>	5.83	1.251	-.934	.139	.213	.276
<b>LAYOT5</b>	5.81	1.269	-.982	.139	.553	.276
<b>LAYOT6</b>	5.73	1.330	-.864	.139	.041	.276
<b>LAYOT7</b>	5.81	1.334	-1.035	.139	.447	.276
<b>LAYOT8</b>	5.85	1.211	-.853	.139	.062	.276
<b>Outdoor Location (<math>\alpha = 0.968</math>)</b>						
<b>OUTLAY1</b>	5.61	1.343	-.932	.139	.599	.276
<b>OUTLAY2</b>	5.68	1.316	-1.054	.139	1.068	.276
<b>OUTLAY3</b>	5.35	1.424	-.654	.139	-.003	.276
<b>OUTLAY4</b>	5.66	1.320	-1.031	.139	.937	.276
<b>OUTLAY5</b>	5.59	1.296	-.844	.139	.578	.276
<b>OUTLAY6</b>	5.43	1.391	-.724	.139	.008	.276
<b>OUTLAY7</b>	5.72	1.250	-.961	.139	.772	.276
<b>OUTLAY8</b>	5.68	1.291	-.909	.139	.509	.276
<b>OUTLAY9</b>	5.65	1.312	-.982	.139	.743	.276
<b>Location (Entrance) (<math>\alpha = 0.965</math>)</b>						
<b>LOCLAY1</b>	5.71	1.274	-.997	.139	.963	.276
<b>LOCLAY2</b>	5.91	1.329	-1.321	.139	1.633	.276
<b>LOCLAY3</b>	5.93	1.311	-1.228	.139	1.232	.276
<b>LOCLAY4</b>	5.89	1.319	-1.230	.139	1.257	.276
<b>LOCLAY5</b>	5.84	1.269	-.979	.139	.595	.276
<b>Comfort (<math>\alpha = 0.907</math>)</b>						
<b>COMLAY1</b>	5.90	1.129	-.694	.139	-.430	.276
<b>COMLAY2</b>	5.82	1.219	-.936	.139	.442	.276
<b>COMLAY3</b>	5.71	1.351	-.780	.139	-.362	.276
<b>COMLAY4</b>	5.61	1.229	-.479	.139	-.789	.276
<b>IDENTIFICATION (<math>\alpha = 0.964</math>)</b>						
<b>IDN1</b>	5.67	1.398	-.916	.139	.382	.276
<b>IDN2</b>	5.70	1.388	-1.180	.139	1.308	.276
<b>IDN3</b>	5.62	1.440	-.938	.139	.356	.276
<b>IDN4</b>	5.69	1.343	-.994	.139	.737	.276
<b>IDN5</b>	5.65	1.429	-1.056	.139	.894	.276
<b>IDN6</b>	5.61	1.436	-1.017	.139	.630	.276

Source: Developed by the researcher for the current research

**APPENDIX 6.5: Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for the constructs**

	CITOTAL	PMVOTAL	COMTOTAL	CVITOTAL	ARTDTOTAL	ARTINTOTAL	AMBLTOTAL	AMBPTOTAL	LAYLTOTAL	LAYTTOTAL	LAYOTTOTAL	LAYLETOTAL	LAYCTOTAL	IDNFTOTAL
CITOTAL	1													
PMVOTAL	.494*	1												
COMTOTAL	.461*	.551**	1											
CVITOTAL	.472*	.446**	.495**	1										
ARTDTOTAL	.387*	.394**	.403**	.294**	1									
ARTINTOTAL	.422*	.496**	.447**	.369**	.668**	1								
AMBLTOTAL	.132*	.188**	.199**	.139*	.304**	.362**	1							
AMBPTOTAL	.464*	.527**	.302**	.405**	.263**	.533**	.260**	1						
LAYLTOTAL	.393*	.440**	.294**	.363**	.337**	.429**	.319**	.613**	1					
LAYTTOTAL	.413*	.443**	.304**	.369**	.366**	.457**	.338**	.631**	.971**	1				
LAYOTTOTAL	.184*	.231**	.143*	.276**	.363**	.323**	.140*	.147**	.309**	.319**	1			
LAYLETOTAL	.143*	.143*	.161**	.239**	.345**	.312**	.172**	.172*	.181**	.199**	.844**	1		
LAYCTOTAL	.175*	.138*	.179**	.167**	.170**	.226**	.134*	.156**	.175**	.197**	.408**	.376**	1	
IDNFTOTAL	.232*	.336**	.313**	.187**	.315**	.304**	.135*	.229**	.224**	.257**	.360**	.339**	.362**	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**APPENDIX 6.6: Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for the constructs**

	CI	PMVT	COM	CVI	LAYOT	OUTLAY	LOCLAY	COMLAY	PHS	PHSPRCY	ART	INART	IDN
CI	1												
COM	.167**	1											
COM	.175**	.163**	1										
CVI	.145*	.140*	.403**	1									
LAYOT	.308**	.164**	.115*	.075	1								
OUTLAY	.337**	.344**	.110	.124*	.551**	1							
LOCLAY	.402**	.261**	.140*	.031	.580**	.477**	1						
COMLAY	.296**	.268**	.091	.022	.484**	.494**	.354**	1					
PHS	.372**	.331**	.138*	.107	.592**	.465**	.516**	.467**	1				
PHSPRCY	.100	.140*	.128*	.116*	.150**	.123*	.134*	.260**	.191**	1			
ART	.306**	.341**	.097	.121*	.543**	.569**	.335**	.355**	.506**	.078	1		
INART	.430**	.388**	.271**	.046	.485**	.427**	.547**	.467**	.459**	.154**	.382**	1	
IDN	.285**	.276**	.210**	.030	.554**	.481**	.523**	.397**	.402**	.118*	.456**	.541**	1

APPENDIX 6.7: Factor loadings

Rotated Component Matrix													
	Component												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<b>CI (@. 962)</b>													
CI1									.888				
CI2									.878				
CI4									.812				
CI5									.895				
CI6									.878				
<b>PMV (@. 962)</b>													
PMV1				.864									
PMV3				.919									
PMV4				.899									
PMV5				.898									
PMV6				.892									
PMV7				.885									
PMV8				.829									
PMV9				.890									
<b>COM (@.941)</b>													
COM1							.830						
COM2							.849						
COM4							.855						
COM5							.891						
COM6							.812						
COM7							.781						
<b>CVI (@.950)</b>													
CVI1										.872			
CVI2										.892			
CVI3										.865			
CVI4										.904			
<b>LAYOT (@.968)</b>													
LAYOT2					.797								
LAYOT3					.788								
LAYOT4					.801								
LAYOT5					.795								
LAYOT6					.792								
LAYOT7					.804								
LAYOT8					.769								
<b>OUTLAY (@.968)</b>													
OUTLAY1		.794											
OUTLAY2		.826											
OUTLAY3		.798											
OUTLAY4		.809											
OUTLAY5		.773											
OUTLAY6		.826											
OUTLAY7		.843											
OUTLAY8		.817											
OUTLAY9		.825											
<b>LOCLAY (@.934)</b>													
LOCLAY1													.786
LOCLAY2													.753
LOCLAY4													.696
<b>COMLAY (@. 907)</b>													
COMLAY1												.858	
COMLAY2										.875			
COMLAY3										.890			
COMLAY4										.814			



<b>PHS (@. 871)</b>														
PHS3													.705	
PHS4													.795	
PHS5													.721	
<b>PHSPRCY (@. 963)</b>														
PHSPRCY1			.827											
PHSPRCY2			.845											
PHSPRCY3			.907											
PHSPRCY4			.865											
PHSPRCY5			.891											
PHSPRCY6			.903											
PHSPRCY7			.905											
PHSPRCY8			.877											
<b>ART (@. 941)</b>														
ART2									.749					
ART3									.775					
ART4									.728					
ART5									.833					
ART6									.840					
ART7									.814					
<b>INART (@. 970)</b>														
INART1	.782													
INART2	.780													
INART3	.879													
INART4	.839													
INART5	.838													
INART6	.851													
INART7	.858													
INART8	.852													
INART9	.856													
<b>IDN (@. 964)</b>														
IDN1								.799						
IDN2								.821						
IDN3								.800						
IDN4								.824						
IDN5								.834						
IDN6								.814						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.  
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.  
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

## APPENDIX (VISUAL AUDIT): TOP UK BUSINESS SCHOOLS PICTURE

### London Business School



**Imperial College Business School**







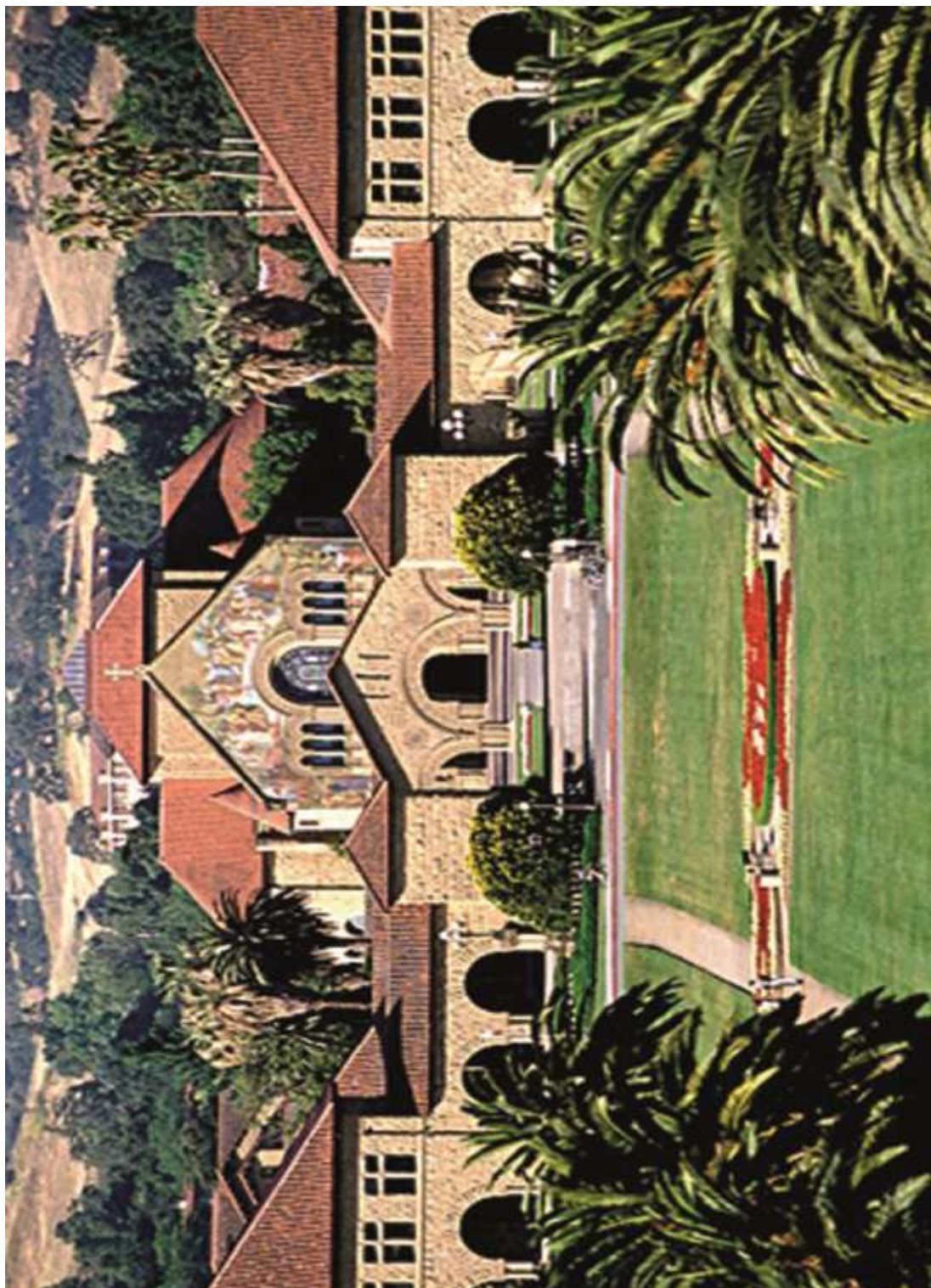
**APPENDIX (Visual Audit): Top US Business Schools Picture**

**Harvard Business School**





**Stanford Business School**



**University of Pennsylvania Wharton**

