Determining Corporate Identity in UK Organisations:
An Empirical Analysis and Evaluation

being a

Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in the University of Hull

by

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This thesis is dedicated to

My Small Family

(Ahmed & Judy)

&

My Big Family

(Dad, Mum, Abdel-Aziz & Kareem)

With Gratitude for Your Gifts of Love and Life
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Abstract

Corporate branding is a product of the late 20th century which often requires positioning the corporation in terms of its values, emotions, philosophy, and not just its products and services. Within the corporate branding discourse, corporate identity (CI) is held to be a key focal point. CI creates a sense of individuality for an organisation that can be used as a main source of differentiation. Thus, CI’s strategic instrumentality can be used as a means to achieve and maintain competitive advantage as customers can potentially identify with some aspects of a business, including its societal and cultural policies as well as its products and services. Furthermore, stakeholders are much concerned with corporate image and reputation which is based on elaboration of CI over time. As a result, interest in CI has accelerated in academic and business circles over the past ten to fifteen years.

While the concept of CI has been widely discussed and defined in the literature, there is as yet no universally accepted definition and an agreement on what constitutes the construct has not been achieved, despite the fact that several explanatory frameworks and taxonomies have been developed. While these frameworks are of value to researchers in developing and structuring the nascent literature, they merely provide a platform for subsequent research. However, even the developed frameworks lack theoretical depth at this stage and do not provide a clear specification of the construct domain, which is considered essential given the ambivalent boundaries between CI and related constructs, such as corporate image, reputation, and corporate branding. Therefore, in many respects, overlapping and contiguous interconnections persist, obfuscating CI boundaries. In addition, they tend to adopt a metaphorical view of CI that continues, suggesting a broad, over-simplified and insufficiently operational theory. Moreover, despite the significance that CI research has recently been accorded, such research has largely ignored the moral aspect of CI and a theoretically informed body of knowledge, explaining the relationship between CI and CSR, does not exist.

Informed by these issues and from a multidisciplinary perspective, this thesis aims to develop a comprehensive understanding of CI (its meaning, elements/dimensions, theoretical underpinning and measurement) and its relationship with CSR. This was achieved using an exploratory sequential mixed method research design, qualitative followed by quantitative research. The first phase was an exploratory interpretive phase which concerned an examination of the meaning and elements of CI, gaining insights into the nature of CSR in practice and an exploration of the relationship between these two strands from practitioners’ and experts’ viewpoints. This was based on the use of semi-structured interviews with twenty five senior managers responsible for CI, brand management, and CSR in fifteen leading companies operating in different industries in the UK as well as in three public relations (PR) agencies. Data analysis of the exploratory phase of research was informed by content analysis and Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approaches to qualitative analysis, and augmented by the use of NVivo9.
Based on the findings of the first phase, a theoretical framework and an empirically testable scale for the CI construct were developed, and the relationship between CI and CSR was hypothesised. Consequently, the second phase concerned validating the CI framework and scale, testing hypotheses concerning the CI-CSR relationship, and empirically examining CSR engagement in practice. A completed sample (n=126) was obtained using surveys administered via postal mail to senior executives responsible for branding/marketing/communication and CSR functions in organisations operating in the UK’s food and beverage manufacturing sector. Data analysis involved the use of Cronbach’s alpha and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) utilising SPSS19. This helped purify the measure and reveal the dimensions structure. Then, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) were applied utilising SmartPLS. The application of CFA provided robust support for CI dimensionality validation and evidence for the psychometric properties of the scale while SEM enabled the examination of hypotheses between constructs.

The findings show that CI is a third-order, hierarchical, multi-dimensional construct comprising six dimensions: corporate communications, corporate visual identity (CVI), behaviour, culture, mission dissemination, and founder leadership. Additionally, CSR comprises two dimensions: social responsibility and legal responsibility. Further, the findings support the assumption of this thesis that CI drives CSR, demonstrating the significant, positive influence of CI on CSR. The analysis also reveals the significant, positive indirect effect of individual CI dimensions on CSR.

These findings have significant theoretical, managerial and methodological contributions to CI and CSR literature which are discussed in the Conclusions chapter. It is hoped that future research will build on these results so that further avenues can be explored.
Publications

During the preparation of this thesis a number of papers were prepared as listed below. The remaining parts of the thesis are unpublished.

Journal Articles


Conference Proceedings


### PhD Symposium Presentations:

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List of Abbreviations

B2B : Business to Business
B2C : Business to Consumer
BITC : Business in the Community
CAQDAS : Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CEO : Chief Executive Officer
CI : Corporate Identity
CITC : Corrected Item to Total Correlations
CFA : Confirmatory Factor Analysis
COO : Country of Origin
CMIA : Centre for Marketing Innovations and Applications
CMB : Common Method Bias
CMV : Common Method Variance
CSR : Corporate Social Responsibility
CVF : Competing Values Framework
CVI : Corporate Visual Identity
CVIS : Corporate Visual Identity System
EFA : Exploratory Factor Analysis
GoF : Global Fit Measure
GRI : Global Reporting Initiative
HUBS : Hull University Business School
IfM : Institute for Manufacturing
IMC : Integrated Marketing Communications
KMO : Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LBDQ : Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire
LV : Latent Variable
MD : Managing Director
MSA : The Measure of Sampling Adequacy
MV : Manifest Variable
NGOs : Non Government Organisations
OI : Organisational Identity
OIC : Organisational Identification Construction
OLS : Ordinary Least Squares
PCA : Principal Component Analysis
PR : Public Relations
PLS : Partial Least Squares
PCA : Principal Component Analysis
ROI : Return On Investment
SBU : Strategic Business Unit
SEM : Structural Equation Modelling
SMEs : Small And Medium Size Enterprises
SIT : Social Identity Theory
WBCSD : World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WOM : Word of Mouth
# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

Table 1.1: The Research Stages

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1.1. Introduction
This thesis outlines the development of a valid, reliable and parsimonious corporate identity (CI) scale and its application to assess the construct’s relationship with corporate social responsibility (CSR). The aim of this chapter is to provide insights into the research area and explain the reasons behind selecting the topic and conducting this research.

The chapter is structured as follows. It opens by presenting the research background. The following section provides a justification for this thesis by stating the research problem that leads to developing four research questions, which underpin this thesis. Next, the research objectives are identified, which are achieved in two phases, as subsequently explained. This is followed by presenting the research contribution. The penultimate section provides the structure and rationale for each chapter of the thesis. Finally, the summary section reiterates main points covered in the chapter.

1.2. Research Background
Corporate branding was a product of the late 20th century (Kitchen and Schultz, 2001; Kotler and Keller, 2008) which often requires re-positioning the corporation – its values, emotions, personality, and not just its products (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Within this corporate-level branding discourse, corporate identity (CI) is held as a key focal point (Balmer, 2008). CI creates a sense of individuality for an organisation that can be used as a main source of differentiation. Thus, CI’s strategic instrumentality can be used as a means to achieve and maintain competitive advantage (Porter and Kramer, 2006) as customers can potentially identify with all aspects of a business, including its societal and cultural policies as well as its products and services. Furthermore, stakeholders are concerned with corporate image and reputation, which are based on elaboration of CI over time (Melewar et al., 2005b). Accordingly, interest in CI has accelerated in academic and business circles over the past ten to fifteen years.

Traditionally, CI has been narrowly conceived in terms of graphic design in image creation (Balmer and Wilkinson, 1991; Napoles, 1988; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Nevertheless, the concept of CI has gradually broadened to comprehend a more

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1 The term construct refers to “a broad mental configuration of a given phenomenon” (Bacharach (1989:500).
complete picture of the way organisations present themselves to their different stakeholders (Atakan and Eker, 2007).

This includes a mix of attributes and characteristics that reflect the ‘reality’ and ‘uniqueness’ of the organisation (Balmer and Gray, 1999), such as symbols, written and oral communication, behaviour (Van Reil, 1995); business strategy, philosophy, organisational culture, structure (Gray and Balmer, 1998); corporate values, mission, activities, markets covered (Balmer and Grayser, 2002); and communication, visual identity, behaviour, corporate culture and market conditions (Melewar and Akel, 2005; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

Several authors argue that behaviour is integral to CI (Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Corporate behaviour stems from corporate actions in their entirety (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000); both those that are planned and congruent with corporate culture and those that occur spontaneously. Moreover, (Cornelius et al., 2007:132) argue that the concept of CI can be seen as a ‘manifestation’ of ethical behaviour since the firm’s ethical behaviours and stance are a part of an organisation’s reality and uniqueness (Berrone et al., 2007).

Currently, organisations are encouraged to behave in an ethical and socially responsible manner (Berrone et al., 2007), for instance, compete fairly with competitors, act responsibly towards the environment, treat employees fairly (David et al., 2005), and implement codes of conduct (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001). This may be due to the recent spate of corporate scandals in the USA, Europe, South-East Asia and Australia which have generated renewed attention to ethics in business and attracted the interest of researchers and the business press alike. Furthermore, the growing importance of governmental regulations, amplified scrutiny of the media, and increased pressure from various stakeholders have placed corporate social responsibility (CSR) challenges on the strategic agenda of virtually all firms (Berrone et al., 2007; Ponemon and Michaelson, 2000).

CSR, according to the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), is “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large” (Chand and Fraser,
Thus, CSR encompasses different facets of responsibilities including economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities (Carroll, 1991; 1999).

It is believed that demonstrating CSR initiatives creates substantial benefits through the development of positive attitudes among different stakeholders towards the organisation and its products (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Morsing and Schultz, 2006; Sen et al., 2006; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001), influences customer acquisition and purchase intentions (Auger et al., 2003; Kleina and Dawar, 2004; Mohr and Webb, 2005), enhances consumer resilience to negative information, and increases consumer willingness to talk positively about the company (Du et al., 2010), as well as developing competitive advantages (Porter and Kramer, 2006) and underpinning valuable organisational capabilities (Sharma and Vredenburg, 1998). On the contrary, unsustainable corporate practices might alienate the organisation from the rest of society, resulting in reduced reputation, increased costs, fewer sales and decreasing shareholder value through erosion of its licence to operate (Hill, 2001; Lindgreen et al., 2009a).

Consequently, many CSR schemes have been developed and suggested by organisations and individuals world-wide (Tschopp, 2005). In addition, many businesses have become eager to define their roles in society and display their CSR principles, processes and activities (Lindgreen and Swaen, 2004; Maon et al., 2010), the reason being to convey a positive image of their identity and gain greater legitimacy along with support among stakeholders (Maignan and Ralston, 2002); What organisations ‘do’ plays a big part in shaping perceptions of what they ‘are’ (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). In internal organisational policy formulation, CSR is often defined within the frame of CI and therefore may be well embedded in organisational thought and action (Lauring and Thomsen, 2009b).

Thus, issues of CI and CSR are receiving significant attention in both the academic literature and the public media (Fetscherin and Usunier, 2012; Fukukawa et al., 2007). Gray and Balmer (2001) have shown that investigating the related areas of CI and CSR has the potential to afford new and important perspectives on the area which, in time, may represent a distinct, if not important, strand of inquiry (Fukukawa et al., 2007).
In this context, this thesis seeks to study CI from a multidisciplinary perspective in order to develop a holistic framework of CI elements and a scale for measuring CI, extend the understanding of organisation’s current CSR practices, and explore the relationship between CI and CSR.

1.3. Research Problem, Statement and Questions

As organisations move toward globalisation, there has been a shift in marketing emphasis from product to corporate branding (Keller, 2000). This is generally credited to the difficulties of maintaining product differentiation in the face of homogenisation of products and services, as well as the fragmentation of market segments as customers become more sophisticated and markets become more complex (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). However, differentiation requires positioning the whole corporation, not just the products (Hatch and Schultz, 2003).

Accordingly, values, emotions, and personality, CI, as symbolised by the company, become key elements of differentiation strategies (Hatch and Schultz, 2003) which consequently affect organisations’ financial performance (Berrone et al., 2007; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

However, it is not enough for organisations to focus purely on profitability (Carroll, 1999). Rather than being isolated, companies belong to internal and external networks of different stakeholders (e.g., shareholders, investors, suppliers, customers, government). Thus, they face social obligations to take actions that protect and improve the welfare of the society as a whole (Atakan and Eker, 2007). The way to be a good corporate citizen is through CSR (Atakan and Eker, 2007). Hence, social, environmental and/or ethical goals should be preeminent or, at least, be on equal footing with the profit motive (David et al., 2005).

In order to handle these dynamics, organisations should create CI with unique features that reflect a sense of individuality in order to be distinguished in the competitive environment (Balmer and Soenen, 1997). In establishing a distinctive CI, CSR policies should be introduced to create shared organisational values (Atakan and Eker, 2007) since CSR initiatives are likely to evoke strong and positive reactions among employees, customers and other external stakeholders (Morsing and Schultz, 2006).

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2 The terms element, component, factor, dimension, and sub-construct are used interchangeably.
Therefore, this thesis seeks to explore the nature and elements of CI and explain how CI relates to CSR.

CI has been studied from different perspectives (Melewar, 2003) reflecting various academic disciplines such as strategic management, public relations, psychology, graphic design, marketing and organisational behaviour (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). With the contributions of consultants and academics from different disciplines, recently it has been more commonly agreed that CI is a multi-dimensional concept (Bick et al., 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

Although different perspectives and various academic disciplines of CI highlight the richness and complexity of identity studies (Simoes et al., 2005), they have led to diverse approaches to definitions of CI, thereby causing lack of consensus on the elements of the CI construct (Atakan and Eker, 2007). Further, there is as yet no universally accepted definition, despite the fact that several explanatory frameworks and taxonomies have been developed (e.g., Balmer, 1995; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Whilst these are of some value to researchers in developing understanding and structuring the nascent literature, they merely provide a platform for subsequent research. However, even the developed frameworks lack a clear specification of the construct domain (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003). This is considered essential given the ambiguous boundaries between CI and related constructs, such as corporate image, reputation, and corporate branding. More importantly, such frameworks are derived through theoretical metaphors, rather than through well developed empirically-based theories (Brick et al., 2003; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Cornelissen et al., 2012). This causes some ambiguity in the meaning of the concept.

This lack of clarity in the academic world is also reflected in the business world. Although CI is considered a major concern of CEOs (Fukukawa et al., 2007), many executives confessed to having little knowledge of how to manage, control or even explicitly define the concept (Melewar et al., 2005b). The lack of a clear definition of CI (Balmer and Greyser, 2003) makes research in the CI management area a formidable task (Melewar et al., 2005b) especially in relation to determining the parameters of the research concept in guiding scholarly investigations (Balmer and Greyser, 2003; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003). Hence, it is essential that CI be further explored and
defined to determine what specific elements are most salient to the concept and thus identify areas of focus (Melewar and Karaosmanohlu, 2006).

On a practical level, this ambiguity makes the operationalisation of the CI construct a challenge, and this has resulted in a paucity of empirical research and a lack of valid, reliable, and parsimonious CI scales that could empirically reveal construct dimensionality. The latter point is particularly relevant as it provides a stronger rationale for this research. Thus, an academic opportunity arises to develop a more coherent theoretical framework which specifies theories underpinning CI dimensions, which could in turn underpin a scale for CI management.

In addition, despite the significance that CI research has recently been accorded (Balmer, 2001a), such research has largely ignored the moral aspect of CI (Fukukawa et al., 2007) which is believed to be a new, as well as highly salient, field of inquiry for scholarship in CSR and business ethics (Balmer et al., 2007; Fetscherin and Usunier, 2012).

In terms of theoretical development, several scholars (e.g., Balmer et al., 2007; Balmer and Greyser, 2002; David et al., 2005) argue that there is real merit in examining CSR through the lenses of the constructs of CI since the moral aspects represent a facet of CI which reflects who the organisation is, how the organisation communicates its identity and how it is conceived by stakeholders. From a marketing and business perspective, it is also important to assess the moral aspects of CI. Without such an assessment researchers and practitioners cannot develop a consistent and integrated approach to CSR strategy and marketing. The main reason for this is that one of the conditions for a successful CSR strategy is that it should show no misalignment with the CI (Van de Ven, 2008); a corporation’s formulation of its identity should reflect how the firm wants to deal with the social and environmental aspects of its business (Arendt and Brettel, 2010; Van de Ven, 2008).

With respect to establishing and sustaining the moral aspect of CI, it is argued that a greater shift is required towards the external articulation of identity, perceived CI and image; or how the corporation is perceived by its customers and other stakeholders (Balmer et al., 2007). Hence, it is crucial to manage CI in a way that will eventually contribute toward the corporate image that the company desires to have. Thus, it is important to consider CI in a more holistic manner.
Moreover, there have been debates about what constitute the social responsibilities of business organisations (Cacioppe et al., 2008). The societal and moral issues conveyed to the organisation by its internal and external stakeholders are various and often conflicting. As a result, organisations confront difficulties when attempting to identify the range of relevant societal issues they must address, as well as the priority with which they should do so (Maon et al., 2009). Consequently, few studies have systematically evaluated organisations in relation to how ‘socially responsible’ they are considered to be (Cacioppe et al., 2008).

Collectively, these issues constitute the research problem and leads to the following research statement:

*This research seeks to develop a valid, reliable and parsimonious CI scale and to assess the construct’s relationship with CSR in UK companies.*

To focus and operationalise the research statement it was filtered into four research questions that underpin this thesis:

1. What is the meaning of CI?
2. What are the key dimensions\(^3\) of CI?
3. How is CI measured?
4. What is the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR?

### 1.4. Research Objectives

This thesis constitutes an exploratory investigation of CI and CSR that aims to address some of the research gaps noted earlier. It proposes, from a holistic viewpoint, a theoretical and empirical test of the dimensions of CI. In addition, the investigation strives to shed some light on the relationship between CI and CSR. Hence, this thesis endeavours to contribute to the CI and CSR literatures by achieving the following objectives in two phases:

\(^3\) Dimensions are the elements or aspects that go together to make up constructs/concepts (Alston and Bowles, 2003).
In the first phase:

- Provide a clear understanding of the meaning of CI.
- Determine the key dimensions of CI and their sub-dimensions and develop a comprehensive framework of the CI construct encompassing the salient aspects of CI.
- Attempt to establish a new theoretical framework through which CI can be more effectively operationalised.
- Gain insights into the nature of CSR; its meaning and elements.
- Explore the relationship between CI and CSR; how CI elements affect business commitment to CSR practices/how elements of CI interact with and contribute to CSR.

In the second phase:

- Develop a scale for the CI construct including measures for each of the key elements (and their sub-elements) of CI.
- Empirically test CI framework and taxonomy of key elements, and provide definition of CI.
- Verify CI theoretical framework.
- Determine current CSR activities in practice.
- Empirically test the relationship between CI and CSR.

1.5. Methodology

To gain some insights into CI and its links to CSR, this research draws on the literature and on primary data, using a mixed method research design.

As mentioned before and explained in detail in Chapter Four, this thesis proceeded through two research phases in order to achieve its objectives and answer the research questions. Considering the nature of the research problem, the first was an exploratory interpretive phase which sought to examine the nature and elements of CI based on practitioners’ and experts’ viewpoints and from a multidisciplinary perspective in order to ensure a broad range of inputs to the construct of CI. In this phase the thesis also sought to explore the relationship between CI and CSR.

This was based on using semi-structured interviews with twenty five senior managers responsible for CI, brand management, and CSR in fifteen leading companies operating in different industries in the UK as well as three public relations (PR) agencies.
The interviews lasted forty five minutes, on average, and were recorded. Data analysis of the exploratory phase of research was informed by content analysis and Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approaches for qualitative analysis. Furthermore, the overall approach was augmented by the use of NVivo9, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) which facilitated organising the data into patterns, categories and basic units, thus making the coding as well as the retrieval of data more efficient than doing it manually (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Based on the findings of the first phase, a theoretical framework and an empirically testable scale for the CI construct were developed, and the relationship between CI and CSR was hypothesised. The scale development procedures were primarily guided by the extant scaling literature (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Consequently, the second phase concerned validating CI framework and scale, testing hypotheses and examining relationship related to CI construct and CSR. Furthermore, the thesis sought to empirically examine CSR engagement, in practice.

This was achieved using surveys administered via postal mail to senior executives responsible for branding/marketing/communication and CSR functions in organisations operating in the UK’s food and beverage manufacturing sector.

Initial data analyses on a completed sample (n=126) involved assessing the internal consistency of the scale using item to total and scale reliability estimates in order to remove ‘garbage’ items (Churchill, 1979). Next, the sample was subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS19. Exploratory factor structure was further verified by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using Smart PLS. The scale’s psychometric properties were developed in the form of construct validity and composite reliability (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Finally, CI was conceptualised as a third order construct and estimated as part of the full structural model to investigate the influence of CI on CSR in the UK’s food and beverage manufacturing sector.

1.6. Research Contribution

Guided by the research questions and objectives, this thesis makes five main contributions to the CI and CSR literatures. These relate to defining CI and developing a solid theoretical foundation, identifying the construct’s dimensionality, validating a scale which is then applied in the context of CSR. Developing CI scale is considered this thesis’ primary contribution, while its application is considered a secondary
contribution. This approach is consistent with Churchill’s (1979) who asserts that scale development precedes application in order to establish norms. These contributions are explained below in more detail.

Beyond these five main contributions, other theoretical, managerial and methodological contributions have been made as explained in the Conclusions chapter.

1.6.1. On the Theoretical level

- This thesis contributes to knowledge concerning the meaning of CI.

Although there has been great interest in the meaning of CI (Balmer, 2001b; Balmer and Wilson, 1998), most of the studies tend to focus on theoretical perceptions of the concept (Balmer 1995; Cornelissen and Harris 2001; He and Balmer 2007a; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa 1997; Van Riel and Balmer 1997) and so far the concept is characterized by ‘diffuse interpretations’ and ‘dubious denotation’ (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003). Moreover, an agreed upon definition of CI does not exist (Balmer, 2001b; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Motion and Leitch, 2002). The failure to resolve the confusion (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002) that besets the meaning of CI might have influenced some authors to give up the search for a universal definition (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

Hence, the thesis aims to demystify and pinpoint issues that constitute the meaning of CI and provide a precise insight into practitioner conceptualisations of the concept. This is achieved through examining the experiences and perceptions of managers as well as reviewing the literature on the topic, thus, developing a better understanding of the meaning of the CI.

Moreover, the concept of CI provides the platform by which many corporate-level concepts (e.g., corporate branding, corporate communication, corporate image and corporate reputation) can be understood (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003), thus providing a clear understanding of the meaning of CI may become the basis upon which theory development in other related concepts can advance.

- This thesis contributes to CI theory and adds to existing works on the CI construct and measurement.

In academic research, CI has been associated with different levels of organisational phenomena and practices (e.g., starting from visual expressions to all expressions of the
organisation), thus developing better measures to examine its components remains of considerable importance (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003). To date, very few research studies have empirically tested the domain of CI (e.g., Simoes et al., 2005) and there is little consensus on what elements make up this construct (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). Hence, researchers and managers who regard identity formation as critical to corporate success (Melewar et al., 2005b; Suvatjis and De Chernatony, 2005) are increasingly requesting a framework for CI.

By using a holistic multidisciplinary conceptualisation of CI, the thesis expands existing views of CI and presents a comprehensive framework of key elements of CI and an underpinning theoretical framework. In addition, the thesis develops operational measures for each dimension presented in the framework. Developing a framework to be tested empirically can be of more scientific value than those based strictly on subjective and unreliable evidence (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). In addition, the framework specifies the concept of CI and can be used on a predictive basis to guide, frame and model empirical research into this area.

- The thesis contributes to CSR and stakeholder theory

By investigating the relationship between CI and CSR, the thesis affords a new important perspective on the area which is argued to be a distinct, if not important, strand of inquiry (Balmer et al., 2007; Gray and Balmer, 2001).

### 1.6.2. On the Practical level

- By more fully understanding the meaning of CI, managers can potentially gain greater insight into CI planning, strategy, management, evaluation and its many important aspects. Knowledge of the meaning of CI may enable managers to quickly understand how to manage CI better in practice (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007).

- Since CI is transmitted to company stakeholders, who can then shape certain images that form the foundations of the company’s reputation, which is crucial for developing competitive advantage, the development of a comprehensive CI model whose elements are tested empirically would be helpful for managers in that respect.

- The operationalisation of CSR practices offered in this thesis aims to provide guidance for managers interested in evaluating their organisation’s commitment to
social responsible behaviour. They highlight a number of areas where CSR efforts are being deployed (Maignan and Ferrell, 2000).

- The conceptualisation of CSR in relation to CI will enable organisations to engage more actively in CSR programmes to ensure not only that they comply with regulations but also that their CI is one which is favourable to its stakeholders and the commercial environment (Cornelius et al., 2007).

1.7. Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis consists of twelve chapters including this introduction. The remainder is structured as follows:

Chapter Two reviews a broad range of CI relevant literature. This chapter helps clarify this thesis’ interpretation of key conceptual terms such as CI, organisational identity (OI), corporate brand, image and reputation, clarify a gap in the current CI literature and provide theoretical guidance based on a multidisciplinary perspective. Reviewing the existing CI literature also helps in developing a preliminary CI definition and taxonomy. This presents parameters for exploring the domain of CI in the qualitative research phase.

Chapter Three outlines the background of CSR models. It justifies the CSR definition and theory adopted in this thesis, which represents the underpinning for the research in the area of CSR. In addition, it reviews previous literature on the relationship between CI and CSR. Together, Chapters 2 and 3 guide the first research phase.

Chapter Four is a generic methodology chapter which describes the mixed method research design adopted in this thesis. It provides the rationale for adopting an exploratory qualitative and quantitative sequential research design. In addition, it entails choices regarding research philosophy, approaches, strategies and time horizon. Decisions about the tactics (methods used to collect the data and data analysis techniques) used in the first and second phases of the research are discussed separately in Chapters 5 and 8, respectively. Each will be presented with the reasons for adopting a particular approach.

Chapter Five discusses the methods used to collect the data in addition to the data analysis techniques used in the first phase of the research.
Chapter Six is divided into two sections; the first section presents the data analysis and findings of the first exploratory phase of the research, while the second section discusses the outcomes of the analysis in relation to the literature, and accordingly, modifying the CI definition, depicts key elements of the CI construct and adjusts the CI taxonomy, presents CSR dimensionality, and considers the relationship between CI and CSR.

Chapter Seven, based on the exploratory findings and literature review, develops the theoretical framework for the second (quantitative) phase of the research and sets out the hypotheses for empirical testing.

Chapter Eight discusses the design of the research instrument employed to gather data for the second phase of the research which facilitated testing of the revised CI taxonomy. In addition, the chapter outlines the data analysis techniques and the statistical packages that were used in this phase.

Chapters 9 and 10 present the analysis and the findings of the survey. Different statistical techniques are employed to reveal CI dimensions and assess the psychometric properties of the scale. The measurement model is then applied in the context of CSR to assess the influence of CI on CSR. Particularly, Chapter Nine reports respondents’ characteristics and the procedures for exploratory factor analysis. Chapter ten presents the validation of the constructs and hypothesis testing using smart PLS (Partial Least Squares) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Chapter Eleven discusses the outcomes of the analysis and the relationships tested in Chapter Nine, connecting the data analysis (Chapter Nine), literature (Chapters 2 and 3), the outcomes of the first phase of the research (Chapter Six) and theoretical framework (Chapter Seven). The chapter is structured around the research objectives and questions. Thus, issues of CI definition, dimensionality, measurement and relationship with CSR are addressed at this stage in the thesis.

The final chapter summarises and concludes the thesis; it describes the contributions that have been made which unfold into three areas; theoretical, empirical and managerial. It also provides the limitations of the research and suggests directions for future research. This is followed by the glossary, references and appendices.
1.8. Summary
This chapter has laid the foundations for this thesis. Firstly, a research background was presented. This outlined a remarkable empirical gap in the current CI literature, the significance of CSR and the growing importance of investigating the relationship between CI and CSR. Together these issues helped articulate the research problem, questions, and objectives, which were to explain the meaning of CI, identify its key elements, develop a scale for CI construct and explore the relationship between CI and CSR via two phases (semi-structured interviews and questionnaires) of research design, were then stated. The chapter has also highlighted the structure of the thesis and the main purpose of each chapter. With these foundations laid, the literature can now be reviewed in order to outline the existing work in the conceptualisation of CI and establish the scope of the CI construct.
CHAPTER TWO: CORPORATE IDENTITY  
LITERATURE REVIEW

Table 2.1: The Research Stages

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| **Chapter 4: Research Methodology**  
Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy |  |  |  |
2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews several key streams in CI literature in order to establish the domain of CI, and hence clarify the meaning of key conceptual terms, highlight the gap in the literature and develop theoretical guidelines and support to the CI construct.

This chapter is structured as follows. Firstly, the chapter opens by defining the concept of CI, charting the evolution from partial views (e.g., visual design) into a multidisciplinary approach (e.g., visual design, organisational behaviour, marketing and communication). It also provides the rationale for adopting Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006) definition of CI in this thesis. Next, the domain of CI is specified in order to differentiate between CI and other related but distinct concepts: corporate brand, organisational identity (OI), corporate image and reputation. This is followed by a review of various theoretical perspectives on CI and demonstration of the contributions and limitations of such perspectives. This discussion is used as a foundation for developing a theoretical framework to better understand CI. It also grounds the argument on CI as a multi-dimensional construct and indicates the holistic nature of the concept. Subsequently, this chapter presents and critically analyses key models of CI, in order to present a systematic perspective on the topic and highlight areas for further improvement. The penultimate section of the chapter provides a comprehensive representation of the CI mix which identifies the type of elements that are relevant to this thesis. Finally, a summary of key points covered in the chapter are reiterated highlighting the importance of the CI literature in establishing the theoretical underpinning for the theoretical framework developed in Chapter Seven.

2.2. Defining CI

CI has received significant attention from practitioners and academics who provided various definitions of CI during the past 30 years, resulting in divergent views as to its meaning (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) as Table 2.2 shows. This might be due to the multidisciplinary nature of the literature (Balmer, 1998; Melewar et al., 2005b) and the various meanings associated with the concept for different audiences (Melewar et al., 2005b).

Research originally focused on definitions that considered visual cues indicating corporate visual identity (CVI) (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). For example, Carter
(1982:5) defined CI as “the logo or brand image of a company and all other visual manifestations of the identity of a company”, whilst Abratt (1989:414) defined the concept as “an assembly of visual cues - physical and behavioural by which an audience could recognise the company and distinguish it from others”. Furthermore, Dowling (1994:40) regarded CI as “the symbols an organisation uses to identify itself to people”.

However, this design-based view was criticised by Balmer (1998) who argued that CI did not only involve corporate visual external appearance, as the meaning of CI had been extended to incorporate the internal attributes and features that give the organisation coherence. Thus, the literature has evolved, with studies exploring CI concept from different perspectives. For example, Van Rekom (1997:411) referred to CI in relation to external audiences and regards this as central to the communication process in an organisation. He defined CI as “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”. Also, from a communication perspective, Olins (1991:34) defined CI as “everything that the corporation does, in every way it communicates”.

Further, though from a more behavioural perspective, Van Riel (1997:290) adroitly defined CI as “the self-presentation of an organisation, rooted in the behaviour of individual organisational members, expressing the organisation’s ‘sameness’ over time’ or continuity, ‘distinctiveness’ and ‘centrality’’. Also from an organisational behaviour perspective, Hatch and Schultz (1997:357) acknowledged the organisational culture within which local meaning and organisational symbols are embedded. They referred to OI as “what [organisational] members perceive, feel and think about their organisations. It is assumed to be a collective, commonly-shared understanding of the organisation's distinctive values and characteristics”.

By considering visual, communication and behaviour perspectives, CI in turn developed as a multidisciplinary concept with various dimensions (Melewar et al., 2005b), signposting the emergence of the CI mix which started to take root as a means of expressing the company’s identity to internal and external groups (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). For example, Van Riel acknowledged the role of communication as well as behaviour and symbolism as means by which different audiences recognise the organisation. His definition (1997:290) was:
“the self-presentation of an organisation; consisting of the cues which an organisation offers about itself via the behaviour, communication, and symbolism which are its forms of expression”.

Cornelissen and Elving (2003) broadened CI to include symbolic (e.g., logos) and representative kinds of behaviour (e.g., behaviour of sales personnel, store staff, receptionists) together with controlled communication (e.g., advertising and public relations). In line with the above, Melewar (2003) demonstrated that CI involved a corporate visual and verbal communication as well as market positioning and differentiation at products and company levels. Hence, it is strongly linked to the way of doing business and strategies employed. In support, Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006:864) defined CI as:

“... the presentation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and ... incorporates the organisation’s communication, design, culture, behaviour, structure, industry identity, and strategy. It is ... intrinsically related to both personality and image”.

Accordingly, CI has been acknowledged as a broad, multidisciplinary concept that incorporates different elements (Melewar et al., 2005b). It is considered the total elements that outline and represent ‘what the organisation is’, ‘what it stands for’, ‘what it does’, ‘how it does it’ and ‘where it is going’ (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006), yet introducing an interrogative-based line of thinking by Melewar and other scholars (e.g., Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar et al., 2005b). Also, Baker and Balmer (1997:368) refer to CI as “what an organisation is”.

Likewise, whilst assuming a semiological perspective, Otubanjo and Melewar (2007:428) introduced a number of questions to explain CI concerning “what the firm does, how the firm is different, where the firm is going and how the firm carries out its business”. Nevertheless, this position seems to veil the debate and complexity associated with the concept of CI.
Table 2.2: The Meaning and Elements of CI - A Chronology of Key Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Key Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carter (1982)</td>
<td>The logo or brand image of a company and all other visual manifestations of the identity of a company</td>
<td>All visual expressions including logo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abratt (1989)</td>
<td>Assembly of visual cues physical and behavioural by which an audience could recognise the company and distinguish from others</td>
<td>Visual expressions; behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olins (1991)</td>
<td>Everything that the corporation does, in every way it communicates</td>
<td>All sorts of communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dowling (1994)</td>
<td>The symbols an organisation uses to identify itself to people</td>
<td>Organisation symbols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schmidt (1995)</td>
<td>The degree to which the firm has achieved a distinct and coherent image in its aesthetic output.</td>
<td>Corporate culture, corporate behaviour, market conditions, strategy, products and services, communication and design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schmidt et al. (1995)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moingeon and Ramanantsoa (1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate personality, culture, internal organisational image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marwick and Fill (1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Visual identity; communications; behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Rekom (1997)</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>Visual; communications; behaviour; goals; values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gray and Balmer (1998)</td>
<td>The reality and uniqueness of the organisation</td>
<td>Company strategy (company product/market scope, overall objectives, policies); philosophy (values and beliefs); culture (shared values, beliefs organisation members hold common); organisational design (degree of centralization, size of staff, design of jobs, number of hierarchical levels)</td>
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</table>

Developed by the Researcher
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Key Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balmer and Soenen (1997; 1999)</td>
<td>It encompasses 3 core dimensions: the mind, the soul and the voice. The mind is the product of conscious decisions. The soul results from subjective elements such as the firm’s distinct corporate values and the sub-culture present in the firm. The voice presents all the ways the firm communicates.</td>
<td>Mind (managerial vision, corporate philosophy, strategy, performance, brand architecture, nature of corporate ownership, organisational history); soul (distinct values, mix of sub-cultures, employee affinities, internal images); voice (uncontrolled communication, controllable communication, symbolism, employee and corporate behaviour, indirect (external/third party) communication)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuart (1999)</td>
<td>The deliberate presentation of the corporate personality as strategically decided on by the company</td>
<td>Symbolism (Visual Identity); communication; behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatch and Schultz (2000)</td>
<td>Central or distinctive ideas of the organisation and how this idea is represented and communicated to a variety of audiences</td>
<td>Company strategy; philosophy; organisational design; culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melewar and Jenkins (2002)</td>
<td>What the organisation is; what it stands for; what it does; how it does it; where it is going</td>
<td>Communication and visual identity (management communication, marketing communication, and organisational communication, uncontrollable communication, architecture and location, and corporate visual identity and its application); behaviour (corporate behaviour, management behaviour and employee behaviour; corporate culture (goals, philosophy and principles, nationality, organisational imaginary and history; market conditions (nature of industry and corporate/marketing strategy).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornelissen and Elving (2003)</td>
<td>The strategic development of a distinct and coherent image of an organisation that is consistently communicated to stakeholders through symbolism, planned communications and behaviour (CI management)</td>
<td>symbolism (logos, house style); representational forms of behaviour (behaviour of store employees, sales representatives, receptionists); planned forms of publicity and advertising communications.; thematic and visual consistency across messages carried by these media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melewar (2003)</td>
<td>the set of meanings by which a company allows itself to be known and through which it allows people to describe, remember and relate to it</td>
<td>company’s verbal and visual presentation; marketplace positioning and competitive differentiation at the corporate business unit and product levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006)</td>
<td>The presentation of an organisation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and it incorporates the organisation’s communication, design, culture, behaviour, structure, industry identity and strategy. It is thus intrinsically related to both the corporate personality and image</td>
<td>Communication (marketing, management, organisational); design (slogan, architecture, location, office layout, website); Culture (mission, vision, values); behaviour (company, management, employee); structure (brand, organisational); industry identity; strategy (positioning, differentiation).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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In a “more generic but all-encompassing definition of CI” (Balmer et al., 2007:8), Gray and Balmer (1998:696) describe CI as “the reality and uniqueness of the organisation”. In a similar vein, Hatch and Schultz (2000:13) consider CI as the “central or distinctive ideas of the organisation and how this idea is represented and communicated to a variety of audiences”. Thus, a range of CI definitions with various conceptualisations have been advanced in the literature with the aim to establish a better understanding of the CI concept.

This thesis adopts Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006:864) definition of CI. The rationale for selecting this definition are several reasons. First, this definition acknowledges CI as a broad, multidisciplinary concept as argued by CI scholars (e.g., Balmer, 2008, 2012; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Cornelissen et al., 2012; Hatch and Schulz, 1997; 2010; Van Riel, 2008; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Second, the definition is underpinned by one of the most comprehensive frameworks of CI, Melewar (2003) Framework, which is based on various classification schemes (e.g., Balmer and Soenen, 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Stuart, 1999). Thus, the definition incorporates different elements of CI (internal and external) which explain and reflect what the organisation is and what it stands for, yet provides a holistic view of understanding CI. Third, Melewar’s research (e.g., Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Saunders, 2002) offers a full meaning of CI, by clearly specifying the construct domain, which is considered essential given ambivalent boundaries between CI and related constructs, such as corporate image, reputation, and corporate branding (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Cornelissen et al., 2012). This is considered a distinguishing feature of Melewar’s work, which does not follow a metaphorical view of CI (e.g., Balmer, 1995; 2012; Balmer and Soenen, 1997; 1999). Importantly, this facilitates testing CI empirically and building theories to explain it.

Thus, this thesis initially (subject to exploration) defines CI as:

... the presentation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and incorporates the organisation’s communication, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, and structure. It is intrinsically related to corporate image.
Accordingly, influenced by the work of several CI scholars (Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997), this thesis regards CI as a managerial, not consumer construct.

From the previous discussion, several points are concluded. CI appears to be concerned with outlining what the organisation stands for, understanding the organisation’s central or distinctive characteristics, communicating internal organisational attributes to various audiences (Alvesson, 1990; He and Balmer, 2007b; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997), while stressing the construct’s strategic nature. However, reaching a consensus about the meaning, dimensions, or elements of CI is challenging (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006), in turn hampering theoretical progress and empirical research (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003). This reflects the wide dispersion of work in the field (Balmer, 1998), and is indicative of its holistic nature, as explained in the following sections.

2.3. Specifying the Domain of CI (CI and Related Concepts)

CI is often terminologically and operationally juxtaposed with other related concepts, for instance corporate image and reputation, corporate brand and OI. This section outlines the relationship of these concepts to CI.

In early marketing research, the term CI was used interchangeably with image (Simoes et al., 2005). However, as the literature evolved and efforts were made to distinguish these terms, three interrelated concepts emerged: CI, image and reputation. CI is ‘what the organisation is’, e.g., its intrinsic character. This is based on “the metaphor that an organisation is an actual organism similar to a real life person” (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003:115). In support, scholars such as Larcon and Reitter (1979) assert that CI demotes a number of ‘traits’ or internal attributes (e.g., culture, strategy, core competencies) that provide the organisation its distinctiveness stability and consistency albeit transmitted through formal and informal communication channels and visual expressions which enables stakeholders to recognise the organisation and differentiate it from competitors. CI takes an internal/corporate perspective in that it represents what is provided by a company, while image has an external perspective since it refers to the way in which the public perceive an organisation (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Image can thus be considered as
‘perceived identity’; “the net result of the interactions of all the experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings and knowledge that people have about a company” (Bevis in Bernstein, 1984:25). Reputation is perceived as the total image created as stakeholders obtain more information over time about the company (Ind, 1997) and is deemed to be more enduring. According to Abratt and Kleyn (2012:1058) and Gotsi and Wilson (2001:29) “a corporate reputation is a stakeholder’s overall evaluation of a company over time, which is based on the stakeholder’s direct experiences with the company, any form of communication and symbolism that provides information about the firm’s actions and/or a comparison with the actions of other leading rivals”.

Although some authors acknowledge the similarities between image and reputation, several distinctions are made. Hawabhay et al. (2009) note that the distinction between corporate image and reputation is based on a historical perspective, that is, the number of years that a company has maintained its survival with constantly favourable behaviour (Fombrun and Van Riel, 1997).

Semantic and operational difficulties are attached to discussion concerning the nature and role of identity and corporate branding. Aaker et al. (2004) refers to corporate brand as a brand that represents a corporation and projects its values, culture, history, strategy and employees. It helps attaining (and maintaining) a favourable corporate reputation with organisation stakeholders through managing visuals, communication and behaviour in a systematic and planned manner (Einwiller and Will, 2002). Accordingly, corporate branding has become the strategic direction for an organisation’s activities (De Chernatony, 1999). Importantly, corporate branding does not only involve the external expression of an organisation through the logo and name, etc (Ind, 1997:13); however, it emphasises the organisation’s core values (Foster et al., 2010). Core values refers to “all-embracing terms that sum up the identity of the brand as well as being the guiding principles for all internal and external brand building processes” (Urde, 2003:1017). Core values can sum up the symbolic, functional and emotional aspects of a brand and its identity. The process of developing a core value-based brand seeks to create a common theme (Urde, 2003). Recently, Urde (2009:621) defines corporate brand core values as “mindsets rooted within an organisation and the essential perceptions held by customers and
non-customer stakeholders defining the identity of a brand”. Such values impact both the external and internal sides of the brand and so have strong ‘cultural roots’ (Balmer and Gray, 2003) that makes stakeholders feel belong and attracted to the organisation. Subsequently, this influences the actions and decisions on which an organisation is founded. In this sense, corporate brand embodies and communicates the identity of the company (Hatch and Mirvis, 2010; Jones, 2010).

Underpinning corporate branding is CI. CI has been primarily used as a marketing tool, an umbrella term (Kitchen and Schultz, 2001) concerning organisations presentation to audiences in favourable ways that enhance external relations and positively influence business outcomes. Accordingly, and for a long time, the term CI has been used interchangeable with visual design, organisational symbol or brandmark (Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000). Demonstrably, though, CI is more than the graphic design. It is, rather, a set of attributes that denotes the ways in which a company operates, behaves and conducts itself in its interface with external publics (Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000). These attributes encompass visual identity, communication, behaviour, culture, values, and other elements which contribute towards building favourable organisational image and reputation. Thus, CI performs as a linkage between a company and its stakeholders (Aaker, 2004), and develops corporate uniqueness and distinctiveness (De Chernatony and Harris, 2000).

From the above, it seems that CI and corporate branding can overlap and be used interchangeably. Both are multidisciplinary concepts which involve various dimensions, e.g., culture, behaviour, communication, and visuals, which represent internal and external organisational aspects. In addition, both concepts can reflect the inner identity of an organisation to many stakeholder groups via multiple channels of communication (Balmer and Gray, 2003; Balmer and Greyser, 2002).

However, CI is claimed to be more complex (Jones, 2010) and represents the foundation of a corporate brand (Balmer, 2001a). Corporate branding achieves its objectives through successfully nurturing CI that is able to develop the foundation for a distinctive competitive advantage. Accordingly, strong CI can enable, motivate and harmonize the staff around the corporate brand and, most importantly lead to consistency in the organisation/stakeholder interactions (Leitch and Richardson,
2003). Legitimately, therefore, CI can be considered as the essence or core of corporate branding as depicted in Figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1: Relationship between CI, OI, Corporate Branding, Image and Reputation**

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Yet, there are critical differences between CI and corporate branding. For example, although the idea of identity can be applied to both, not every organisation has, intends to have, desires or even requires a corporate brand. As such, CI is an essential concept, while a corporate brand is context-dependent (Balmer, 2001b; Balmer and Gray, 2003).

Despite Blomback and Brunninge’s (2009) claim that CI has dominated the marketing literature by focusing on the means of communicating CI to external audiences, the organisational literature has addressed the concept of identity in relation to ‘organisational identity’ or (OI) (Hatch and Schultz (1997). Figure 2.1 encapsulates these conceptual domains. OI refers to “a collective shared understanding of an organisation’s distinctive values and characteristics” (Hatch and Schultz, 1997:386) highlighting how employees perceive their organisation identity (Stuart, 2002; Verbos *et al.*, 2007). In this sense, identity is addressed from an employee (internal) viewpoint through the relationship between staff and their company (Balmer, 2008; Hatch and Schultz, 1997) which leads to OI being “held in organisation members’ minds” (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991:547).

In broad terms then, OI has, traditionally, had an internal, employee focus which concentrates on how employees conceive the identity of their organisation. In contrast, CI is more overtly externally-focused (Balmer 2008; Blomback and
Brunninge, 2009). From a philosophical stand, OI researchers are concerned with exploring ‘who are we?’ relative to CI researchers who are concerned with exploring ‘what are we?’ (Balmer and Greyser, 2003).

Although it can be argued that one perspective negates the other (Stuart, 2002), it seems that an agreement is gradually emerging that both perspectives are complementary and, therefore, mutually reinforcing (Balmer, 2008). OI is considered important since organisation staff is a source of differentiation (King, 1991), who represent CI and affect external stakeholder perceptions. Also, due to increasing levels of interaction and visibility of organisational members to outsiders (Stuart, 1999; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000), external relations are becoming part of the daily duties of some organisational members (Stuart, 2002). Therefore, it is important for employees to have positive views of their organisation in order to strongly identify with it and, if needed, interface with customers as corporate brand ambassadors (Dutton et al. 1994; Stuart, 2002). Accordingly, OI is considered an integral part of CI (Balmer, 2001a). In support, Brexendorf and Kernstock (2007) assert that by understanding what and who the organisation is CI is represented as a holistic concept, encompassing organisational characteristics that allows organisation differentiation (Balmer and Gray, 2003:979), which makes the definition of OI very similar to contemporary descriptions of CI, as reflected in the conceptual development of corporate marketing theory. Recently, the marketing and organisation strands on the identity concept have progressively cross-fertilised each other (Blomback and Brunninge, 2009), resulting in a coalition of the two viewpoints (He and Balmer, 2007).

This thesis acknowledges CI as a broad, holistic, multidisciplinary concept incorporating different internal and external elements. It is considered to be the total elements that outline and present ‘what the organisation is’, ‘where it is going’, ‘what it does’ and ‘how it does it’ (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006) . This is based on the premise that CI is based on OI, which was suggested by Balmer (2001a) as the ‘ideal’ explanation of the relationship between CI and OI (Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000).

In order to develop a CI framework, it is important to consider different theoretical perspectives in the literature as discussed in the following section.
2.4. Theoretical Perspectives of CI

Studies of CI have been reported in various bodies of literature and researchers have presented a different perspectives or approaches to reach a deeper understanding about the concept. While debate over CI meaning continues, several approaches addressing the theoretical foundation of CI are cited in the literature (e.g., Balmer, 1995; Cornelissen and Harris, 2001; He and Balmer, 2005; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) which reflect the degree of dispersion of work in the field (See Table 2.3). This section discusses and critically evaluates these perspectives in detail and presents a holistic view of the dimensions of the CI construct.

2.4.1. Balmer (1995): Seven schools of thought on CI

Balmer (1995) demonstrated the meaning of CI through seven schools of thought, that is: ‘strategic’, ‘strategic-visual’, ‘behavioural’, ‘visual behavioural’, ‘corporate communication’, ‘strategic communication’ and ‘design-as-fashion’. The four visual/design schools include the ‘strategic visual’ school which concerns the strategic change that is visually determined; the ‘visual behaviour’ school which concerns corporate unique culture as a visual communication tool; the ‘strategic communication’ school which concerns corporate vision and mission (thus appears similar to the communication school) and the ‘design as fashion’ school which concerns keeping the identity visual elements trendy and updated. The ‘corporate communication’ school concerns putting the mission and vision in action, the ‘strategic’ school concerns expressing corporate central idea, philosophy and mission (Fombrun, 1996; Olins, 1989, 1995; Van Riel, 1995). Finally, the ‘behavioural’ school, which concerns creating a unique corporate culture as part of identity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Perspectives/Approaches</th>
<th>Main Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balmer’s (1995) Seven Schools Of Thought on CI</td>
<td>• Strategic Visual</td>
<td>• Strategic change through visual means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Visual Behaviour</td>
<td>• Communicate organisation’s culture visually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategic communications</td>
<td>• Communicate organisations mission and philosophy visually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Design Fashion</td>
<td>• Keep visual cues modern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Corporate communications</td>
<td>• Enact mission/philosophy through formal corporate communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategic</td>
<td>• Focus on corporate mission and philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Behavioural</td>
<td>• Nurture distinctive culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Riel and Balmer’s (1997) Three Perspectives on the Meaning of CI</td>
<td>• Graphic design</td>
<td>• Logos, nomenclature, typeface, identity structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Integrated communications</td>
<td>• Consistency in formal brand communication and execution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Interdisciplinary</td>
<td>• Marshalling CI mix: behaviour, communication, and symbolism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moingeon and Ramanantsoa’s (1997) French School of Thought</td>
<td>• Culture</td>
<td>• Detailed description of the way an organisation works (i.e., rites, myths, and taboos)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisational image</td>
<td>• Employees’ perception of the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornelissen and Harris’s (2001) Three Metaphorical Perspectives of CI</td>
<td>• CI as an expression of corporate personality</td>
<td>• CI perceived as corporate personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• CI as organisational reality</td>
<td>• CI characterized as “factual” phenomenon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• CI as all the expressions of a company</td>
<td>• Addresses the challenges of dualistic conceptions of corporate image and reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He and Balmer’s (2005) Five Perspectives of CI</td>
<td>• Visual identity</td>
<td>• Focus on visual means of organisational self-presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• CI</td>
<td>• Addressing “what the organisation is” through organisation’s distinctive attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisation’s identity</td>
<td>• Organisation’ s defining characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Collective OI</td>
<td>• Social identity of the individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• OI</td>
<td>• Individual self-definition based on organisational membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simoes et al.’s (2005) Four Theoretical Perspectives of CI</td>
<td>• Graphic design</td>
<td>• Corporate symbols that transmit the strategic and visual dimensions of CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisational studies</td>
<td>• Internal aspects emphasising meaning, emotion, and human aspects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Marketing</td>
<td>• Positioning the entire company as a brand and integrated communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Interdisciplinary</td>
<td>• Harmonizes the graphic design, organisational studies, and marketing perspectives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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2.4.2. Van Riel and Balmer (1997): Three Perspectives on the meaning of CI

Van Riel and Balmer (1997) presented three disciplinary paradigms, that is, ‘graphic design’, ‘integrated corporate communication’ and ‘interdisciplinary’ to demonstrate the meaning of CI.
First, the ‘graphic design’ paradigm, is concerned with corporate logo, name, trademarks, etc (Carter, 1982, Bernstein, 1986, Ind, 1990, Olins, 1989) and identity brand structures (monolithic, endorsed, branded) (Olins, 1979). The ‘integrated communication’ paradigm focuses on consistency and implementation of planned communication (Bernstein, 1986) while the ‘interdisciplinary’ paradigm focuses on marshalling the CI mix (Van Riel, 1995), through symbolism, communication and behavior to different organisational audiences. Symbolism is associated with visual expressions that denote what a corporation represents; communication is associated with visual and verbal communications; while behaviour is associated with corporate and employees’ actions (Van Riel, 1995).

2.4.3. Moingeon and Ramanantsoa (1997): French school of thought

Moingeon and Ramanantsoa’s (1997) French school integrates standpoints which refer to the identity concept as organisation culture (Allaire and Firsnirotu, 1984) and personality (Olins, 1978). Personality is “a key element which gives a business identity its distinctiveness and relates to the attitudes and beliefs of those within the organisation” (Balmer, 2001:256). This school of thought also views CI as organisation’s image (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). Quoting Larcon and Reitter (1979), Moingeon and Ramanantsoa (1997:385) asserted that this school considers CI as “a set of interdependent characteristics of the organisation that give it specificity, stability and coherence” hence identifying and differentiating it – and this advocates the importance of moving past the explanatory level of CI in order to allow a comprehensive examination of CI which results in advancing organisation culture (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997).

2.4.4. Cornelissen and Harris (2001): Three Metaphorical Perspectives of CI

Cornelissen and Harris (2001) split views of identity into three metaphorical perspectives: CI as ‘expression of corporate personality,’ which highlights those who perceive CI mainly in that way (Olins, 1978; Topalian, 1984); CI as ‘organisational reality’, which unifies views that personify CI as real phenomenon (Balmer and Soenen, 1999), and CI as ‘all the expressions of a company,’ which concerns the problems associated with dualistic corporate image. This view is based on the idea that managers and consultant agencies are able to develop, change and restructure CI
and therefore do not essentially have to consider internal values and OI (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001:61).

2.4.5. He and Balmer (2005): Five Perspectives of CI

He and Balmer (2005) itemized five constructs of identity, that is, ‘visual identity’, ‘CI’, ‘multidisciplinary identity’, ‘collective OI’ and ‘organisational identification’. ‘Visual’ construct considers visual identity as techniques that enhance organisation differentiation. The ‘multidisciplinary’ construct view CI from various standpoints (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The ‘collective OI’ construct relates to approaches that address CI from social psychological and organisational staff perspectives (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997). The ‘organisational identification’ construct concerns the extent to which people associate/connect to a corporation (Mael and Ashforth, 1992).

2.4.6. Simoes et al. (2005): Four Theoretical Perspectives of CI

Simoes et al. (2005) identified four key theoretical perspectives of CI, namely ‘graphical design’, ‘organisational studies’, ‘marketing’, and ‘multidisciplinary.’

‘Graphical design’ pertains to corporate symbols that are used to convey the visual, strategic aspects of CI to different stakeholders (Hatch and Schultz 1997; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Thus, it encompasses all relevant parts of a corporation that may be seen or heard, such as uniforms, letterheads, business cards, buildings, advertisements, logos (Melewar and Saunders, 1998), house styles, stationery, and vehicles (Balmer 2001a). Importantly, it includes the visual identity styles, namely monolithic, endorsed and branded identities, which tend to express corporate culture and communicate corporate strategy (Olins 1978; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).

‘Organisational studies’ concerns internal facets of identity (e.g., emotion, meaning, and human aspects) (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). It is related to the OI concept (Albert and Whetten, 1985) which positions identity studies in mainstream of organisational behaviour (He and Balmer, 2007; Simoes et al., 2005). In addition, the organisational studies standpoint is underpinned by social identity theory (Gioia and Thomas, 1996), which gives great importance to employees’ identification with an organisation, top manager’s responsibility in creating image and building OI, mission, organisational climate, and common organisational beliefs and values among employees.
‘Marketing’ is concerned with how CI is transmitted to an organisation’s publics (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). It is based on collective insights from the integrated communication and branding (Simões et al., 2005), where CI is viewed as branding at the corporate level (Aaker, 1996). Hatch and Schultz (2000) asserts the strategic importance the organisation play in branding, since corporate branding enables exploiting a company’s core values as an element of its strategic selling points. In addition, stakeholders’ perceptions of CI are formed and transmitted by formal communication activities alongside informal clues (e.g., product/services, logo, buildings, employee behaviour, etc). In this respect, philosophy, values and corporate culture are considered important elements in developing CI (De Chernatony, 1999) and should be integrated into every stage of corporate strategy (Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006).

Finally, the ‘multidisciplinary’ perspective integrates the graphic design, marketing, and organisational studies perspectives. Recently, the multidisciplinary viewpoint to CI has prevailed the CI literature (e.g., Bick et al., 2003; Melewar, 2003; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The main point worth noting from this perspective is that CI represents an overarching concept that requires insights from various areas of knowledge. Furthermore, because CI is ‘eclectic’; analysing the construct from one perspective, offers partial rather than comprehensive understanding of the concept (Simões et al., 2005). Therefore, developing a theoretical framework for studying CI requires harmonising the perspectives of visual/graphic design, organisational studies, communication and integration, and marketing (He and Balmer, 2007) and integrating different disciplines. This approach is followed in this thesis as explained in Chapter Seven.

2.4.7. Theoretical Perspectives of CI – Critical Evaluation

The theoretical perspectives or taxonomies reviewed above have helped structure the CI literature; stimulated attention to the concept of CI and provided insights into the meaning of the term (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007). Despite these developments, various weaknesses prevent these models from presenting a clear demonstration of the concept of CI.

For example, some frameworks are disparate (e.g., Balmer, 1995), and various terms, which seems theoretically similar, are examined and split as if they were different.
For example, the Visual Schools of Balmer (1995) resembles the Van Riel and Balmer’s (1997) Graphic Paradigm, which also can be represented by the Interdisciplinary School via symbolism. In addition, Balmer’s (1995) Communication School resembles the Integrated Communication Paradigm (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) which itself is represented by the Interdisciplinary School via communication (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Further, Balmer’s (1995) Strategic and Behavioural Schools are embodied in the Interdisciplinary School via behaviour. Accordingly, this discussion advocates considering the Interdisciplinary School as an umbrella, which represents all these respective schools. This is in line with Otubanjo and Melewar (2007) who outline that the work of scholars (e.g., He and Balmer, 2007; Cornelissen and Harris, 2001; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997) could be refined to the three elements of CI mix, constituting the interdisciplinary school (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). This is due to the superficial similarity and interrelation of these perspectives and schools of thought (2007:420).

Thus, these frameworks could be regarded as overlapping, blurring CI boundaries. In essence, this complicates understanding and meaning, causing ambiguity for scholars. Practically, this ambiguity makes any operationalisation of the CI construct a challenge, which results in a noted lack of valid, reliable, and parsimonious CI scale that could empirically reveal construct dimensionality.

Driven by mere theoretical metaphors, rather than well developed empirically based theories (Brick et al., 2003; Cornelissen et al., 2012; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003), research in CI is becoming problematic; hence, a solid theoretical foundation is needed to inform subsequent theorising and academic research.

However, the similarity of these paradigms, schools of thought and perspectives strengthens the argument that CI can best be understood from the interdisciplinary perspective (Otubanjo and Melewar, 2007). As such, this perspective is used as a foundation for developing the CI theoretical framework to better understand CI. Therefore, insights from visual design, marketing and organisational studies are taken into account when establishing the scope of CI, although this thesis takes a predominantly marketing approach.
Having broadly established the breadth across which CI can be conceptualised, the following section discusses the central theme of the thesis; the CI construct. This is done by reviewing key CI models as cited in the literature, critically analysing them and their limitations, from an interdisciplinary perspective.

2.5. CI Models

This section presents and evaluates CI relevant models in order to outline CI dimensions, which could be further investigated through exploratory empirical studies, and highlight why Melewar’s (2003) CI framework is employed as a guideline for CI in this thesis.

The literature reveals numerous models and frameworks focusing on CI developing and managing (e.g., Alessandri, 2001; Balmer and Soenen, 1997; Dowling, 1986; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Stuart, 1998, 1999). Other models concern corporate image (e.g., Kennedy, 1977; Abratt, 1989) which overlaps with CI, and accordingly they are not discussed below.

2.5.1. Dowling (1986) Model

Dowling’s conceptual model principally focused on corporate image formation. At the heart of this process is a corporate vision which influences organisational strategy and culture, the latter being regarded as the glue that keeps the organisation coherent.

Dowling’s model provides great attention to communication which includes internal, interpersonal and marketing media communication. Further, it assumes that discrepancies between employees’ and external groups’ image of the company requires modifying the marketing media communication.

Dowling’s model is acknowledged as significant by several authors. For example, Stuart (1999) considers it a step forward in including corporate culture as an element of corporate image construction. Furthermore, Balmer (2001a) described Dowling’s work as of ‘inestimable value’ since it helped maintain ‘corporate identity’ an important area for investigation. However, Dowling’s model has been criticized for a number of weaknesses.
For example, Hatch and Schultz (1997) and Balmer and Wilson (1998) challenged Dowling’s conceptualisation of culture as they regarded it as a context, rather than a variable in the process of image creation. Second, Hatch and Schultz (1997) found Dowling’s model to be tentative as it did not contain senior managers, as they held that top management influences employee and other publics as much as any other device. Third, Stuart (1999) did not support a number of the main suppositions included in Dowling’s model, mainly in regards to the way to manage inconsistencies between image and identity. In this respect, Van Riel (1995:19) approached this issue more deeply by deriving corporate communication policies from within the “corporate strategy-corporate identity-corporate image triangle”. Finally, and surprisingly, Dowling makes no reference to CI (Balmer, 2001a).


Stuart’s model was initially developed in 1994 and modified in 1998. This model maintains the interface between CI and corporate image. It assumes that CI is the planned projection of corporate personality as determined by a corporation. In addition, CI includes corporate culture and symbols as components. Moreover, the model acknowledges employees’ view of CI as an important part in its management.

Stuart’s (1998) model was criticised by Ind (1997) since it disregarded products and services, which supports the communication of CI. In addition, no consideration was given to corporate branding (Balmer 2001b) as well as corporate reputation. Further, Stuart highlighted that the discussion about communication in her (1998) model was limited to personal and marketing communication, although all forms of corporate communications (management, marketing and organisational) were incorporated in Marwick and Fill’s (1997) model.

Accordingly, Stuart (1999), considering all these limitations and the important characteristics of earlier models, offered a revised model that defined the process of managing CI. The model assumed corporate personality and strategy as antecedents of CI, which in turn impacts corporate image, reputation and financial performance. In respect to CI, it consisted of a mix of elements constituting employee and management behaviour; symbolism; and marketing, management and interpersonal communication. Additionally, it considered organisational culture as context.
rather than as a variable, while recognising the impact of the environment on all parts of the model.

Suvatjis and De Chernatony (2005) note that Stuart’s (1998 and 1999) modification of her model illustrate the difficulties in developing an ultimate model. They also criticized Stuart’s (1999) model as it does not explain potential interrelations and is not easy to measure.

2.5.3. Marwick and Fill (1997) Model

Marwick and Fill (1997:400) developed a model of CI management which considered corporate strategy, or strategic management, as key components of CI management. Another feature of this model was that corporate communications comprised of management, organisational and marketing communication, following Van Riel’s (1995) interpretation. Further, similar to Stuart (1999), the model included external (environmental) forces as significant in the perception of CI. Further, the model included the concept of corporate reputation. Notably, Markwick and Fill's (1997) model was critiqued by Balmer (2001b) as not giving enough consideration to company profile and corporate branding.

2.5.4. Balmer and Soenen (1997; 1999) Models

In departure from previous classifications of behaviour, communication, and symbols, Balmer and Soenen (1997) proposed that CI mix is composed of ‘mind’, ‘soul’, and ‘voice,’ respectively reflecting managerial, subjective and total corporate communications aspects of CI (See Figure 2.2).

Melewar and Jenkins (2002) acknowledged a significant contribution of Balmer and Soenen’s (1997) CI mix, which re-classified symbols with communication. However, some weaknesses were observable. Although, Balmer and Soenen’s (1997) classification of CI adopts a broader meaning by referring to verbal, non-verbal, explicit and implicit elements of communication, however, their categorization presented a loose construct of CI since each element subjectively encompasses different sub-elements. Thus, ‘Mind’, ‘Soul’ and ‘Voice’ can be interpreted differently, and may not be dependent on actual communication and behaviour.
Further, Alessandri (2001:176) criticized Balmer’s research for looking at CI from just the ‘big picture’ and not clearly defining the concepts presented in the study. For example, while providing three distinctive aspects of CI (e.g., it is multidisciplinary, concerns reality, and related to corporate personality), Balmer does not offer a definition of either CI or corporate personality. However, he supports empirical studies examining CI and explaining the construct through developing theories (Balmer, 1997). Notably, Melewar and Saunders (2000) extend Balmer and Soenen’s mix by including the ‘body’ as an element of CI that emphasises the physical, tangible aspects of identity. They refer to items such as buildings and location of the company which they consider relevant elements of CI.

Balmer and Soenen (1999) contributed to the CI domain by presenting another model titled ‘The ACID Test of CI Management’- revealing four types of CI, namely: 1) actual identity, which refers to organisation reality through internal values and culture, behaviour and actions, markets, positioning, performance; 2) communicated identity, which refers to corporate image, reputation, and total communication;
3) ideal identity, which refers to ideal positioning; and 4) desired identity which refers to organisation founders and top management vision.

The ACID Test was renewed several times (e.g., the AC²ID, AC³ID and AC⁴ID Test) by adding facets/types to CI (Balmer 2001a; Balmer and Greyser, 2003; Balmer, 2005). Recently, Balmer (2012) adapted The AC⁴ID model to corporate branding in order to explain seven identity types forming a corporate brand constellation: ‘actual’, ‘communicated’, ‘ideal’, ‘desired’, ‘covenanted’, ‘conceived’ and ‘cultural identity’.

This was criticised by Cornelissen et al. (2012) as assuming divergent theoretical concepts and principles, which suggest an excessive simplification and inadequate theoretical grounding (Hirsch and Levin, 1999) that lacks specificity; thus, its validity is questionable. Additionally, “these seven facets of the ACID test seem to be a proliferation of different terms and labels for similar phenomena (Suddaby, 2010), which further compounds the lack of clarity in the meaning of CI” (Cornelissen et al., 2012:1096).

2.5.5. Alessandri (2001) Model

Alessandri (2001) presents a model that explains how CI operates and incorporates related concepts such as corporate mission, image and reputation. The model assumes corporate mission to be the firm’s philosophy (Leuthesser and Kohli, 1997) which is personified through corporate behaviour and visual presentation. These two complementary elements constitute CI. Further, corporate mission and CI make up the manifestation of the organisation in all situations. The firm’s manifestation of its identity is assumed to be controllable, in other words, it could be modified or changed as necessary by the organisation. Conversely, the model assumes corporate image (public perception of the firm) which is transferred into corporate reputation over time, to be uncontrollable.

Alessandri’s (2001) model has been critiqued by Suvatjis and De Chernatony (2005) for limiting the discussion on corporate structure, whilst excessively emphasising corporate communication. Moreover, it is too conceptual and hard to operationalise as a result of being relatively abstract.

Melewar (2003) developed a CI taxonomy that displays key determinants of CI. He argues that CI entails presenting the corporation as a whole and comprises several elements, referred to as sub-constructs or dimensions, each of which contains different items (See Figure 2.3).

**Figure 2.3: Melewar (2003) CI Taxonomy**

Melewar’s (2003) taxonomy was revised by Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) based on the findings of an exploratory study of the meaning and elements of CI in various industries in UK.

Thus, it is claimed that categorizing CI elements is considered to be one of the most challenging tasks in the field (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002). Notably, Melewar’s models were not subject to criticism, although other models have been.

2.5.7. CI Models – Critical Evaluation

From the previous discussion, an examination of various studies concerning CI models indicates a wide range of dimensions and different emphases. Although this reflects and assures the multi-dimensional nature of the construct, it challenges achieving a general agreement on the elements of CI (Melewar, 2003). This aspect is combined by the prevailing theoretical nature of CI models and frameworks, which tend to lack empirical validation. Consequently, this makes research in the CI area a formidable task (Melewar et al., 2005b) particularly in respect to outlining the research parameters which guide scholarly examinations (Balmer and Greyser, 2003; Cornelissen and Elving, 2003).

Additionally, the logic underpinning some frameworks, particularly the categorization of CI elements, is open to discussion. For example, Balmer and Soenen (1997) consider behaviour an element of voice, given that behaviour, in a sense, is an intangible aspect of communication. However, this categorization seems to be at odds with the general opinion that CI is a manifestation of the visual, behaviour and communication, interdisciplinary school of thought.

From the standpoint of scale development, almost all the existing models are problematic. For example, it is claimed by Cornelissen et al. (2012) that some frameworks, such as Marwick and Fill (1997), Balmer and Soenen (1997), and Balmer (2012) are too abstract to be measured. More particularly, there are no clear guidelines on how to scale some dimensions (e.g., product/service) (Balmer and Soenen, 1997) since they are so broadly considered. This confronts academics with difficulties of operationalising such models and consequently does not allow researchers to employ quantitative measures to tackle the relationship between CI
and other related constructs (e.g., corporate reputation, image, financial performance and corporate social responsibility (CSR)).

Given the wide range of CI models cited in the literature and disagreements on elements that constitute the construct, it was not appropriate for this thesis to develop a new conceptual framework that might add to the confusion surrounding CI, and not resolve it. Thus, in order to establish the CI domain, it was considered apt to draw on the conceptual thinking by indicating which researchers’ work is most credible and therefore merits empirical investigation to extend it.

Accordingly, this thesis is guided by Melewar’s (2003) original CI conceptualisation, which is based on a multidisciplinary approach that unites graphic design, psychological, public relations (PR) and marketing paradigms. Melewar’s (2003) conceptualisation was empirically informed and is considered one of the most comprehensive models in the literature because it specifies all the salient dimensions of CI based on various classification schemes (e.g., Balmer and Soenen, 1997; Stuart, 1999; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Thus, it presents clear guideline in regards of what CI is or may be.

Now that the rationale for using Melewar’s framework and definition of CI model as a guide has been explained, the following represents a comprehensive overview of the elements of CI mix investigated here in. This overview is considered important in order to integrate prior literature and justify the inclusion of each CI dimension.

**2.6. CI Construct**

Bernstein (1986) claims that each organisation has a CI, whether planned or unplanned, and to develop and manage CI, the CI mix should first be identified.

This thesis focuses on five dimensions of CI, due to their importance in manifesting CI, as explained below. These dimensions are: 1) corporate communications (controlled, uncontrolled), 2) corporate visual identity (CVI), 3) behaviour (management, employee, corporate), 4) corporate culture (values, mission statement, organisation founder, history, subcultures, country of origin (COO)), and 5) corporate structure (brand structure, organisational structure).
2.6.1. Corporate Communications

Corporate communications is a broad term that encompasses all the means (official and informal) by which an organisation communicates its identity to various customers (Melewar and Saunders, 1998). Various scholars have emphasised the relationship between corporate communications and CI (Balmer and Greyser, 2006; Cornelissen and Harris, 2001; He, 2008; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel, 1995; Varey and Lewis, 2000). Communication is considered the touchstone for presenting image and thus widely acknowledged as an important element of CI (Suvatjis and De Chernatony 2005) and in the process of creating corporate image (Balmer, 1996; Van Riel, 1995).

Corporate communications can be both controlled (communication deliberately developed by senior managers with the purpose of enhancing the relationship with stakeholders) and uncontrolled (occurs when companies, unintentionally, affect the views of its audiences) (Balmer and Gray, 1999; Battacharaya and Sen, 2003; Cornelissen, 2000; Melewar 2003; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

2.6.1.1. Controlled Communication

Controlled corporate communication is defined by Van Riel (1995:26) as:

"an instrument of management by means of which all consciously used forms of internal and external communication are harmonized as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships upon which the company is dependent".


Management communication concerns the process of communicating the organisation’s mission and vision, as determined by its management, to create a positive image and reputation among its different audiences (external and internal) (Olins, 1989). It includes environmental reports for external stakeholders as well as house journals and magazines for internal staff. Management communication is considered by many practitioners and scholars as the most significant type of communication, since top-level managers use it mainly to disseminate the
organisation objectives and goals to internal audiences (Kennedy, 1997; Kirikiadou and Millward, 2000; Melewar and Wooldridge, 2001).

Marketing communication supports the sales of an organisation’s products or services. In generally, it is associated with the 4Ps of product, price, place and promotion and is aimed at conveying the distinctive qualities of CI (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006:850). These include advertising, sponsorship, marketing public relations activities, corporate advertising, sales promotions etc (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel, 1995). In practice, marketing communication receives the highest attention and proportion of the budget (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002).

Organisational communication is described by Van Riel (1995) as “all forms of communication with stakeholders with whom an organisation has an interdependent relationship” (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006:850). Marketing and organisational communication perform as the primary linkage between corporate image and strategic management (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Traditionally, organisational communication includes marketing public relations and public affairs. However, more recently, it has been fragmented into several functional areas, e.g., human resources and finance, which had responsibility for different aspects of organisational communication such as labour and investor relations, respectively (Melewar, 2003).

### 2.6.1.2. Uncontrolled Communication

Moingeon and Ramanantsoa (1997) refer to uncontrolled communication as the communication of an organisation that is not created consciously or deliberately. Cornelissen (2000) acknowledges different forms of unplanned communication; that is, interpersonal (Word-of-Mouth (WOM) from friends, relatives, etc.), intermediary (WOM spread by mass media, governmental institutions, NGOs) and intrapersonal (psychological consequences of prior experiences retained in consumers mind) communication, which are all argued to reveal something about CI (Melewar, 2003). Balmer (1995:35) states “... everything the organisation does will in some way communicate the organisation’s identity”, which highlights the importance of unplanned communication in CI management (Stuart, 1999b).
2.6.2. Corporate Visual Identity (CVI)

Within the CI literature, CVI is used interchangeably with the ‘symbolism’ element of the CI mix (Baker and Balmer, 1997) according to the interdisciplinary school (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). However, it is important to note that the term ‘symbolism’ includes various related disciplines and topics, such as semiology (Chandler, 2007; Noth, 1995), symbolic interactionism (Schenk and Holman, 1980) and symbolic consumption (McCracken, 1990). The literature on CVI (e.g., Melewar et al., 2005a; Melewar and Saunders, 1998; 2000; Van den Bosch et al., 2006a; 2006b) will be referred to as this term is wide. In this way, this literature will assist in focusing the theoretical contribution of this thesis while presenting literature with relevance to the more physical or tangible aspects of the development of CI construct.

CVI is defined as a collection of visual expressions through which stakeholders can identify a corporation and differentiate it from others (Bernstein, 1984). It includes a variety of aspects such as corporate visual identity systems (CVIS) which comprises name, logo/symbol, slogan, colour and typography (Dowling, 1994; Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000). According to Olins (1995:2) these components “present the central idea of the organisation with impact, brevity and immediacy”. Additionally, CVI includes other applications, e.g., staff apparel (Dowling, 1994; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Kennedy, 1977; Van Riel, 1995), corporate aesthetics including printed material (e.g., stationery, promotional literature, etc.) and exterior and interior design of company buildings (e.g., headquarters, plants, retail stores, offices, etc.) (Schmitt et al., 1995; Topalian, 1984).

Visual identity is recognised as one of the key dimensions of CI (Marwick and Fill, 1997; Melwar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Melewar and Saunders, 1999, 2000; Olins, 1991; Simoes et al., 2005; Stuart, 1999b). It is argued to have fundamental roles (Karaosmanoglu and Melewar, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005), e.g., it manifests corporate values and philosophy, underpins corporate communications (Baker and Balmer, 1997), indicates corporate culture (Simoes et al., 2005), increases organisational visibility and helps communicate corporate strategy (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997).
2.6.3. Behaviour

Behaviour denotes acting in a specific way (Melewar, 2003). It is associated with three elements, e.g., management (Van Riel, 1995; Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b); employee (Dowling, 1986; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000; Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b), and corporate behaviour (Balmer, 1997; Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b).

Senior managers behaviour concerns the attitude or the way high-level managers operate which is argued to affect CI (Cornelissen and Elving, 2003; Ashman and Winstanley, 2007). Through communication and behaviour, senior management can convey the organisation’s core idea to different stakeholders (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Hatch and Schultz (1997) demonstrate that top management behaviour influences OI and image, given the high contact between a company and its audiences, who play different roles. This is distinguished from employee behaviour which concerns the attitude or way of acting of organisational staff in every day operation (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). It is related to the process through which staff identifies with their organisation (Dutton et al., 1994). Balmer and Wilson (1998:15) acknowledge that a “CI refers to an organisation’s unique characteristics which are rooted in the behaviour of employees”.

Finally, corporate behaviour is considered a fundamental element of CI (Goodman, 2001, Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000). It refers to the sum total of actions both that are premeditated and fitting with corporate culture as well as the unplanned which occur spontaneously (Melewar, 2003). Corporate behaviour results from corporate attitudes and relates to senior management job of initiating clear communication of corporate vision and strategy (Melewar et al., 2005b). Thus it is argued to influence CI (Schmidt, 1995, Melewar, 2003).

2.6.4. Corporate Culture

Corporate culture is considered a key element in the development of CI (Balmer, 1998; Balmer and Wilson, 1998; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Bendixen and Abratt, 2007), and a reflection of the organisation’s core values, behaviour, and beliefs (Albert and Whetten, 1985).
There are two different opinions regarding the relationship between corporate culture and CI (Bendixen and Abratt, 2007, Melewar, 2003). The first view reflects the marketing perspective that treats culture as a variable which is argued to fulfil a function in the organisation. The second view reflects the organisational behaviourist perspective which argues that culture is a symbol/metaphor that shapes the meaning of the organisation (Schultz, 1994).

**Table 2.4: Elements of Corporate Culture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Philosophy</td>
<td>Balmer (1995) defined corporate philosophy as the business mission and values espoused by the management board or the founder. Corporate philosophy embodies the core values and assumptions of a company that constitute the corporate culture (Abratt and Shee, 1989).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Values</td>
<td>Riel and Balmer (1997) defined corporate values as dominant systems of beliefs and moral principles within an organisation that comprise everyday language, ideologies and rituals of personnel and form the CI. The values held by a company play a significant role in the formation of its CI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Mission</td>
<td>Corporate Mission is defined as the reason for which a company exists (De Witt and Meyer, 1998). Abratt (1989) regarded corporate mission as the most important part of the corporate philosophy. He described it as the company purpose, ideally setting it apart from all other companies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Principles</td>
<td>Corporate principles define the mission, targets and values of a company and form the basis of and standards for all corporate actions (Schmidt, 1995). Fritz et al. (1999) stated that the statements of corporate principles become the basis for right and wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Guidelines</td>
<td>Corporate guidelines contain actualization and interpretation of the corporate principles for individual areas of business activity and functions. The guidelines explain the relevance of the corporate principles to the actions and behaviour of all employees, departments and functions (Schmidt, 1995).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate History</td>
<td>Identity is the product of the history of the organisation (Rowlinson and Procter, 1999). Balkaran (1995) presented the influence of a company’s history on its identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founder of the Company</td>
<td>Olins (1978) stated that an organisation’s identity tends to be inseparable from that of an organisation’s founder. Also, Deal and Kennedy (1982) referred to the link between corporate success, corporate culture and the founder of the company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country of Origin (COO)</td>
<td>The country of origin imagery is defined as “the picture, the reputation, and the stereotype that consumers attach to products of a specific country” (Piron, 2000:30). When national focus conveys benefits, companies promote their national identities as part of their corporate identities, e.g. ‘Advanced Engineering from Germany’, ‘Made in Japan’, etc (Varey, 1999).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subcultures</td>
<td>Balmer (1995) argued that an organisation is a composite of multiple cultures. These specific groups or subcultures were found to be related to different jobs and different levels of organisational status, gender and class. Balmer and Wilson (1998) concluded from the results of their case studies that what is unique about a given organisation’s culture is the particular.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Developed by the Researcher.

Corporate culture is argued to encompass several elements, for instance corporate philosophy, values, mission, principles, guidelines, history, founder of the company,
country of origin (COO) and subculture (Ambler and Barrow, 1996; Balmer, 1998; Balmer and Soenen, 1999; Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Schmidt, 1995) (See Table 2.4).

This thesis focuses on all these elements except corporate philosophy, principles, and guidelines; this is because corporate philosophy is reflected in corporate values and mission where the latter encapsulates corporate principles and guidelines. It is anticipated that this will make the thesis more focused and feasible.

2.6.5. Corporate Structure

Corporate structure is argued to be relevant to CI (Melewar and Saunders, 1998; Olins, 1989, 1995). It consists of branding and organisational structure (Ind, 1992).

2.6.5.1. Brand Structure

Organisations apply branding strategies as a means of differentiation from competitors. Strong brands are considered essential in developing identity in the market, reinforcing customer loyalty and offsetting the increasing power of retailers (Douglas et al., 2001).

Olins (1989) demonstrates three approaches to CI (brand) structure. First, is the monolithic structure, in which the organisation uses the same name and visual style and as a result, the CI of the company is the brand to the consumer (e.g., IBM and British Airways). Second, is the endorsed structure, where the CI of the parent company is associated with the name of the subsidiaries. Finally, is the branded structure, in which products are distinguished by different brand names (e.g., Procter & Gamble and Unilever) (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006:859). The company’s choice of its brand structure is related to the organisational structure which in turn influences CI (Laforet and Saunders, 1999, 2005), as explained below.

2.6.5.2. Organisational Structure

Organisational structure is related to organisation hierarchies, reporting and communication lines (Melewar and Saunders, 1998). Central to organisation structure is the level of centralisation versus decentralisation (Cornelissen and Harris, 2001), in regards to location and across products Laforet and Saunders (1999) outline that the relation between organisational structure and brand structure explaining that
a corporate dominant structure results in monolithic brand structure, which could be adopted by centralised organisations given the possibility for standardisation. Thus, with a centralised corporate structure, both the parent company and subsidiaries are likely to have similar CI, since key functions are controlled at the centre and limited autonomy is given to subsidiaries. In contrast, a high level of decentralisation allows subsidiaries to create different identities. This is argued to provide managers with more autonomy to implement ideas where brand-dominant structures are more likely to develop.

From the above discussion, Figure 2.4 presents an initial CI framework and taxonomy (comprises five dimensions) which are subject to further investigation.

**Figure 2.4: Initial CI Framework and Taxonomy of Elements**

Source: Adapted from Melewar (2003).
2.7. Summary

This review of the CI literature clarified key conceptual terms and identified major research problems. The chapter reviewed different definitions of CI revealing the challenge of reaching a consensus about the meaning, elements, and dimensions of CI, which in turn hampers theoretical progress and empirical research. However, such a review identifies several features of the concept, for instance, CI mainly concerns organisation reality, ‘what an organisation is,’ for instance, its philosophy, history, scope of operations, the range and kind of products and services offered and its planned and unplanned communication (Balmer, 1995; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Moreover, CI is founded on organisation values (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Finally, CI is multidisciplinary and draws on different literatures, e.g., graphic design, marketing, communication and public relations, and organisational behaviour (Balmer, 1995).

The relationship between CI, corporate brand, OI, corporate image and reputation was then outlined to specify the domain of CI and clarify how these constructs are distinct but related.

Next, a detailed demonstration of perspectives/approaches was presented in relation to the theoretical foundations of CI. It was noted how these perspectives strengthen the argument that CI is a function of the interdisciplinary school, which advocates that CI is grounded across various domains (e.g., visual, communication, organisational). As such, this thesis adopts an interdisciplinary approach as a foundation to better understand CI. Although the reviewed approaches have helped to structure the CI literature, they are criticised as merely theoretical metaphors which confuse understanding of the concept. Practically, this ambiguity hinders operationalisation of CI, resulting in a lack of valid, reliable, and parsimonious CI scales that could empirically reveal construct dimensionality. Thus, an academic opportunity arises to develop a more coherent theoretical framework which specifies theories underpinning CI dimensions, which could in turn underpin a scale for CI management.
CI models were then reviewed and critically evaluated which indicated an eclectic range of dimensions, with different emphases, and highlight CI’s multidimensionality. Of particular note is the absence of a common understanding and agreement of what constitutes CI, coupled with a paucity of empirical research. Also, limitations with current models were noted. Importantly, justification is presented for employing Melewar’s (2003) CI framework and definition as guidelines for exploring CI, which is the subject for further investigation in this thesis.

The final section of the chapter reviewed elements of the CI construct. Although this thesis incorporates a predominantly marketing approach, insights from visual design, marketing and organisational studies are taken into account when establishing the scope of the CI construct. Thus, informed by interdisciplinary approach and guided by Melewar’s (2003) conceptualisation, it was proposed that CI should comprise: communication (controlled, uncontrolled), CVI (CVIS, CVIS applications), behaviour (management, employee and corporate), culture (values, mission, history, founder of the company, COO and subculture), and corporate structure (brand structure and organisational structure). These dimensions are subject to further exploratory and confirmatory analyses in subsequent chapters.

From the discussion, there is a need to identify CI’s key dimensions and develop a theoretically-based framework, which could help operationalise the CI and subsequently underpin a scale for CI construct.

The next chapter focuses on the analysis of the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR), again through comprehensive literature review, in order to understand its nature and its relationship with CI. Together, this chapter and Chapter Three, form the first theoretical foundation of this thesis, which will guide the first phase of research.
CHAPTER THREE: CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY LITERATURE REVIEW

Table 3.1: The Research Stages

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3.1. Introduction

As the main objective of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between corporate identity (CI) and corporate social responsibility (CSR), this chapter presents a detailed review of relevant literature, including definitions, theories, models, categories and dimensions of CSR, and previous studies investigating the relationship between CI and CSR.

This chapter is structured as follows. The opening section presents a foundational discussion of definitions of CSR which reveals multiple conceptualisations of the concept and justifies the rationale for adopting Carroll’s (1991) definition of CSR in this thesis.

Next, the chapter reviews stakeholder theory, which provides the theoretical foundation for CSR, explains how companies engage in CSR, and is argued to be a new way of approaching CI management. This is followed by discussion of three key models of corporate social performance (CSP) (Carroll, 1979; Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Wood, 1991) which reflect the nature of CSR; its elements, principles, processes, and the managerial issues involved. The penultimate section of the chapter demonstrates the relationship between CSR and CI. Finally, a summary section reviews the main points of the chapter.

3.2. Defining CSR

During the past 70 years, CSR has become among the fastest growing and widely accepted fields of study, with significant implications for academia, industry, and society (Okoye, 2009). Nevertheless its study remains embryonic (Lindgreen et al., 2009a, b), fuzzy, and unclear (Amaeshi and Adi, 2007), with diverse interpretations and no consensus on its definition (McWilliams et al., 2006).

The literature reveals many attempts to develop robust definitions of CSR and establish better understanding of the concept (Fischer, 2004). It is argued that the initial definition of CSR was introduced by Bowen (1953:6) who referred to CSR as social responsibility (SR) (Lee, 2008), and defined it as:

“*The obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society*”.
Bowen (1953) believed that businesses had a decision making power which influences their actions and affects society as a whole. His argument was that the purpose of social responsibility is not so much to solve problems in businesses and society, but rather to act as a mechanism to assist businesses.

Following Bowen’s initial definition, in the 1960s there was a significant growth in attempts to define CSR, by Davis (1960), Frederick (1960), McGuire (1963), and Walton (1976) among others. For example, Frederick (1960:60) recognised the importance of considering society in making business decisions. He stated that:

“[Social responsibilities] mean that businessmen should oversee the operation of an economic system that fulfils the expectations of the public. And this means in turn that the economy's means of production should be employed in such a way that production and distribution should enhance total socio-economic welfare”.

Also, Davis (1960:70) viewed businessmen as having to make their social power commensurate with performance of their social responsibility. He referred to social responsibility as “businesses’ decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm's direct economic or technical interest”. Similarly, McGuire (1963:144) stated that:

“The idea of social responsibilities supposes that the corporation has not only economic and legal obligations but also certain responsibilities to society which extend beyond the obligations”.

McGuire's (1963) definition is argued to be more specific than prior definitions since he considered CSR to exceed mere economic and legal requirements (Carroll, 1999). He elaborated that businesses are required to behave fairly, as an appropriate person would which indicates the ethical responsibility of business. Davis (1967:46) agrees with McGuire and asserts that “the substance of social responsibility arises from concern for the ethical consequences of one's acts as they might affect the interests of others”.

Going beyond compliance, Walton (1976:18) proposed that “the essential ingredient of the corporation’s social responsibilities include a degree of voluntarism, as opposed to coercion”. This viewpoint implies that an organisation regarded as socially responsible is not just satisfying legal obligations, however should invest in human resources, the environment and in stakeholders relations (Vuontisjarvi, 2006).
Thus, previous definitions of CSR were not limited to making profit and obeying the law, but extended to include ethical as well as voluntary considerations as components of CSR (Carroll, 1999).

In contrast, Levitt (1958) asserted that a business responsibility to society merely concerns achieving maximum possible profit for its shareholders and he assumed that engaging in CSR raises conflicts between management and stockholders who might have different concerns. Friedman (1962, 1970), similarly, argued that CSR can impose an unfair and costly burden on stakeholders. In addition, he claimed that dealing effectively with social problems requires special skills and expertise that he believed many managers lack. Indeed, at that time, most managers opposed the idea of CSR and considered it a cost with uncertain outcomes (Lee, 2008).

Thus, early definitions of CSR were contradictory (Schwartz and Carroll, 2003) and classified into two common viewpoints: proponents of the idea that business obligations are limited to profit maximisation while complying with the law and minimum ethical constraints (e.g., Friedman 1962, 1970; Levitt, 1958); and, those who suggest a wider set of responsibilities toward society (e.g., Davis 1960; McGuire 1963).

In an attempt to link the two standpoints, Carroll (1979) offers a CSR definition of four parts, integrated in a conceptual model of Corporate Social Performance (CSP). Carroll argues that the definition of CSR should embrace the whole scope of business obligations toward society (Lee, 2008). Thus, Carroll (1979:500) defines CSR as:

“The social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time”.

As argued by Carroll (1999), these four basic expectations (economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary) present a viewpoint of business obligation that is linked to some of the previously provided CSR definitions, though it adopts a more comprehensive approach in classifying the corporate responsibilities toward society. Later, in 1991, Carroll modified his CSR definition and outlined the discretionary element as philanthropic, suggesting that it comprises ‘corporate citizenship’.
Carroll’s CSP model achieved wide agreement and was subsequently developed by scholars (e.g., Ullmann 1985; Wartick and Cochran 1985; Wood 1991). Subsequently, the CSR concept evolved into other related ideas and concepts including social responsiveness, business ethics, corporate citizenship and stakeholder theory (Carroll, 1999).

For example, Epstein (1987:104) described CSR in relation to social responsiveness and business ethics, which he considered as overlapping and closely related themes of concern. He stated that:

“CSR relates primarily to achieving outcomes from organisational decisions concerning specific issues or problems which (by some normative standard) have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders. The normative correctness of the products of corporate action has been the main focus of CSR”.

From this definition, CSR involves judgement about particular matters, claims, expectations and problems upon corporations in relation to outcomes of corporate policies and actions on internal and external stakeholders. Yet, emphasis is placed on the consequences (outcomes) of organisational behaviour (Epstein 1987:107).

In addition, building on Carroll’s (1979) work, Maignan et al. (1999:457) conceptualised another version of CSR, corporate citizenship. This indicated a change in focus from public responsibility in general, which they considered too broad to support successful CSR management, to obligation towards business stakeholders who directly or indirectly affect or are affected by the organisation’s operations, e.g., shareholders, customers, employees, suppliers, government, etc (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). Hence, they described CSR as:

“The extent to which businesses assume the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their various stakeholders”.

In support, Gray (2006) argues that the concept of CSR is a stakeholder-oriented notion that goes beyond the boundaries of the company and is determined by the understanding of moral responsibility and the impact of corporate operations, therefore, aiming to achieve, as a reward, organisational legitimacy from the public. Lindgreen et al. (2009b) agreed with this definition, demonstrating that it depends on
the notion of stakeholder and requires the incorporation of CSR into organisational strategy.

Thus, several definitions with different conceptualisations have been developed to establish an understanding of the concept of CSR, without consensus on its meaning, and corporate requirements, in societies. Thus, it is conceived to be “ill defined” (De George, 2008:76).

However, the concept of CSR is closely related to other concepts, e.g., corporate citizenship (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979), corporate social responsiveness (Epstein, 1987), corporate social performance (Swanson, 1995; Wood, 1991), stakeholder management (Jones, 1995), and business ethics. As argued by Lindgreen et al. (2009a), these concepts share a common theme; that is, organisations, in addition to generating revenue, should involve in “actions that appear to further some social good” (McWilliams et al., 2006:1).

### 3.2.1. Justifying Adopting Carroll’s (1991) Definition

Given the above discussion, this thesis adopts Carroll’s (1991) definition of CSR for several reasons, as justified below:

- Carroll’s CSR definition is embedded in a conceptual model of CSP, which reconciles the two opposing perspectives in early CSR definitions; profit maximisation versus social obligation.
- Carroll’s CSP model achieved wide agreement and was subsequently developed by others, e.g., Ullmann 1985; Wartick and Cochran 1985; Wood 1991. In addition, it is widely cited in business ethics texts (e.g., Daft, 2008; Erasmus and Visser, 2005; Maignan and Ferrell, 2000; Kitson and Campbell, 1996; Trevino and Nelson, 2010; Wang and Dou, 2012; Word Press, 2010). Carroll and Shabana (2010) note that the definition has been effectively utilised for scholarly purposes for over twenty five years and argued to be a suitable and sufficient definition to employ due to its continuing implementation in CSR studies (Lee, 2008).
- Carroll’s (1991) definition of CSR has been said to embrace the entire range of responsibilities of corporations to society (Lee, 2008). The definition breaks up legal, ethical and philanthropic types of obligation, which facilitates sharper
examination of corporate actions (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). Further, the
definition highlights the organisation’s economic responsibility as a significant aspect of CSR, and this turns out to be an essential in considering the ‘business case’ (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). Organisation management, particularly, prefer to consider their corporate profitability/economic/financial outcomes as an aspect that the organisation performs not only for itself, but also for the public, since organisation mission is to offer products and services for the public. Another notable aspect of Carroll’s definition is the emphasis given to discretionary responsibilities, which are intended to “reflect society’s desire to see businesses participate actively in the betterment of society beyond the minimum standards set by the economic, legal and ethical responsibilities” (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001:459). Maignan and Ferrell (2004) assert that society presumes that companies will fulfil their economic and legal responsibilities, anticipate they will accomplish their ethical responsibilities and attain their philanthropic responsibilities.

From the above discussion, this thesis defines CSR as “the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time” (Carroll, 1991:91). Accordingly, Figure 3.1 presents a CSR framework, which is subject to further investigation.

**Figure 3.1: CSR Framework**

Source: Adapted from Carroll (1991).
3.3. Stakeholder Theory

Various theories underpin the CSR concept, e.g., agency theory, institutional theory, the resource-based view of the firm, stakeholder theory, stewardship, legitimacy and social contract theory (Garriga and Mele, 2004; Moir, 2001). As a result, various conceptualisations of CSR exist (Pinkston and Carroll, 1996; Snider et al., 2003). However, this has impeded a full understanding of the elements constituting CSR and, thus, hindered its further theoretical development (Lindgreen et al., 2009b). Considering the various theories of CSR, this section focuses on stakeholder theory which is pertinent in the context of this thesis and helps explain the relationship between CI and CSR, as justified below.

As CSR was first regarded as “a sense of social obligation, to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of [our] society” (Bowen, 1953:6), Freeman (1984) develops his thesis that organisations should be accountable not just to stockholders, but also to various stakeholders, e.g., competitors, regulatory agencies, the media and consumer advocacy groups, in addition to customers, suppliers and employees) (Carter, 2005; Freeman, 2010). Proponents of this theory (Dawkins and Lewis, 2003; Greenwood, 2001; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004) posit that giving attention to multiple stakeholders’ interests, needs and rights in a business is an effective way to instil socially responsible behaviour among corporations. Thus, besides the main goal of maximizing shareholders’ wealth, as assumed by traditional economic theory (Friedman, 1970), firms have multiple goals (Simoes et al., 2005).

Maignan and Ferrell (2004) advocate that the idea of social responsibility is too wide to promote effective CSR. They state that “businesses are not responsible toward society as a whole but only toward those that directly or indirectly affect or are affected by the firm’s activities” (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004:4). Drawing on their work implies four major groups of stakeholders: (a) organisational (e.g., stockholders, consumers, personnel, investors and suppliers); (b) community (e.g., interest groups and neighbourhood citizens); (c) media stakeholders; and (d) regulatory bodies. Further, Buchholz (2004) has proposed another group, that is, the natural environment, which is not frequently included in stakeholder models.
Thus, there has been a change in focus from public/societal to stakeholder responsibility (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004).

In applying stakeholder theory, there are two methodological approaches (Berman et al., 1999): the first is the instrumental approach, which mainly emphasises stakeholder orientation as an approach/way of attaining a successful company (Berrone et al., 2007). This approach posits that the principles of stakeholder management may lead to favourable performance on the accomplishment of different business outcomes objectives. Furthermore this view asserts that the performance of the firm encompasses not just financial performance. A firm’s ability to manage effectively and efficiently stakeholder perceptions and expectations are key aspects of performance (Cochran and Wood, 1984). In this respect, firms with good relationships with stakeholders will eventually achieve competitive edge over companies that do not have mutual trust and cooperation with their stakeholders (Jones, 1995; Murray and Vogel, 1997). Empirical studies (e.g., Nelling and Webb, 2009; Pava and Krausz, 1996; Ruf et al., 2001) employ this approach to investigate the relationship between the stakeholder management approach and business achievements.

The second approach is the normative stakeholder approach, which highlights ethical and moral values are the only satisfactory basis for corporate actions and operations, regardless of the implications of behaviour on organisational outcomes. The normative approach involves the integration of moral and ethical values into organisational decision concerning organisation management of interactions with consumers (Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994; Philips, 1997). This approach comprises two key assumptions: (1) stakeholders have legal interests in corporate behaviour separate from the organisation instrumental interests in them; and, (2) every stakeholder is of inherent value (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). In this respect, it is advocated that the basis of CSR need to be a set of principles and objectives, which are also viewed as “contributing to [the firm’s] reputation and success” (Business Impact, 2000:101 as cited in Moir, 2001). In turn, the normative approach focuses primarily on narrative accounts of moral behaviour and philosophical guidelines for the operation and management of corporations in a stakeholder context. Accordingly, studies undertaken have attempted to describe what firms are supposed to do and why they have to act in this way. In addition, employing this approach does not entail collecting data or using scientific methods to test hypotheses. Thus, research employing the first
approach is argued to be more empirically based, while the latter approach is theoretically based (Berman et al., 1999; Berrone et al., 2007).

More prominently, some authors have tried to combine the two approaches (e.g., Jones, 1995; Jones and Wicks, 1999; Gibson, 2000; Porter and Kramer, 2002; 2006). The underpinning logic of their research is that moral behaviours (a normative perspective) may lead to considerable competitive edge (an instrumental perspective) (Baker and Roberts, 2011). Moral values and actions encourage trusting and supportive relations with audiences, which result in a decrease in opportunism and contracting costs and finally to enhancing the company’s competitive position over those companies that do not operate on moral values (Berrone et al., 2007). In this case, the normative and instrumental appear to be reconciled, and seen as a “virtuous circle” (Porter and Kramer, 2002:14), where both economic and societal benefits are best advanced by a corporate form. The integrative approach is followed in this thesis since “it provides a key avenue for research into the ethical and social issues of firms,” as claimed by Berrone et al. (2007:38). Moreover, while there is no single definitive theory found for stakeholder management, Buchholz and Rosenthal (2005:137) argue that “each version generally adheres to the same basic principle, namely that corporations should heed the needs, interests, and influence of those affected by their policies and operations”.

3.3.1. Justifying Adopting Stakeholder Theory Underpinning CSR

This thesis employs stakeholder theory, which assumes that organisations have obligations toward stakeholders, e.g., stockholders, customers, and employees (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). Stakeholder theory employs a pragmatic standpoint that considers stockholders as being among many actors of the corporation, as opposed to the traditional legal and economic viewpoint, where all non-marketplace interactions are ignored and maintains that the firm’s only duty is to increase stockholders’ wealth.

Sethi (1975) argues that one overlapping approach to stakeholder theory is the concept of CSR, which he refers to as “organisational behaviour or outcomes that are consistent or congruent with societal norms, values and expectations” (Lerner and Fryxell, 1994:60). Stakeholder theory also overlaps with CSP, which is considered an enlarged conceptualisation of CSR and represents a corporate composition of
social responsibility principles, social responsiveness processes, and programmes, rules, and tangible results as they link to the organisation’s relationship with society (Wood, 1991:693).

Stakeholder theory envisions a company’s objective in a totally different way, seeing differences between corporate social and economic goals as irrelevant. Hence, company continued existence is influenced not only by stockholders, but also by many other stakeholders, including personnel, government, and consumers (Lee, 2008), which is pertinent to the strategic nature of CI management.

Balmer et al. (2007) explain that stakeholder theory, which focuses on the interests of stakeholders, affects the organisation’s conceived image/identity. Each person may interpret a conveyed organisational identity (OI) differently (Dowling, 1994), and builds a cognitive image of the organisation (Balmer et al., 2007). In the same vein, Van Riel (1995) note that the image of a company is a reflection of its identity, a view supported by himself and Balmer (1997). Basically, they argue that the manner companies express themselves to stakeholders (CI) could affect stakeholders’ views of the company (corporate image) (Simoes et al., 2005).

As stated by Berrone et al. (2007:37) CI is the outcome of interface between the company and its audiences. Stakeholders have concerns and needs, and the manner in which a company addresses these demands conveys and shapes its CI, e.g., its principles, behaviour and standpoint, which distinguish it from other competitors/companies. Yet, CI is acknowledged as a strategic resource and a useful tool with which to address the requirements of corporate audiences (Van Riel, 1995).

It is clear that both CI and CSR originate from interactions between firms and stakeholders (Berrone et al., 2007). Hence, stakeholder theory, which assumes that organisations have obligations toward different stakeholders and that management need to be engaged in stakeholder issues and relations, is considered an appropriate framework for studying CSR, and is argued to provide a new avenue for examining CI management (Simoes et al., 2005).
3.4. Models of CSR

The literature reveals several models of CSR (e.g., Ackerman and Bauer, 1976; Carroll, 1979; Clarkson, 1995; Hemphill, 2004; Logsdon and Wood, 2002; Quazi and O’Brien, 2001; Swanson, 1999; Waddock, 2004; Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Wood, 1991).

This section reviews three CSP models: Carroll’s (1979), Wartick and Cochran’s (1985) and Wood’s (1991) models. The reason is that these models: 1) are all frequently cited and debated in the literature (Lee, 2008); 2) offer relevant frameworks that shape the conceptualisation of CSR (Geva, 2008); 3) reflect a comprehensive and integrative conceptualisation of corporate social involvement which includes CSR, corporate social responsiveness and management issues; 4) provide a mode which identifies and assesses an organisation’s strategic response to stakeholders demands (Lee, 2008:60).

This review is important in order to identify how CSR is involved in firm strategy which in turn illustrates the relationship between CSR and CI.

3.4.1. Carroll (1979) Model

In an attempt to understand precisely what constitutes CSR, Carroll (1979) developed a conceptual model, the ‘Organisational Social Performance Model’ (CSP), which comprises three dimensions (social responsibility categories, philosophy of social responsiveness and social issues involved), as shown in Table 3.2, that comprehensively describe essential aspects of CSP (Joyner and Payne, 2002); elements of CSR; organisational philosophy or mode of social responsiveness; and important social issues that organisations need to address (Carroll, 1979).

Regarding the first dimension, for instance, what is included in CSR, Carroll offers four hierarchically related duties, which according to their relevance to a company are economic, legal, ethical and discretionary (Carter and Jennings, 2004). Carroll’s corporate economic responsibilities are based on the traditional economic role of corporations. Thus, economic responsibility is considered the basic building block which undergirds all else. At the same time, businesses must obey the rules and legislations reported by governments as the founded principles, which guide corporate operations. Secondly, it is company’s obligation to be moral and conform
to these activities and practices to the expectations and prohibitions of the public, even though they may not be composed by legislation (Carroll, 1991). Finally, business is anticipated to be a good corporate citizen. This is reflected in the discretionary area, in which business is anticipated to offer resources, both financial and human, to the community and to enhance the standard of living (Carroll, 1991). Thus, Carroll’s model attempted to reach a balance between economic and social objectives. As such, his model assumed that business organisations should provide products and services that stakeholders demand and desire, with revenues.

Table 3.2: Carroll (1979) Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of CSP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension I</th>
<th>Dimension II</th>
<th>Dimension III</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social responsibility Categories</td>
<td>Social issues involved</td>
<td>Philosophy of social responsiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Economic responsibilities</td>
<td>- Consumerism</td>
<td>1. Reaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Legal responsibilities</td>
<td>- Environment</td>
<td>2. Defence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ethical responsibilities</td>
<td>- Discrimination</td>
<td>3. Accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Discretionary responsibilities</td>
<td>- Product and safety</td>
<td>4. Proaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Occupational safety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- shareholders</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Carroll (1979).

Carroll (1991) explains that execution of these obligations might differ based on organisation size, organisation philosophy and strategy, industry identity, economic conditions, and other factors.

Carroll’s model represents the second dimension by the company’s ‘Philosophy of Social Responsiveness’, which directs organisational responsiveness to social issues (Joyner and Payne, 2002). It is described by Frederick (1978:6) as “the capacity of a corporation to respond to social pressures”, and described by Carroll (1979:502) as “the action phase of management responding in the social sphere”. Carroll identified four kinds of philosophies for social responsiveness. First, is reaction philosophy, which requires firms to manage stakeholder obligations as a consequence of external forces, e.g., legislation, regulations or community demands. Second, is the defence philosophy which addresses stakeholder obligations to avoid being forced into actions by external parties. The third philosophy of responsiveness concerns accommodation, in which firms address social issues from a voluntary stance, rather
than being forced into them by outside forces. The final pro-action philosophy is argued to go further than the accommodation philosophy, by being proactive with society and in anticipating stakeholder demands before they become significant as well as developing strategies for addressing these issues (Joyner and Payne, 2002). Thus, “social responsiveness can range on a continuum from no response (do nothing) to a proactive response (do much)” (Carroll, 1979:501).

Wartick and Cochran (1985) point out that in Carroll’s model; both responsibility and responsiveness are considered significant and complementary concepts, each playing a different role, e.g., social responsibility reflects a macro/industry concern, while social responsiveness reflects a micro/organisation concern.

The third dimension of Carroll’s model concerns social issues themselves. Carroll (1979, 1991) identified a list of stakeholders and social issues, e.g., consumerism, environmentalism, discrimination, product and occupational safety, and shareholder issues. However, this list is illustrative only, not complete, since these needs and important audiences are not static; they change as society changes and also differ by industry (Carroll, 1979).

Clarkson (1995) argues that although Carroll’s model defines social issues (e.g., consumerism, the environment, discrimination, etc) as substitutes for actual performance, the model did not demonstrate what organisations are expected to do (Clarkson, 1995). Clarkson (1995:94) also criticizes Carroll’s model as being complicated, hard to measure and validate, and not easy to use in the practice to gather, classify, and assess company information. In addition, he describes the social responsibilities of the model as ‘descriptive’ rather than ‘prescriptive’ which in turn make it difficult to differentiate between ethical and discretionary categories. Similarly, Wartick and Cochran (1985) claim that Carroll’s model did not state specifically the different functions of social responsibility and social responsiveness, which they identify in their model, as discussed next.

3.4.2. Wartick and Cochran (1985) Model

Building on Carroll’s model, Wartick and Cochran (1985) introduced a model of CSP, Table 3.3, which suggests that corporate social involvement is based on three integrated stages: principle, process and policy, which reflect an integrative
conceptualisation of corporate social involvement. This approach dictates that a firm has to satisfy society’s expectations about its responsibilities, decide what kind of action to take, and implement the feedback concerning relevant matters. The model emphasises the macro level aspect by its focus on the interrelation between the company and its context, instead of the association between corporation as an institution and the community in which it functions. The model also emphasises the micro level by the continued use of social responsibility as a preliminary to corporate social participation.

Table3.3: Wartick and Cochran (1985) Model of CSP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Stage Principles</th>
<th>2nd Stage Processes</th>
<th>3rd Stage Policies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibilities</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsiveness</td>
<td>Social Issues Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Economic</td>
<td>1. Reactive</td>
<td>1. Issues Identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Legal</td>
<td>2. Defence</td>
<td>2. Issues Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ethical</td>
<td>3. Accommodative</td>
<td>3. Response Development</td>
</tr>
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<td>4. Discretionary</td>
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Directed at:
- 1. The social contract of business
- 2. Business as a moral agent

Directed at:
- 1. The capacity to respond to societal conditions
- 2. Managerial approaches to developing conditions

Directed at:
- 1. Minimizing ‘Surprising’
- 2. Determining effective corporate policies

Philosophical Orientation

Institutional Orientation

Organisational Orientation

Source: Adapted from Wartick and Cochran (1985:767).

The first stage of Wartick and Cochran’s model, ‘Principles of Corporate Social Responsibilities’, follows on from Carroll’s (1979) four domains of ‘Social Responsibility Categories’: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary, but, as demonstrated by Wartick and Cochran, it is based on two fundamental premises, the social contract and business acting as a moral agent in society (Wartick and Cochran, 1985:759).

Donaldson (1983) explains that business has a social contract, a tacit set of duties and rights, which perform as the mechanism through which organisational activities are made to conform with social aims (Wartick and Cochran, 1985). Regarding the second premise, moral agency, Donaldson (1983:30) argues that organisations have the ability to employ ethical rules when taking decisions and the ability to manage explicit corporate actions as well as the composition of policies and laws.
Thus, businesses can reflect as well as reinforce values, meet moral agency criteria and act in a way that matches with social principles, which should lead to ethical business behaviour as well as ethical responsibility.

Regarding the second stage of the model, ‘Processes of Social Responsiveness’, it presents the way/means to realising social responsibility. It is also articulated according to Carroll’s philosophy of social responsiveness (e.g., reactive, defensive, accommodative or reactive), which directs managers towards application and guidelines generation (Watrick and Cochran, 1985).

The third stage concerns the rules and principles of social issues management which provide the method for operationalising social responsiveness. Wartick and Cochran differentiated between three areas in terms of the issues considered, e.g., public issues management, which concerns issues related to laws; strategic issues management which have outcomes requiring strategic change, and social issues management which concerns societal change in principles and beliefs (Wartick and Cochran, 1985).

Thus, based on this discussion, Wartick and Cochran (1985:758) define CSP as “the underlying interaction among the principles of social responsibility, the process of social responsiveness, and the policies developed to address social issues”.

Thus, similar to Carroll (1979), Wartick and Cochran strongly argue that the economic category cannot be separated from any other corporate social responsibilities. Although one of the most important ideas in this model is that it understands and emphasises economic performance as the most significant concern among the principles of social responsibility, nevertheless, Wartick and Cochran’s model does not strike a balance between economic and non-economic responsibilities, and thus, it does not provide answers to questions about the allocation of resources to social and economic issues in a competitive environment. As such, it does not (and perhaps it should) give ultimate directions for making decisions and it fails to show how firms should successfully compete among other organisations in a competitive market. This shows that firms lack strategic orientation regarding social commitment. The point is that social and strategic issues
in management are two parallel areas which deserve to have an integrated approach (Wartick and Cochran, 1985).

Likewise, Wood (1991) criticizes Wartick and Cochran’s definition of CSP as lacking an action component and argues that the term performance entails action and outcome, rather than just interaction and integration. In addition, Wood asserted that social responsiveness involves not just a single process, but also a set of processes. Accordingly, Wood (1991) developed his model, discussed next.

3.4.3. Wood (1991) Model

Based on the above, Wood presents a more comprehensive model those that of Carroll (1979) and Wartick and Cochran (1985). Similar to the two previous models, Wood’s (1991:693) model places CSR into a larger context, and defined CSR as the “configuration of the principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships”. This builds upon the issues of CSR and corporate social responsiveness to comprise measurement (Moir, 2001) (See Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.2: Wood (1991) Model of CSP

Wood (1991) presents issues that supports the previous models, but were not clearly addressed. For instance, based on Carroll’s four dimensions (economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary), Wood acknowledges the ‘Principles of Social Responsibility’ and shows their relation to institutional (legitimacy), organisational (public
responsibility), and individual (managerial discretion) levels. In addition, Wood recognises the ‘Processes of Social Responsiveness’ in which she highlights certain processes such as environmental assessment, stakeholder management, and issues management. In doing so, she integrates Carroll’s responsiveness categories (defensive, accommodative, reactive, proactive), with three characteristic behaviours of a responsive firm, originally developed by Ackerman (1975): (a) examines and evaluates environmental circumstances, (b) respond to stakeholder requirements facing a firm, and (c) develop plans and guiding principles to react to changeable conditions.

Also, Wood adapts Wartick and Cochran's (1985) policies, which were originally elaborated by Carroll (1979) as ‘Social Issues’, and reorganises them under a significant dimension, ‘Outcomes of Corporate Behaviour’. Thus, the model explicitly seeks to assess the consequences of corporate social behaviour, corporate social performance, based on a premise that this behaviour is partly derived by benefits and organisation perspective (Wood, 1991). This is considered a meaningful contribution since it was implicit in earlier models (Carroll, 1999). However, the model does not provide guidelines about the way of measurement (Moir, 2001).

Subsequently, Wood and Jones (1995) expand on the CSP model by discovering that the kind of measures employed is determined by specific addressable stakeholder needs. They examine some measures (e.g., reputation) and observe that measures of CSP, which were employed by that time, have restricted usage in terms of understanding the reasons and the way particular stakeholder relations emerge and evolve.

Importantly, Wood’s model (1991) revealed that manager discretion is another possible reason why firms engage in CSR, although problems occur with this discretion, as in reality managers can argue against social commitment. Although managerial discretion may well be part of social commitment, it is insufficient to merely explain the reasons why a firm might engage in CSR.

Based on the preceding discussion, corporate social involvement is considered a broad concept which involves CSR in reference to four groups: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities; corporate social responsiveness which
refers to the phase of acting by management responding in the societal context; and
social issues management which refers to the relevant areas to which these
obligations are linked (Carroll, 1979; Joyner and Payne, 2002; Moir, 2001; Wartick

These models were chosen and discussed in this chapter as they are the main models
for CSR from its introduction to date. Moreover, they are frequently cited by authors
and still highly debated. Further, they function as a basis for future models and
theories. However, these models don’t explain why corporations engage in socially
responsible activities (Carroll, 1979; Pinkston and Carroll, 1996; Roberts 1996),
since company action when engaging in CSR has no apparent antecedent (Ackerman
and Bauer, 1976; Wartick and Cochran, 1985).

Thus, since CSR is a multi-category concept, it is imperative to find a framework for
identifying various kinds of CSR practices. The literature reveals that the commonly
employed CSR categories seem to be those outlined by Carroll (1979) in his CSR
model (Joyner and Payne, 2002). Carroll’s (1979) model has ‘enjoyed wide
popularity’ (Wood, 1996:45), and is considered a leading paradigm of CSR in social
issues in the management domain (Schwartz and Carroll, 2003). It has been utilized
by various theorists (Swanson 1995, 1999; Wartick and Cochran 1985; Wood 1991)
and empirical researchers (Burton and Hegarty 1999; Clarkson 1995; Pinkston and
Carroll 1996). Accordingly, the following section discusses the nature of the
elements of CSR in the light of Carroll’s (1979) model.

3.5. CSR Dimensions

This section discusses the scope and breadth of social responsibilities of business in
order to demonstrate the nature of different dimensions or categories of CSR and
highlight corporate responsible social behaviours of each dimension.

The literature reveals four main categories for CSR (See Figure 3.2): the economic,
legal, ethical, and discretionary categories, as initially presented by Carroll (1979,
1991, 1999, 2000) and supported by several authors (e.g., Daft, 2008; Erasmus and
Visser, 2005; Kitson and Campbell, 1996; Lindgreen et al, 2009b; Maignan and
Ferrell, 2000, 2001; Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Wood, 1991; Trevino and Nelson,
Carroll’s categorization posits that companies have an economic obligation to stockholders, which are considered the ground level and foundation in a hierarchy of social responsibilities. At the following level of social responsibility, it is expected that businesses will adhere to legal obligations set out by governments and regulatory authorities (Carroll 1979:500). Ethical (or moral) responsibilities are those actions that are not governed by any formal law, but are assumed to be part of social values, for instance, not taking bribes. The last group comprises of those activities that are directed by the discretion of the firm, instead of any law or moral values (Carroll, 1991).

It is argued that these four groups of activities are not meant to be seen as a scale with economic interests at one extreme and social interests at the other, and neither are they mutually exclusive; rather, they are ordered according to their importance and role to organisations (Carroll, 1999), as explained below.

**First: Economic Responsibilities:**

It is argued that the primary social responsibility of firms is an economic one (Wartick and Cochran, 1985). Carroll (1991) explains that the organisation is the fundamental economic component in society, which produces goods and services that society wants and in turn gains profit for this function. Any further corporate responsibilities are based on the economic responsibility of the company, because without it the other responsibilities remain unfulfilled without this (Carroll, 1991).

**Second: Legal Responsibilities:**

Pinkston and Carroll (1996) demonstrate that businesses are expected by society meet their economic obligations within the structure of legal requirements. A view of ‘codified ethics’ in reflected by legal responsibilities in that they represent basic ideas of fair operations as defined by legislation. They are viewed together with economic obligations as basic tents of the system of free enterprise (Carroll, 1999).

**Third: Ethical Responsibilities:**

While economic and legal responsibilities represent ethical norms of justice and fairness, it is argued that ethical responsibilities include actions and practices that are accepted or denied by societal, although they have no legal codification (Schwartz
Ethical responsibilities comprise the values, principles, or expectations that demonstrate concern for what a number of stakeholder groups view as just, or appropriate to the protection of their ethical rights (Carroll, 1999).

Windsor (2006) asserts that ethical responsibilities lie between compulsory compliance (economic and legal) and desirable philanthropy. Ethical responsibilities are in dynamic interplay with the legal responsibility (Carroll, 1991) since stakeholders and society anticipate ethical behaviour beyond mandatory legal compliance (Windsor, 2006).

Figure 3.3: The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility

Source: Carroll (1991:40)

Fourth: Philanthropic Responsibilities:

As demonstrated by Carroll (1979), discretionary responsibilities refer to those for which society has no definitive expectation of business, and left to personal decisions. Philanthropy is assumed to involve organisation activities that are carried out in reaction to the expectation of society that firms be good corporate citizens (Maignan, 2001). This entails business support in the form of financial or human resources, donations to charity, the provision of childcare for employees and so forth (Maignan and Ferrell, 2000). Carroll argues that, these activities are chosen, and the decision to take them on depends solely on a firm’s wish to engage in social roles for which
there are no legal requirements and which are not even generally expected of business organisations in terms of ethics (Carroll, 1979). Thus, there is no ethical or moral expectation of philanthropic responsibilities. While society may wish businesses to dedicate human or financial resources to humanitarian projects, if they do not, society does not view these businesses as unethical.

Carroll (1991) asserts that the four constituent parts offer managers a rough guide to the nature and types of CSR. He demonstrates that these responsibilities are neither ‘cumulative’ nor ‘additive’. In other words, firms should not meet them consecutively but each should be met at all times. That is, the CSR company should endeavour to generate revenues, comply with legislation, act in a moral way, and be a good corporate citizen (Carroll, 1991). However, firms focus increasingly on CSR, while society’s focus on the actions of firms is also increasing (Moir, 2001).

Carroll’s categorisation has met with some criticism, particularly the ethical and discretionary dimensions, which are not easily accessible and are thus difficult to test (Clarkson, 1995). Inaccessibility of CSR dimensions may cause poor measures of CSR. Consequently, theoretically meaningful relationships might be rejected in the face of insignificant results caused by inadequate operationalisations (Zahra and La Tour, 1987).

However, building on Carroll’s definition and classification, Maignan et al. (1999) assert that socially responsible organisations are assumed to fulfil their social responsibilities through their legal, economic, discretionary and ethical actions. Maignan et al. designed a framework to characterise corporate responsible social behaviours - an instrumental scale for measuring the degree to which organisations fulfil the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities allotted to them in by three main groups of stakeholders: customers, employees, and the wide public. The scale has been empirically validated and adopted in a number of research studies, e.g., Lindgreen et al. (2009b), and Maignan and Ferrell (2000; 2001), which defends the criticism directed to Carroll’s definition and categorization of CSR and reflects the encompassing nature of Carroll’s model.

Another attempt to reveal the dimensionality of CSR was presented in a recent study by Dahlsrud (2008). Dahlsrud (2008) identified 37 definitions of CSR via a Google
Search. The study categorised five dimensions of CSR utilising content analysis and frequency counts through a Google search to computes the comparative usage of each dimension. Dahlsrud (2008) concluded the following to be the most frequent dimensions of CSR: 1) environmental (representing the natural environment), 2) social (representing the relationship between business and society), 3) economic (representing financial or socio-economic issues), 4) stakeholder (representing stakeholders or stakeholder groups) and 5) voluntariness (representing actions not legally codified).

However, Dashlsrud’s work is criticised as it is limited to 37 CSR definitions, originating between 1980 and 2003 (Lee, 2008). He argues that the reason for not considering definitions before 1980 was because previously CSR was referred to as ‘social responsibility’. Thus, in order to be consistent in his analysis, he excluded any definitions of ‘social responsibility’. Notably, the earliest CSR definitions formed the basis of more recent CSR definitions and therefore, CSR definitions before 1980 are considered significant in the development of the CSR dimension (Lee, 2008).

Reporting on Dahlsrud (2008), Carroll and Shabana (2010) note that Carroll’s four dimensions of corporate responsibilities embrace the five frequent CSR dimensions (stakeholder, social, economic, voluntariness and environmental) proposed by Dahlsrud (2008). Carroll and Shabana (2010) assert that, whether in the definition’s structure or its application, corporate outcomes with regard to the environment, stakeholders and society, whether in the structure or the application of the definition, is reflected together in the economic and voluntary (discretionary/philanthropic) dimensions. They further explain that Carroll’s four CSR dimensions (economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic) involve the stimulation for activities within each dimension as well as to serve to identify particular types of advantages that return to firms, in addition to society, in their fulfilment. Although these concepts may interrelate and overlap in their explanation and implementation, they are useful in distinguishing the particular types of advantages that are obtained by firms, and this is crucial in developing the ‘business case’ (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). Accordingly, Carroll’s categorization of CSR was adopted in this thesis.
3.6. Relationship between CI and CSR

Despite the significance of CSR and CI research, the concept of CI, surprisingly, has received little consideration in the CSR literature (Verbos et al., 2007). In addition, there is a scarcity of studies on CSR activities being integrated into CI (Atakan and Eker, 2007). Berrone et al. (2007) argue that previous research on CI has largely ignored associated ethical dimensions (Berrone et al., 2007). This has resulted in limited empirical work explicitly addressing CSR issues in relation to CI (Berrone et al., 2007). (See Appendix 1 for summary of previous studies on CI and CSR).

Regarding the possible relationship between CI and CSR, the literature promotes the integration of CSR to help form CI, especially given the current strategic importance of CSR (e.g., Berrone et al., 2007; Cornelius et al., 2007; David et al., 2005; Van de Ven, 2008).

Several studies, such as Brown and Dacin (1997), followed by Sen and Battacharya (2001), David et al. (2005), Marin and Ruiz (2007), and Marin et al. (2009) claim that the concept of CI should comprise at least two dimensions: (1) corporate expertise, which is based on exchange and refers to an organisation’s ability to discover, determine, and fulfil audience’s demands, and requirements by being among the leaders in a good or service group, and (2) CSR, which is a citizenship duty with moral, ethical, and social responsibilities that offer the foundation on which exchange of mutual benefits can be constructed and maintained between an organisation and its constituencies.

Indeed, CSR has been proven to impact business performance and corporate image (Arendt and Brettel, 2010; Pruzan, 2001; Scharf et al., 2012), accordingly, Zairi (2000) proposes that CSR should be incorporated in business success models. Likewise, Cornelius et al. (2007) argue that if CSR affects factors such as corporate image and reputation, it should be implicitly perceived as an essential element of at least a number of CI models. Cornelius et al. (2007) further explain that the most important types of CI models that are probably those that resonate with the opinions of Christensen and Askegaard (2001), that “CI should uncover the true ‘character’ or ‘responsibility’ of the organisation behind its various appearances”. In their empirical study, Cornelius et al. (2007) extend Melewar and Jenkins’ (2002) model of CI to
include CSR, which comprises ‘ethical responsibility’ as a subset of organisation culture. In their demonstration and adjustment of the model, corporate culture comprises elements of CSR and principles, philosophies and objectives. They assess CSR through four different elements, that is, social inclusion; ethical responsibility; social responsibility and engagement in society (Cornelius et al., 2007). Indeed these authors go on to posit that CSR should be considered a sub-element of the CI model developed by Melewar and Jenkins (2002), and they propose that due to its generalisability, CSR essentially need to be considered by all models of CI, which are multi-stakeholder oriented.

Similarly, Berrone et al. (2007) argue that because CI is a demonstrable reason for differentiation and achieving competitive edge (Balmer and Gray, 2000), a firm’s moral stand (e.g., its moral values, behaviour, and communication on ethical and other obligations) should be considered a part of a organisation’s CI that could improve business outcomes. They posit that the ethical dimension of CI is expressed mainly through two aspects. The first is behaviour, which they refer to as ‘applied ethics’ and comprises the ethical actions and policies of the firm, while the second is communication, referred to as ‘revealed ethics’, which comprise the dissemination of corporate moral values and principles (Berrone et al., 2007). Berrone et al. (2007) further explain that CI, along with its ethical dimension, contribute to the organisation’s distinction and reality and conveys the degree to which an organisation can be regarded as ethical. In this sense, CI offers audiences a point of reference and standard for comparing their moral demands with corporate ethical position (Berrone et al., 2007).

From a moral viewpoint, it is plausible that consumers tend to personalise relationships with organisations. Customers seem to develop bounds and relations with brands, or at least develop human attributes for brands, in quite similar way as they create relations with individuals (Aaker et al., 2004; Aaker and Fournier, 1995; Cova and Cova, 2002; Fournier, 1998). This helps explain why the motivations and associated CI underpinning CSR activates tend to matter to stakeholders (Van de Ven, 2008). In a similar vein, consumers also tend to assess the ‘personality’ of a company as if they are in fact treating an ethical (or unethical) individual. Consequently, they judge corporate behaviour in virtually ethical way, such as
‘crooked’ and ‘corrupt’ or ‘trustworthy’ and ‘responsible’ (Van de Ven, 2007). Organisations become ethical when CSR/ethics are substantial elements of their initiatives and actions, which is expressed in their ‘social connectedness, openness, critical reflexivity, and responsiveness’ (Balmer et al., 2007; Powell, 2011). Research also suggests that consumers punish firms they perceive as insincere or even corrupt in their societal involvements (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). This view is supported by Pérez and Rodríguez del Bosque (2012) who demonstrate, through their empirical study, how corporate personality enables financial banks to differentiate themselves for which CSR performs a significantly role. Differences in corporate personality are reflected in corporate behaviour relating to CSR.

From different perspective, few studies demonstrate that CI derives CSR. For example, Basu and Plassu (2008) presented the idea of a sensemaking process claiming that the manner in which executives think (cognitive), talk (linguistic) and operate (conative) in regards to their important stakeholder groups and the public affect CSR. They explain that these three dimensions identify the organisation intrinsic character/orientation that directs CSR-related initiatives and programmes. Moreover, in an attempt to present an identity-based conceptualisation of CSR, Hildebr et al. (2012) assume that CI is both a determinant and outcome of CSR. Through examining three types of identities (actual, organisational and perceived) and their relationship with CSR, they argue that different corporate identities and its CSR activities are not separate parties, however, they are developed from and affected by the relations among groups in the society.

In the current climate, CSR and ethics are strongly positioned on socio-political and business agendas, thus the CI concept can be considered mainly as an expression and presentation of CSR and the ethical stance and behaviour of companies (Cornelius et al., 2007). As a result, CI, CSR, and ethical behaviour have received significant attention in the literature and public media (Fukukawa et al., 2007).

Thus, corporate responsibility towards different stakeholders should be given strategic importance and incorporated in the formation of CI, as it is considered an important strategic resource and a means for addressing corporate stakeholder demands (Balmer et al., 2007; Berrone et al., 2007). Doing so can encourage senior
managers to integrate CSR initiative n organisation everyday operations and activities (Lauring and Thomsen, 2009).

3.7. Summary

This chapter has established the theoretical ground for conceptualising CSR and provided the foundation through which the relationship between the CI and CSR can be examined.

The chapter presented a foundational demonstration of CSR definitions, which reveals diverse meanings, interpretations and categories of the concept, with no clear consensus on what it means and what it requires of companies. However, an emerging common theme is the notion that organisations, in addition to generating revenues, should engage in “actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (McWilliams et al., 2006:1).

While the CSR concept comprises different groups of activities, it is important in this thesis to find a framework for outlining CSR practices. Hence, this thesis follows Carroll’s (1979) definition for its enduring application and the importance it assigns to discretionary responsibilities. In addition, practitioners can use this definition because it highlights the firm’s economic obligation as a substantial element of CSR, which is considered essential in thinking about the ‘business case’ (Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

This was followed by a review of stakeholder theory in order to deepen understanding of CSR while providing the logic for adopting stakeholder theory as a theoretical scheme where the relationship between CI and CSR can be explained.

Next, the chapter exposed the nature of CSR; its elements, principles, processes, and managerial issues involved. It demonstrated three key models which conceptualise CSR within the framework of CSP: Carroll (1979); Wartick and Cochran (1985); Wood (1991). These models place CSR into an integrative context that encompasses corporate social responsibility which refers to four categories: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities; corporate social responsiveness which refers to the action phase of management responding in the social sphere; and social
issues management which refers to the topical areas to which these responsibilities are tied. Although such models provide a fundamental perspective on reality of CSR, they do not show antecedents of corporate engagement in CSR activities, and so cannot explain why corporations engage in socially responsibility. Based on Carroll’s (1991) definition, the chapter then provided a detailed demonstration of dimensions or categories of CSR, which involves economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities.

Finally, the chapter considered the relationship between CI and CSR. Given the strategic importance of CSR, there is a general tendency in previous studies for integrating CSR in CI models to help form CI, but a paucity of studies investigating the relationship between the two concepts. Thus, this thesis responds to the need for investigating the relationship between CI and CSR.

The next chapter discusses the research design and methodologies used in carrying out the empirical phases. It explains the ontological and epistemological assumptions adopted herein, the chosen paradigm, as well as justification for the exploratory sequential mixed methods approach used in empirical phases.
### Table 4.1: The Research Stages

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4.1. Introduction

Chapter One demonstrated the purpose of this thesis is identifying corporate identity (CI) dimensions, theoretical underpinning and measurement, and the relationship between CI and corporate social responsibility (CSR).

In order to address these issues, a mixed methods research design was employed. Mixed methods research allows the use of different methods (including semi-structured interviews and surveys) and combining both inductive and deductive thinking to achieve the research objectives (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011).

The first phase was an exploration of the meaning and elements of CI and its relationship with CSR by collecting qualitative data from senior managers at leading companies operating in different UK industries. Themes from this data were then developed into an instrument to validate the CI taxonomy and scale and test hypotheses on the relationship between CI and CSR, allowing it to be tested with a larger sample at food and beverage industry in UK.

Before embarking on achieving the research objectives, a set of underlying assumptions needs to be defined that relate to the nature of the world (ontology) and the nature of knowledge (epistemology) - which serves as a guide in order to understand the subject studied as well as to generate valid and reliable results (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Therefore, this chapter demonstrates the methodology adopted in this thesis to achieve the research objectives. Research methodology refers to “the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to collection and analysis of data” (Collis and Hussey, 2003:55). This requires consistency among research philosophy, approach and theory, and methods of collecting data. This chapter is structured by ‘the research process onion’ presented by Saunders et al. (2012) (See Figure 4.1).
Following the introduction, this chapter is divided into six main sections. The first section describes the research paradigm and discusses ontological and epistemological assumptions. The second section demonstrates the inductive and deductive research approaches with justification of the inductive-deductive research cycle employed. The third section illustrates the qualitative and quantitative methods with a full description of the mixed methods approach used here. The fourth section reviews the research strategies and data collection methods employed in each phase. Next, the chapter explains the time horizon, followed by addressing ethical research considerations. Decisions about the tactics (the finer details of data collection and analysis - the centre of the research onion) are dealt with in Chapter Five and Chapter Eight, which addresses data collection, sampling, data analysis techniques and issues of reliability and validity for the qualitative and quantitative phases, respectively. Finally, a summary of the main points covered throughout this chapter is presented concerning the mixed methods research design employed in the thesis.

4.2. Research Paradigm

Researchers operate within a scientific paradigm which provides an “overall conceptual framework within which a researcher may work” (Perry et al., 1999:16),
that is, “a basic belief system that guides the researcher” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:105). As explained by Maxwell (2005:37), a paradigm refers to “a set of very general philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world (ontology) and how we can understand it (epistemology)”. Ontology is the branch of philosophy concerned with the nature of being, or reality (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994), while epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge that could be obtained via various methods of inquiry (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Besides, a research paradigm reflects how the researcher’s values affect research design and interpretation of results (axiology). Each assumption has an influence on the research process (methodology) (Ryan et al., 2012; Saunders et al., 2012).

Thus, identifying the research paradigm helps in selecting the appropriate research choice and research methodology, in order to obtain valid and reliable research results (Creswell, 1998a:94; Creswell and Clark, 2007:23; Saunders et al., 2012:128).

Within the social science community there has been a debate between two main competing paradigms for the past three decades; positivism and interpretive or phenomenology, as explained below.

- The positivist paradigm/philosophy in social science concerns observable and measurable phenomena (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). It follows a cause and effect approach, commonly used in natural sciences research, to demonstrate human actions and understand social phenomenon (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In addition, positivism is associated to deductive theory testing. It tries to explain phenomena under investigation by verifying or falsifying hypotheses (Punch, 1998). Through this approach, researchers try to reach generalisable conclusions (Creswell, 1994). Further, within the positivistic paradigm reality is independent from the researcher (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) and can be understood using quantifiable tools (Creswell, 1994). Hence, researchers supposedly take an objective position (in which the researcher stands apart from what is being studied) while conducting the research (May, 1997) which leads to in apparently free of bias and neutral investigation (Gephart, 2004; Saunders et al., 2012).

- “The interpretive philosophy seeks to understand and interpret human behaviours from participants' own frame of reference” (Collis and Hussey, 2003:52). It is concerned with inductive theory building (Bryman, 2004;
Gephart, 2004). Further, interpretive researchers assume subjective reality (May, 1997), mentally created by members and could be understood from various viewpoints. Within the interpretive paradigm (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994), researchers involves in the examined phenomenon (Punch, 2005; Collins and Hussey, 2003). Additionally, “variables are largely unknown; the research problem needs to be explored because little information exists on the topic and in fact, in many qualitative studies a theory base does not guide the study because those available are inadequate, incomplete, or simply missing” (Creswell, 1994:10).

Saunders et al. (2012) demonstrate that paradigms choice is dependent on the nature of the research problem and purpose, because particular research methodologies are more suited to certain research problems and objectives.

This thesis addresses the claim of Melewar et al. (2005b) that there is a lack of clarity with regard to the meaning of CI and its salient elements, and that CI models are abstract to be operationalised without clear theoretical underpinning (Cornelissen et al., 2012) as well as the need to address CSR through the lenses of the construct of CI (David et al., 2005). Hence, the thesis is concerned with identifying the elements of CI which are considered relevant from the standpoint of practitioners as well as exploring the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR. Based on the results of this investigation, the thesis sought to develop an empirical scale of the CI construct and test the relation between CI and CSR. Thus, the research was directed initially towards theory generation followed by theory verification.

Accordingly, both interpretive and positivist paradigms were deemed appropriate here. The first research stage was exploratory in nature and employed semi-structured interviews to gather data on executives’ perceptions towards CI and the nature of its relationship with CSR. While the second phase was descriptive in nature concerned with developing and testing a CI scale and testing the relationship between CI and CSR using surveys.

This was done by adopting the pragmatic paradigm, which provides a mixture of the advantages of the interpretive and positivism approaches. These two approaches are complementary each other (Howe, 1988). Pragmatism “rejects the either/or choices
associated with the paradigm” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003:21), offering a logical and practical alternative which gives the researcher the freedom to select from a range of techniques and approaches the mix which allows the research to sufficiently answers the research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The pragmatic paradigm supports utilising a mix of research methods, and recognizes the role played by the researcher’s values in understanding the findings (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003a:713). Kumar (1999:12) assumes that “no matter what paradigm the researcher works within, the researcher should hold to certain values regarding the control of bias, and the maintenance of objectivity in terms of the research process and the conclusions drawn”. This composite approach gives the researcher the flexibility to use both positivistic and interpretive approaches in parallel or sequentially (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003:21).

Table 4.2 summarises the important characteristics and assumptions of the three main research paradigms (positivism, pragmatism, interpretive).

### Table 4.2: Characteristics of Main Research Paradigms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradigm</th>
<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
<th>Interpretivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epistemology</strong></td>
<td>Objective point of view. Knower and Known are independent, a dualism.</td>
<td>Both Objective and Subjective points of view, depending on stage of research cycle.</td>
<td>Subjective point of view. Knower and known are inseparable, interactive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ontology</strong></td>
<td>Naïve realism: reality is single, tangible, and fragmentable.</td>
<td>Diverse viewpoints regarding social realities. Accept external reality. Choose explanations that best produce desired outcomes.</td>
<td>Relativism reality is multiple, constructed and holistic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Axiology</strong></td>
<td>Inquiry is value free.</td>
<td>Values play a large role in interpreting results.</td>
<td>Inquiry is value bound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Approach (Logic)</strong></td>
<td>Deductive</td>
<td>Both inductive and hypothetic-deductive</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Methods</strong></td>
<td>Quantitative (in general)</td>
<td>Both Quantitative and Qualitative</td>
<td>Qualitative (in general)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Causal linkages</strong></td>
<td>Real causes temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects.</td>
<td>There may be causal relationships, but we will never be able to pin them down.</td>
<td>All entities simultaneously shaping each other. It’s possible to distinguish causes from effects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The research paradigm and its assumptions are argued to have implications for methodology; that is the method employed by the investigator to examine that reality
(Healy and Perry, 2000). Finn et al. (2000) assert that research philosophy, ontology and epistemology influence the selection of research methods, contribute to a deeper understanding of the research perspective and shape the whole research process, as demonstrated below.

### 4.3. Research Approach

The research approach focuses on how “the research project will involve the use of theory” (Saunders et al., 2012:143). De Vaus (2001) demonstrates that constructing theory starts with a number of observations and proceeds on to develop theories from these observations, whereas testing theory differs in that it starts with a theory and if predictions are correct this tends to support the theory; but if they are wrong, predictions were illogically derived from the theory (De Vaus, 2001).

Thus, in terms of the logic of research, Collis and Hussey (2003) classify research into deductive and inductive research.

*Figure 4.2: Theory Construction and Testing*

De Vaus (2001), as shown in Figure 4.2, highlights the variations among deductive and inductive research approaches, focusing attention on the process of building theory, in which the deductive approach goes from theory to data, while the inductive approach from data to theory.

According to Collis and Hussey (2003:15) deductive research is “a study in which a conceptual and theoretical structure is developed and then tested by empirical observation”, whilst inductive research is “a study in which theory is developed from
the observation of empirical realities”. Since “inductive research involves moving from individual observation to statements of general patterns or laws, it is referred to as moving from the specific to the general” (Collis and Hussey, 2003:15).

Saunders et al. (2012:144) summarises the main differences between the two approaches in regards to the researcher position, data collection, samples selection and others. (See Table 4.3)

**Table 4.3: Differences between Deductive and Inductive Research Approaches**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deduction Emphasis</th>
<th>Induction Emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Scientific principles</td>
<td>1. Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Moving from theory to data</td>
<td>2. A close understanding of the research context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The need to explain causal relationships between variables.</td>
<td>3. The collection of qualitative data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The collection of quantitative data</td>
<td>4. A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The application of controls to ensure validity of data</td>
<td>5. A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition</td>
<td>6. Less concern with the need to generalise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A highly structured approach.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. A researcher independence of what is being researched</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Saunders et al. (2012:144).

Considering the differences between deductive and inductive logic, pragmatists do not view the use of logic as an either-or-contrast. Instead, they use both deductive and inductive logic in a distinctive sequence based on the premise that research on any given question at any point in time falls somewhere within the inductive-deductive research cycle (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) (See Figure 4.3). Regardless of where the researcher starts, a research project generally travels at least once through the cycle. This is also known as the research wheel (Johnson and Christensen, 2004), the chain of reasoning (Krathwohl, 2004), and the cycle of scientific methodology (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1985).
Hence, this research followed both an inductive and deductive logic, in a sequential manner, according to the research objectives and questions.

As mentioned, while the concept of CI has been extensively studied, few research studies have empirically investigated the elements of the CI construct (Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Simoes et al., 2005). Furthermore, research on the relationship between CI and CSR is limited (David et al., 2005; Fukukawa et al., 2007).

Therefore, this research sought to fill these gaps by achieving the following interrelated research objectives, divided into two phases of empirical research:

**In the first phase:**

- Provide a definition of CI.
- Determine the key elements of CI and their sub-elements and develop a comprehensive framework and taxonomy of the CI construct, encompassing the salient aspects of CI.
- Establish a theoretical framework through which CI can be more effectively operationalised.
- Gain insights into the nature of CSR and its elements.
- Discuss the interaction between CI and CSR; how CI elements affect business commitment to CSR/how elements of CI interact with and contribute to CSR.
In the second phase:

- Develop a scale for the CI construct (encompassing measures for each of the key elements and their sub elements) and empirically test the CI framework.
- Verify CI theoretical framework.
- Empirically test the relationship between CI and CSR.

Accordingly, the inductive approach was considered appropriate to address the first phase objectives and the deductive approach addresses those of the second phase. Thus, the research cycle in this thesis moves from facts and observations using inductive reasoning to theory development, then to provisional hypotheses and postulation of particular relationships and outcomes using deductive reasoning (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:24). This is depicted in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: The Research Cycle Employed in this Thesis


4.4. Research Method

The term “research method” is used interchangeably with “research strategy” (e.g., Yin, 2003; Myers, 2008) to denote the broad plan the researcher will adopt to address the research questions (Saunders et al., 2012). This guides the selection of appropriate methods of collecting and analysing data. Generally, research methods are categorised into qualitative and quantitative (Bryman and Bell 2007; Myers, 2008).
Quantitative research method, utilise data obtained from questionnaires, experiments, data archives (Creswell, 2003), aims to represent data in numbers (e.g., values, measurements) (Remenyi et al., 1998). It is often linked to a deductive approach where theories are tested for their validation.

Conversely, qualitative research involves meaning and processes, which are not investigated or examined in the form of numbers or frequencies. It generally produces findings by making sense of or interpreting individual’s expressions and opinions. Mainly, it utilises interviews and observations to collect data, where nonmathematical investigative procedures are conducted (Strauss ad Corbin, 2008). This is generally associated with the inductive approach, where the importance of theory development is highlighted (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Pragmatists value and consider both research methods (qualitative and quantitative), though the nature of the research derives the exact selection of the approach. Thus, a qualitative approach was employed in the first phase of the research, given its exploratory nature, while in the second phase, a quantitative approach was employed to develop a valid scale of the CI construct and test its relationship with CSR.

Rog and Bickman (2008) and Eder and Fingerson (2003) argue that integrating both research approaches in the same study enables researchers to make significant discoveries and yield important contributions. Practically, many business and management research studies are likely to combine elements of quantitative and qualitative research methods (Saunders et al., 2012) which helps minimise the limitations related to adopting a single method and increase the likelihood of adopting a better off approach to collect, analyse, and interpret data (Bryman, 2006).

Thus, researchers are confronted by the choice between using mono method “(single data collection technique and corresponding analytical procedure - either a quantitative or qualitative research design)” and multiple methods “(more than one data collection technique and analytical procedure in addressing the research question)” (Saunders et al., 2012:165). Multiple methods are in turn divided between multi-method research and mixed methods research. In multi-method research more than one procedure for collecting data is utilised with related analytical technique, however, this is limited to using only one research design (quantitative or
qualitative) (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Therefore, adopting multi-method research does not mix quantitative and qualitative research (Saunders et al., 2012).

**Mixed-methods research** “combines the qualitative and quantitative methods into the research methodology of a single study or in a multi-phased study within the different stages of the research process” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:20).

Mixed methods approach is often associated with the philosophical orientation that pragmatists believe either method is useful and deciding whether to use either (or both) method is based on the statement of research questions and phase of the inductive-deductive research cycle (Nastasi et al., 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Accordingly, this thesis adopts mixed methods research by combining qualitative and quantitative methods in two sequential stages within the same study.

The following section provides details about characteristics of mixed methods research applied in this thesis.

### 4.4.1. Mixed Methods Research Design (Methodological Choice)

Mixed methods research is defined as “a research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or project of inquiry” (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007:4). There are several reasons for using mixed methods. Greene (2007) presents five distinct purposes for this approach (See Table 4.4).

**Table 4.5: Reasons for Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Triangulation</th>
<th>Seeks convergence, corroboration, correspondence or results from different methods for purposes of enhanced validity and credibility of inference.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complementarity</td>
<td>Seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results from another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>Seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspective of frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expansion</td>
<td>Seeks to extend the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this thesis, the purpose of such an approach is development, since the findings of the first qualitative phase were used to guide the design of the second quantitative phase – the approaches broadly constructed to include sampling selection and implementation, as well as instrument construction (Green 2007). In this case, mixed-methods were implemented sequentially based on the premise that an exploratory qualitative phase was first needed for several reasons: 1) key elements of CI were not known; 2) a valid, reliable and parsimonious CI scale was not available; 3) little was known about the relationship between CI and CSR.

According to the research problem and the reasons for mixing methods, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) identify six types of mixed-methods designs that are most commonly used in practice, as shown in Table 4.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design Type</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Convergent</td>
<td>Concurrent Qual and Quan data collection, separate Quan and Qual analyses, and the merging of the two data sets.</td>
<td>• Need a more complete understanding of a topic. • Need to validate or corroborate quantitative scales.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Methods implemented sequentially, starting with Quant data collection and analysis in phase 1 followed by Qual data collection and analysis in phase 2, which builds on phase 1.</td>
<td>• Need to explain Quan results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Methods implemented sequentially, starting with Qual data collection and analysis in phase 1 followed by Quan data collection and analysis in phase 2, which builds on phase 1.</td>
<td>• Need to test or measure Qual data findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedded</td>
<td>Either the concurrent or sequential collection of supporting data with separate data analysis and the use of supporting data, before, during or after the major data collection procedures.</td>
<td>• Need a preliminary exploration before an experimental trial. • Need follow up explanations after an experimental trial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Framing the concurrent or sequential collection and analysis of Quan and Qual within a transformative theoretical framework that guides the methods decision.</td>
<td>• Need to conduct research that identifies and challenges social injustices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiphase</td>
<td>Combine the concurrent and/or sequential collection of Quan and Qual data sets over multiple phases of a program of study.</td>
<td>• Need to implement multiple phases to address a program objective, e.g. for program development and evaluation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:73).
This research employed exploratory sequential mixed methods, [QUAL ➔ QUAN], as shown in Figure 4.5. In the first phase, qualitative data about the perceptions of senior managers (from different industrial sectors) of the meaning of CI were collected and analysed to explore the concept and identify its key elements, and how this related to CSR, in respect of their organisations. The themes and categories resulting from the qualitative phase were used inferentially to operationalise CI elements, develop a CI scale and state a proposition to test the relationship between CI and CSR. Thus, building on the findings of the qualitative phase, a quantitative instrument (survey) was developed to measure CI construct and test its relationship with CSR (Tashakkori, and Teddlie, 1998, 2003). These developments join the strand of enquiry (qualitative phase) with the second strand (quantitative phase) of the thesis, which involved a new sample of senior managers from food and beverage industry in the UK. Finally, the interpretation reflects the extent to which quantitative results expand on the initial qualitative findings (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011).

**Figure 4.5: Visual Presentation of Mixing Methods Procedure Followed in this Thesis**

Regarding the exploratory sequential design, several points need to be highlighted:

- **Stage of Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative strands (Point of Interface):**

Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:67) conceptualise four possible points for mixing quantitative and qualitative methods during the research process. These are: “1) interpretation (qualitative and quantitative data are mixed in the final stage of research process after the researcher has collected and analysed both sets of data); 2) data analysis (quantitative and qualitative strands are mixed during the research process when the researcher is analysing the two sets of data), 3) data collection
(qualitative and quantitative strands are mixed during the research process when the researcher collects the second set of data); and 4) design (qualitative and quantitative strands are mixed during the larger design phase of the research process)”.

This thesis mixes qualitative and quantitative strands during data collection, as a point of interface, using a strategy of connecting. The connection occurs by using the outcomes of the qualitative phase to design the data collection in the quantitative phase. This is done by hypothesising the relationship between CI to CSR, developing a data collection instrument (survey) including CI scale, and focusing on senior managers in food and beverage companies (one industry rather than multiple industries, as in the first phase of data collection).

**Priority of Qualitative and Quantitative Strands**

In exploratory mixed-methods research design, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:91) identify two variants: theory-development and instrument-development. In theory-development, priority is placed on the initial qualitative phase which is used to construct an evolving theory, taxonomy, categorization scheme and/or formulate research hypotheses building on the qualitative results. Then the research investigates the occurrence of the findings or assesses the theory or hypotheses on a wider scale (sample size) in the quantitative phase. However, in instrument-development, the qualitative findings are used to develop a quantitative instrument; thus, priority is placed on the second, quantitative phase while the initial qualitative phase plays a secondary role (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011:91). In this thesis, however, both phases receive equal emphasis given the research purpose and the importance of the qualitative and quantitative research outcomes and contributions.

The following Table 4.6 summarises the characteristics of the type of mixed-methods design applied in this thesis:
Table 4.7: Characteristics of Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods Research Design Employed in this Thesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Methods implemented sequentially, starting with Qual data collection and analysis in Phase 1, followed by Quan collection and analysis in Phase 2, which builds on Phase 1.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Design purpose</td>
<td>Need to test and measure exploratory data findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paradigm foundation</td>
<td>Interpretivist in Phase 1, Positivist in Phase 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority of the Strands</td>
<td>Qual and Quan emphasis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timing of the strands</td>
<td>Sequential: Qual first.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point of interface for mixing</td>
<td>Data collection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point of reference strategy</td>
<td>Connecting the two strands: from Qual data analysis to Quan data collection. Use Qual results to make decisions about Quan research hypothesis, sampling and data collection in Phase 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common variants</td>
<td>Theory-development, and Instrument development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011:73-76).

4.5. Research Strategies

Research strategy is “a general plan of how the researcher is going to answer the research questions” (Saunders et al., 2012:173). It offers the researcher a particular path for procedures to carry out the research (Creswell, 2003:13). In management research, various research strategies have been introduced, for instance, survey, experiment, case study, ethnography, grounded theory and action research (Remenyi et al., 1998).

This research employed interviewing and survey in the first and second phases of research, respectively, as explained and justified below.

4.5.1. Research Strategy for 1st Phase

Interviewing was used for data collection in the first phase of the research. Interviewing is considered the most commonly used data collection approach in qualitative research since it is a “good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality” (Punch, 1998:174-175). The main theme of the interview as a research method is that questions are posed to chosen respondents in order to discover and understand issues related to their behaviour, attitudes, and feelings regarding a specific phenomenon (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In addition, both interviewer and interviewee are able to explore the meaning of the questions and answers involved (Bryman, 2004). Thus, the use of
interviews facilitates gathering valid and reliable data relevant to the research questions.

There are three types of interviews, according to their structure: **structured interviews** which entails utilising surveys formed of a fixed and similar number of questions developed before the interview (Saunders *et al.*, 2012); **semi structured** interviews where the interviewer has a number of issues to enquire about in a broad form which direct the interview (Bryman and Bell, 2007), but other questions may be asked to build on interviewees’ responses (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Eder and Fingerson, 2003); and **unstructured** interviews, which are informal conversations that explore perceptions of a chosen phenomenon, as in interpretive research (Carson *et al.*, 2002). They help researchers to have a better understanding of the whole context in which phenomena take place, enabling them to see the connections and influences upon the topic of interest (Adler and Adler, 2003).

In this thesis, semi-structured interviews were employed for collecting data since they presented the opportunity and flexibility to explore the phenomenon of CI and CSR in-depth (Carson *et al.*, 2002) due to the open nature of questions posed, which enabled senior managers (participants) to reply more freely without limitations derived from a restricted set of choices (Maxwell, 2005). Moreover, they offered the possibility to consider other areas of examination, which perhaps may not have been thought of when designing the interview schedule (Holstein and Gubrium, 2003).

In this respect, semi-structured interviews allowed the first phase of research to achieve its main objectives and gain valuable insights into how senior managers regard the concept of CI and what elements of CI are considered important, in order to subsequently develop a comprehensive framework of the CI construct, and formulate hypothesis on how CI elements affect business commitment to CSR. Details of the interview schedule and sample are provided in sections 5.2 and 5.3.

Although this thesis examines organisational culture as a key element of CI and influencing CSR, an ethnography strategy was not used, because the purpose of this research was not to interpret social life in organisations but to explore the role played by cultural norms and values to manifest CI. This role could not be captured through an ethnographic strategy or understood through participant observation methods that
dominate this strategy. Another reason for not using ethnography was time constraint, because this strategy is very time consuming and is carried out through a long period of time (Saunders et al., 2012).

4.5.2. Research strategy for 2nd phase

A survey strategy was employed for data collection in the second phase of the research. Survey is defined by Zikmund (2003:175) as:

“A research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people by use of questionnaire or interview; a method of data collection based on communication with a representative sample of individual”.

The majority of empirical studies adopting the positivism paradigm use theory for hypotheses development, utilise surveys for data collection and apply statistical techniques for hypotheses testing (Ryan et al., 2012). In addition, it is assumed that the survey strategy is commonly associated with the deductive logic, and a widely used strategy in management studies (Saunders et al., 2012).

There are two major types of survey (Collis and Hussey, 2003:66): the descriptive survey “is concerned with identifying and counting the frequency of a specific population, either at one point in time or at various times for comparison”, and the correlational (analytical) survey “where the intention is to determine whether there is any relationship between different variables”.

The survey strategy was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, the purpose of the second research phase was to validate a CI scale and test the integration of many existing theories (such as corporate communication, organisational identification, leadership, organisational culture and stakeholder theory), and a survey suits such deductive purpose as mentioned above. It was also intended to investigate the relationship between CI (independent variable) and CSR (dependent variable) by using a questionnaire to collect information from senior managers in UK companies (target population). Such investigation is at the core of correlational surveys, which search for relationships between different variables based on a theoretical context (Punch, 1998:78; Bryman and Bell, 2003:48; Collis and Hussey, 2003:66; Neuman, 2006:276). Secondly, this thesis depends on a cross-sectional design in collecting
data and this design is more appropriate to a survey strategy (Bryman and Bell, 2003:48).

Besides, surveys have various advantages such as the possibility of carrying out the research on a large scale (big sample size), reasonable budget, and facilitate comparison (Saunders et al., 2012:422; Zikmund, 2003:175). Nonetheless, there are some concerns regarding the survey strategy related to ensuring the clarity of survey questions and determining the sufficient sample size (Saunders et al., 2012; Collis and Hussey, 2003). These were dealt with by exercising considerable care when developing the questionnaire (see section 8.5).

There are various methods for collecting data using a survey strategy, e.g., structured observation, structured interview and questionnaire, which is the commonly employed method (Saunders et al., 2012). Further, questionnaires have various kinds, e.g., self-administered and interviewer administered (See Figure 4.6).

**Figure 4.6: Types of Questionnaire**

![Diagram of Types of Questionnaire]

Source: Saunders et al. (2012: 420).

This research utilised a self-administered postal questionnaire for the survey, which enables administering the survey on a wide scale within budget limit. It also guarantees non-biased responses (Saunders et al., 2012). Despite the possibility of achieving a low response rate relative to other methods of data collection, several techniques are employed to enhance response rates such as proper length of questionnaire, cover letter, free return envelopes and follow-up letter, and an
(Sekaran, 2000). Details about questionnaire development and administration are provided in Chapter Eight.

4.6. Time Horizon

Decision regarding selecting research time horizon (either cross-sectional or longitudinal) has implications on data analysis. On one hand, cross-sectional study is “a study in which data are gathered just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks or months, in order to answer a research question” (Sekaran, 2000:138). This implies that data collection occurs in a snapshot of an on-going state across a large number of subjects (Collis and Hussey, 2003:45). Cross-sectional design is considered commonly associated with the survey methods (Walliman, 2006). Indeed, this approach is considered the frequently employed in social science research, because it offers reasonably fast and less expensive results (De Vaus, 2001).

On the other hand, longitudinal study is “a study that extends over a substantial period of time and involves studying changes over time’ (Remenyi et al., 1998:47). It seeks to examine a specific case or subjects several times or constantly throughout the time of the research problem. Although it might require a long time and high cost, longitudinal research could provide valuable understanding of the interplay of forces and transformations in an exact situation (De Vaus, 2001).

This research follows the mainstream research, and can be considered as a cross-sectional study as it was carried out using a survey and interviews once through a short duration.

Next, the research process considers the tactics; that is the fine points of collecting and analysing data – as shown in the centre of the research onion (Saunders et al., 2012). This is dealt with in chapters five and eight.

4.7. Ethical Considerations

Ethics denotes “the appropriateness of [the researchers] behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of [the research] work, or are affected by it” (Saunders et al., 2012:226). Based on Polonsky and Waller (2011), the researcher have to recognize the fundamentals of ethical research and their potential influence on research project. In this thesis, Hull University Business School (HUBS) ethical
procedures for research and teaching were followed in the different stages of research throughout the two phases.

Ethical issues during the research stages could be categorised into four types (Saunders et al., 2012:236): “1) ethical issues that affect the research process generally; 2) ethical issues during the design and initial access stages; 3) ethical issues during the data collection stage, and 4) ethical issues related to the analysis and reporting stages”. Accordingly, a number of considerations were taken into account to guarantee that no individual was negatively affected by carrying out this thesis.

Initially, and as requirement of Hull University, studies concerning human matters must be approved from HUBS Research Ethics Committee prior to conducting fieldwork. Therefore, a pro-forma for beginning a research project in HUBS was completed in order to adhere to ethical principles. This ethics pro-forma stated the purpose, processes, and the nature of the research, assuring no potential risks were associated. Consequently, approval from HUBS Research Ethics Committee was obtained before the fieldwork was conducted.

During the design and initial access stages, the following issues were considered. First, no pressure was imposed on respondents to participate, however, refusals to contribute in the research were accepted, which maintained individuals’ privacy. This is in line with Saunders et al. (2012:237) who state that researchers need to understand the “voluntary nature of respondents and the right to withdraw partially or completely from the process”. Second, respondents were provided with the informed consent form (See Appendix 5) approved by HUBS Research Ethics Committee, which explained to them, in detail, the research aims and procedures before they agreed to take part in it. The consent form is considered an essential characteristic of social science ethics (Oliver, 2004); thus, it was used to provide respondents with information they might require to decide on their engagement (Oliver, 2004).

Following Arksey and Knight’s (1999) suggestions, the consent form was a formal letter on headed paper from the research institution (HUBS), showing the researcher’s and the university’s contact details. Moreover, space was given at the
end of the consent form for participants to sign their names. Those who wished to obtain more information prior to engage in the research were offered the possibility of contacting a representative of Hull University who could provide more information about the project. In addition, an important matter was to restate what respondents have agreed, and give them a copy of the consent form. Accordingly, two copies of the consent form were provided, one for the respondent and the other for the researcher. This procedure is not only assumed to protect respondents and encourage them to assist in the research by providing date, however, it also protect against the probability of litigation from respondents claiming their rights (Homan, 1991).

Other issues where considered during the data collection stage, for instance protecting respondents from any possible physical harm, anxiety, discomfort, etc. This was attained by assuring respondents’ right to withdraw from the research at any time without any pressure, and not to answer any question they did not want to. Confidentiality and anonymity of respondents were also guaranteed, which is considered the ‘cornerstone’ of the ethical issues in management research (Saunders et al., 2012:241). Confidentiality, according to Arksey and Knight (1999:132), is about “not disclosing the identity of research respondents in way that can permit the individuals or institutions with which they are associated to be recognized”. This persuades respondents to give more honest and open responses, thus, enhances the quality of the research (Collis and Hussy, 2003). In this thesis, confidentiality of data was assured by undertaking the following procedures:

- Corporate names were held confidential and were not expressed in a manner that would allow them to be recognized. Accordingly, respondents were offered the opportunity to remain unidentified in a research report (Saunders et al., 2012).
- Transcribing the interviews was done by the researcher.
- Respondents’ personal data was not mentioned in the results.
- Raw data obtained was only utilised for the specified purpose of the research.
- Respondents were informed through a clear statement about the individuals who could access the collected data (e.g., the researcher, supervisors, and external and internal examiners).
Finally, during the analysis and reporting stages, consideration was taken not to misrepresent the information obtained (e.g., present the data honestly) (Saunders et al., 2012). Thus, this thesis was guided by the code of ethics for HUBS, which set out the rules and processes for carrying out the two empirical phases of research.

4.8. Summary

This chapter has discussed the research philosophy and methodology adopted in this thesis.

The research adopted the pragmatic paradigm and employed a mixed-methods approach, combining interpretive/qualitative and positivist/quantitative methods sequentially to explore the meaning and dimensionality of CI and its relationship with CSR. This was conducted in two phases and each entailed different data collection techniques.

The first phase of the research focused on practitioners and managerial viewpoints. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore opinions and attitudes regarding the meaning of CI, its key dimensions and the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR. Based on the outcomes of the first phase of research, a CI framework, theoretical framework and scale will be developed and the relationship between CI and CSR hypothesised in order to conduct the second phase of the research. Subsequently, the second phase empirically validated the CI framework and scale and tested the relationship between CI and CSR using surveys of a larger sample.

Decisions about finer details of data collection and analysis, research tactics, are addressed in chapters five and eight. This involves explanation and justification of the different qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques and data analysis procedures.

Chapter Five discusses in detail the procedures followed in collecting qualitative data using semi-structured interviews. It describes the interview schedule, the sampling, strategy and criteria for selecting companies, and data analysis using content analysis - utilising Miles and Huberman’s (1994) procedure and NVivo9. Finally, reliability and validity issues are also considered.
Chapter Eight discusses the questionnaire development process for quantitative data collection in detail in addition to the measurements of the variables. Discussion in this chapter also involves the target population, sampling process and statistical techniques. The latter entails descriptive and exploratory factor analysis (using SPSS19), followed by confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis/structure equation modelling (using SmartPLS). Finally, reliability and validity are discussed.

Figure 4.7 provides graphical illustration of the sequential mixed methods employed with thesis structure.

**Figure 4.7: Illustration of Sequential Mixed Methods Employed and Thesis Structure**

Source: Adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:154).
CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS APPROACH - PHASE 1

Table 5.1: The Research Stages

| PART 1 | Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis |
|        | Research Background, Research Problem, Statement and Questions, Research Objectives, Research Contribution, Thesis Structure |
|        | Chapter 2: CI Literature Review |
|        | Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct |
|        | Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review |
|        | Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI & CSR |
|        | Chapter 4: Research Methodology |
|        | Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy |
| PART 2 | Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach |
|        | Chapter 6: Qualitative Research Findings |
|        | Findings of Semi-Structured Interviews and Discussion of Qualitative Findings |
| PART 3 | Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework |
|        | Postulating the Domain of CI, Theorizing CI, Hypothesizing the Relationship between CI & CSR |
|        | Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach |
|        | Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods |
|        | Chapter 9: Quantitative Research Findings |
|        | Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SPSS |
|        | Chapter 10: Quantitative Research Findings |
|        | Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypothesis Testing Using Smart PLS |
|        | Chapter 11: Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings |
|        | Chapter 12: Research Contributions and Limitations |
|        | Theoretical, Managerial and Methodological Implications, Limitations and Future Research |

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5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the approaches upon which this thesis is based; the underlying philosophical assumptions, the research strategy and the mixed methods research design. This chapter deals with the process followed to collect and analyse the qualitative data in order to explain how the outcomes of the first phase of research were reached.

The chapter opens with a description of the sampling techniques used in qualitative research and justification for the choice made. This is followed by company and respondents selection, the selection of respondents, and the preparation of the interview protocol. The chapter then deliberates on the entire process of data analysis. Next, the chapter discusses the qualitative data analysis method adopted, namely qualitative content analysis, augmented by Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approach. NVivo9 software was also used to help in data analysis. The penultimate section discusses the validity and reliability issues of qualitative research, highlighting measures undertaken to ensure credibility in this thesis. Finally, summary section reiterates how this chapter has been informed by qualitative research design and content analysis (Elo and Kyngas, 2008; Patton, 2002) literature while facilitating collection and preparation of the data required for the next chapter – which discusses the findings from phase 1.

5.2. Sampling

In the qualitative research approach employed in this first phase, a non-probability sampling technique was adopted when selecting participating companies. Several scholars (e.g., Perry, 1998; Ritchie et al., 2003) agree that qualitative research uses non-probability sampling. In support of this strategy, Eisenhardt (1989:537) states that “random selection of cases is neither necessary, nor even preferable”.

Saunders et al. (2012) identify a range of non-probability sampling techniques, providing different alternatives to answer research questions and the objectives of a research project, as summarised in Table 5.2.
### Table 5.2: Non-Probability Sampling Techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quota Sampling</td>
<td>It is based on the premise that sample will represent the population as the variability in the sample for various quota variables is the same as that in the population.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposive Sampling</td>
<td>Enables the researcher to use judgement to select cases that will best enable to answer research question and meet objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowball Sampling</td>
<td>Used when it is difficult to identify members of the desire population.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Selecting Sample</td>
<td>The researcher allows a case, usually an individual, to identify the desire to take part in the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience sampling</td>
<td>Involves selecting haphazardly those cases easier to obtain for sampling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Saunders et al. (2007).

Considering the differences between various types of non-probability techniques mentioned above, a purposive sampling technique was chosen. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:370) state that:

“...many qualitative researchers employ purposive and not random sampling methods. They seek out group, settings and individuals where the processes being studied are most likely to occur”.

Purposive sampling allows using the judgement in selecting cases that are relevant to the research problem (to explore the meaning of CI, its elements, and its relationship with CSR). Furthermore, the technique allows for heterogeneous sampling which helps describe and explain key themes observed as well as identify patterns and make inferences in terms of industry sector, which is of particular interest and value here.

#### 5.2.1. Determining the Number of Companies

The literature does not provide clear-cut rules to determine the number of cases/companies in qualitative inquiry (Patton, 1990:11, quoted in Perry, 1998:793). However, there have been broad guidelines set forth by some authors in deciding the sample size. For example, Eisenhardt (1989:545) notes that qualitative researchers should proceed in adding cases (interviewees) until they reach a state of ‘theoretical saturation’ or ‘to the point of redundancy,’ as stated by Lincoln and Guba (1985:204). Both terms refer to a situation where the data being collected starts to be repetitive and little new major information emerges.
In determining a specific number of companies involved in a research, Eisenhardt (1989:545) states:

“While there is no ideal number of cases, a number between four and ten cases often works well. With fewer than four cases, it is often difficult to generate theory with much complexity”.

Similarly, Hedeges (1985:76-77) proposes that, “in practice, four to six companies could form a reasonable minimum for a serious project, while twelve companies should be the maximum”, considering the high cost involved and the amount of qualitative data to be analysed. To make the ‘ceiling’ even clearer, Miles and Huberman (1994:30) contend that “more than fifteen cases make a study unwieldy”.

Taking into account all the arguments and suggestions above, fifteen companies and three public relations (PR) agencies which work pre-eminently in CI and CSR were selected as the sample for this qualitative research. The criteria for selecting companies are discussed in the following section.

5.2.2. Criteria for Selecting Companies

To be able to uncover and explore aspects of CI and CSR, selected companies were identified based on the following criteria:

1. Have global reach (Einwiller and Will, 2002; Melewar et al., 2005a; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006) in order to have established CI and communication functions/departments responsible for managing it;

Arvidsson (2010) view large companies as first-adopters and trendsetters when it comes to corporate communication.

2. Have UK headquarters in order to facilitate face-to-face interviewing process;

3. Be among market leaders within their respective industry and have high repute corporate brands, e.g., rank high in reputation survey\(^4\) (Global Fortune 500, Manager Magazine, TIME);

\(^4\) The Reputation Quotient is a widely used scale for assessing corporate reputation. The scale was developed initially developed by Fombrun and Shanley (1990) and revised by Fombrun et al. (2000). Importantly, its reliability and validity have been proved by many studies. (Please see some examples of those studies in Corporate Reputation Review, 2002, Vol. 4, No. 4).
Van Bakkum, *et al.* (2008:86), in their empirical investigation on corporate branding and communication practices, argue that “leading companies with highly reputed corporate brands appear to be able to capitalize on the power of their corporate brand. This is based on the appearance of these brands in (1) the reputation quotient list of companies with high top of mind awareness scores (2008/9) and in (2) the Interbrand top 100 ranking of most valuable brands (2008/9”). This assures the involvement of such companies in CSR initiatives. Since areas of corporate reputation and CSR overlap, CSR elements are highly related to corporate reputation (Fombrun, 2005) and regarded as main drivers of corporate reputation (Hillenbrand and Money, 2007).

4. Show CSR initiatives.

Selected companies were members of Business in the Community (BITC), which is considered one of the oldest and largest national business-led coalitions devoted to CSR that motivate, encourages, engages, assists and challenges businesses to have positive influence in the workplace, local community, market and environment at large.

In addition, many companies were winners of ‘Awards for Excellence’ which is an independent and peer assessed CSR prize run by BITC along with the *Financial Times*. The award recognises and celebrates those firms who demonstrated originality, creativity and a persistent commitment to CSR.

The companies participated in the research came from a wide range of industrial sectors as displayed in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3: Industrial Sectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Business</th>
<th>Companies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadcasting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and Beverage</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT-Hardware, Software &amp; Services</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Consultancies</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In line with Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006:850) suggestion, “a broad cross-section of companies was chosen because part of the investigation aimed to analyse
why particular firms might perceive certain components as more important than others. For example, whether the choice of components and identity were related to the industry in which the company operates or any other company-specific influence”. Thus, the sample presents a diverse range of companies, functional areas, and positions, as explained below.

5.2.3. The Number of Interviewees/Respondents

Given the complexity and nature of qualitative research, the literature often avoids specifying the appropriate number of interviews needed in a particular research. As in the case of determining the number of companies/cases, there has been no agreement concerning what constitutes a sufficient number of respondents in a qualitative research. This is understandable, given that the number of respondents in qualitative research is contingent upon a number of factors, for example, the research objective, nature of phenomenon investigated, and the availability of time and resources on the part of the researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002; Saunders et al., 2012; Silverman, 2005). In support, Mintzberg (1979:583-584) argues that the choice of the number of interviews and sample size depends on what is to be studied; however, it should not preclude a small sample which has often proved superior.

As previously noted in determining the number of companies, interviews were undertaken until no major points or new information emerged from the interviews, in other words, reaching a point of theoretical saturation or stability (Eisenhardt, 1989; Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Notably, data on organisational strategy should be collected from knowledgeable and senior managers who are involved in the process (Eisenhardt, 1989; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In this thesis, CI and CSR issues are viewed as sources of competitive advantage, and thus should be the focus of senior management and positioned at the centre of an organisation’s strategy formation (Balmer, 1998).

Based on the argument presented above, twenty five semi-structured interviews were undertaken. Interviews were targeted at senior managers responsible for the CI mix (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) in addition to CSR management. This included three interviewees holding a marketing position, nine from communication, nine in the
domain of CSR, one from general management, and three directors in public relations (PR) agencies. Thus, interviewees covered a wide range of management knowledge and appropriate experience. Also, more than one individual was interviewed in certain organisations. (See Table 5.4) (Also See Appendix 2 for a list of companies, interviewees, duration and topics discussed in each interview)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Title</th>
<th>Number of Interviewees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing manager</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication and public affairs manager</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR manager</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General manager</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR consultant</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.4: Job Titles of Interviewees

The chosen sample was believed to be able to reveal detailed information required in the exploration and understanding of CI, CSR and their relationship (the central themes of this thesis), related to their experiences (Ritchie et al., 2003:78).

5.3. Interview schedule

Designing interview questions is a crucial in qualitative research (Collis and Hussey, 2003:168). Moreover, the way in which questions are asked during an interview has a major bearing on the responses (King, 2004:17). King (2004:15) indicated that “there are three sources for topics to be included in an interview guide: the research literature, the interviewer’s own personal knowledge and experience of the area, and informal preliminary work such as discussions with people who have personal experience of the research domain”. These three sources were used when preparing the interview guide.

The interview questions, for this thesis, were designed in two stages. The first version of the interview guide was designed according to the topics addressed in the literature review (Chapters Two and Three). The interview questions were pilot-tested with four participants including two academics (interested in the field of CI, branding and CSR), one marketing manager and one PR consultant. One of the main purposes of the pilot study was to assess the suitability and the appropriateness of the interview questions. Maxwell (2005) indicated that the interview guide should be pilot-tested with individuals similar to the intended respondents as possible to determine if the questions work as intended and revisions the researcher should
consider. Based on the pilot test modifications were made to the questions, where some questions were deleted and others amended, to produce the final version of the interview questions (Shown in Appendix 3). The general topics and themes covered in the interviews are summarised as follows:

1. The meaning of CI;
2. The elements of CI; the importance of communication, visual identity, behaviour, culture, values, mission statement, history, subcultures, organisational structure, and brand structure;
3. The nature and elements of CSR; and
4. The relationship between CI and CSR

In order to address the research questions, a semi-structured interview approach was utilized (discussed in Chapter Four, Section 4.4.1.) which is considered the most suitable approach to collect the views and experiences of branding and CSR managers and PR consultants, in the companies participating in the research.

Questions were designed as open-ended using phrases that help explore the participants’ points of view such as: what do you think about this issue? Can you discuss this point further? This gave the chance for participants to explain their point of view in detail, and allowed the interviewer to ask follow-up questions when needed, to encourage interviewees to provide information about specific issues.

Most of the questions (28 in total) were asked to all interviewees (PR, communication and CSR managers). However, in some interviews the researcher did not ask all the questions because either they were covered by responses to previous questions, or the interviewees did not show an interest in specific issues. Particularly, this was the case when more than one interviewee was interviewed from the same company; so each interviewee answered on the issues they were responsible for. Furthermore, all interviews were tape-recorded to avoid the loss of data and allow retrieval when needed, as suggested by Kvale (1996:160) who explained the significance of recording the interviews by stating that:

“The interviewer can then concentrate on the topic and the dynamics of the interview. The words and their tone, pauses, and the like, are recorded in a permanent form that can be returned to again and again for re listening”.

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5.4. Data Analysis Approach: Overview of the Procedures Followed In the Qualitative Analysis

Generally, unlike quantitative data analysis, there are no specific procedures to follow for analysing qualitative data (Punch, 2005). There are a wide range of different approaches by which qualitative data can be analysed, which are differentiated by tradition, theoretical perspectives and study aims. Here, data analysis of this exploratory phase was informed by content analysis and Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approaches for qualitative analysis. The following subsections describe and justify use of the two approaches. Furthermore, the overall approach was complemented by the use of a computer application (NVivo9) to support data storage and management as outlined in the analytical procedures (Section 5.4.3).

5.4.1. Content Analysis

Content analysis is a commonly used qualitative research method for analysing text data (Cavanagh, 1997). Content analysis seeks to develop valid and reliable interpretation of data in their setting (Krippendorff, 2012), in order to provide understanding and gain new insights of the studied phenomenon (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992).

As a research method, content analysis recognises the significance of language in human knowledge. Duriau et al. (2007:6) outlines the underlying principles of content analysis. “A key assumption is that the analysis of texts lets the researcher understand other people’s cognitive schemas (Huff, 1990; Gephart, 1993; Woodrum, 1984). In addition, content analysis assumes that groups of words reveal underlying themes, and that co-occurrences of keywords can be interpreted as reflecting association between the underlying concepts or categories. Thus, at its most basic, word frequency has been considered to be an indicator of cognitive centrality or importance”.

However, in management studies, content analysis offers a reliable methodology to examine profound collective or individual structures, e.g., attitudes, values and behaviours (Kabanoff, 1996).

Accordingly, content analysis is relevant to a wide range of organisational trends, for instance, corporate social responsibility (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2009; Dahlsrud, 2008;
Tate et al., 2009; Ullmann, 1985), and corporate identity (Cornelius et al., 2007; Ingenhoff and Fuhrer, 2010; Powell et al., 2009; Rolland and Bazzoni, 2009). This justifies the adoption of content analysis method for this thesis.

5.4.1.1. Types of Content Analysis

Two forms of content analysis emerge from the literature: qualitative and quantitative, also known as deductive and inductive. Content analysis is used as either a quantitative or a qualitative method (Berelson, 1952). In quantitative content analysis, data is coded into categories and then explained by statistics. “Qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words to examining language intensely for the purpose of classifying large amounts of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings” (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009:308). In this case, Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278) describe qualitative content analysis as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”.

Table 5.5 compares quantitative content analysis with its qualitative counterpart in order enhance the understanding of this method and be able to justify the use of qualitative content analysis in this thesis.

Given the insufficiency of prior knowledge about the relationship between CI and CSR and fragmentation of knowledge about CI, an inductive approach using purposive sampling was needed in order to explore research questions and achieve objectives, as recommended by Elo and Kyngas (2008). In this case, analysis of data had to allow to unique themes that illustrate the meaning of CI and develop its theoretical underpinning, as well as explain the relationship between CI and CSR.

Moreover, this thesis is not interested in “the statistical significance of the occurrence of particular texts or concepts, an aspect of quantitative content analysis that is frequently criticized for missing syntactical and semantic information embedded in the text”, as noted by Zhang and Wildemuth (2009:308). Hence, a qualitative approach was preferred.
### Table 5.5: Comparison between Quantitative and Qualitative Content Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Quantitative content analysis</th>
<th>Qualitative content analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Approach</strong></td>
<td>Mainly deductive</td>
<td>Mainly inductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose</strong></td>
<td>• Test hypotheses or address questions generated from theories or previous empirical research. • Used as a way to count manifest textual elements.</td>
<td>• Grounding the examination of topics and themes, as well as the inferences drawn from them, in the data. • Attempts to generate theory • Explore the meanings underlying physical messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sampling</strong></td>
<td>Requires the data to be selected using random sampling or other probabilistic approaches, so as to ensure the validity of statistical inference.</td>
<td>Requires samples for qualitative content analysis usually consist of purposively selected texts which can inform the research questions being investigated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes</strong></td>
<td>The quantitative approach produces numbers that can be manipulated with various statistical methods.</td>
<td>The qualitative approach usually produces descriptions or typologies, along with expressions from subjects reflecting how they view the social world. By this means, the perspectives of the producers of the text can be better understood by the investigator as well as the readers of the study’s results.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


#### 5.4.1.2. Approaches of Qualitative Content Analysis

Current applications of qualitative content analysis reveal three different approaches which vary in the degree of involvement of inductive reasoning (See Table 5.6): *conventional, directed, or summative* (Berg, 2001; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Patton, 2002). All approaches are employed to create inferences from the data (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005); however they differ in coding schemes and origins of codes, as explained below:

1. In conventional content analysis, the process of coding is inductively created from the raw data, an approach employed for grounded theory.
2. With a directed approach, analysis commences with literature or theory, which provide guidelines for developing early codes. Later, the researcher become familiar with the data and enables themes to materialise from it. This approach aims to expand or verify a conceptual or theoretical framework.
3. A summative approach commences with the counting of words or manifesting content, and after that broadens the analysis to incorporate themes and meanings.
This approach tends to be quantitative in the preliminary phases; however, its purpose is to understand inductively the usage of the words/indicators. Weber (1990) explains that the content analysis approach employed depends on the research problem and the theoretical concerns of the researcher.

Table 5.6: Approaches of Qualitative Content analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches of Content Analysis</th>
<th>Study Starts With</th>
<th>Timing of Defining Codes or Keywords</th>
<th>Source of Codes or Keywords</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Codes are defined during data analysis</td>
<td>Codes are derived from data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed</td>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Codes are defined before and during data analysis</td>
<td>Codes are derived from theory or relevant research findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summative</td>
<td>Keywords</td>
<td>Keywords are identified before and during data analysis</td>
<td>Keywords are derived from interest of researchers or review of literature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Given the above discussion on qualitative content analysis approaches, this thesis adopted a *directed approach*, where the analysis started with general themes generated from the literature, which changed and developed throughout analysis in order to develop CI taxonomy and a theoretical framework underpinning CI elements (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

The following discussion outlines how qualitative content analysis was applied for data analysis and interpretation.

5.4.1.3. Phases of Qualitative Content Analysis

To provide rigorous inferences, qualitative content analysis should follow clear and systematic guidelines for analysing data. Generally, content analysis entails the following three steps: preparation, organising, and reporting, as outlined by Elo and Kyngas (2008):

**Preparation:** this step involves defining the unit of analysis (Guthrie *et al.*, 2004) and obtaining a sense of the whole data (Burnard, 1991; Morse, 1994; Tesch, 1990). Determining the unit of analysis depends on several factors, e.g., what is being analysed and the sample used (Cavanagh 1997). Making sense of the data involves
learning ‘what is going on’ (Morse, 1994) by reading through the written material several times and being familiar with the data (Burnard, 1991).

**Organising:** Organising the qualitative data involves *open coding, creating categories* and *abstraction*. *Open coding* entails taking notes and creating headlines in the margins as reading through the text several times in order to explain in detail all important features (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). At this phase, the headlines are grouped in the form of free categories in coding sheets. Then, similar free categories are organised in higher order groups, a process called *categorisation* (Dey, 1993). This enables explaining the phenomenon and comparing data (observations) which belongs to different categories (phenomenon) (Cavanagh, 1997). *Abstraction* refers to developing an overall illustration of the examined subject by creating categories, where each assigned a name that reflects it content and attributes. Similar subcategories are organised with each other forming categories, which are further organised creating main categories, etc.

**Reporting:** Reporting the study and presenting its results is the final phase in content analysis. In order to ensure credibility of findings, it is important to provide readers with detailed explanation of the data analysis process and findings, emphasising points of strength and weakness (Elo and Kyngas, 2008).

Despite these steps, Elo and Kyngas (2008:109) argue that there are no organised procedures or straightforward steps for content analysis; each investigation is unique, and the outcomes based on the expertise and skills of the researcher. Generally, qualitative content data analysis commences with preparing the data and proceeds through reporting the results. The main characteristic of content analysis is classifying large amount of data in few content categories (Burnard 1996). Particularly, qualitative content analysis involves “qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings” (Patton, 2002:453).

Importantly, Elo and Kyngas (2008:113) note that “content analysis does not proceed in a linear fashion and is more complex and difficult than it seems to be, since being it is less standardized and formulaic. Thus, one challenge of content analysis is the fact that it is very flexible and there is no simple, ‘right’ way of doing it. Researchers
must judge what variations are most appropriate for their particular problems”. To avoid this process, the use of content analysis in this thesis is augmented by Miles and Huberman (1994), as explained below.

5.4.2. Combining Miles and Huberman’s (1994) Approach

“In general, data analysis means a search for patterns in data – recurrent behaviours, objects, or a body of knowledge. Once a pattern is identified, it is interpreted in terms of a social theory or the setting in which it occurred” (Neuman, 2000:426).

In this thesis, the implementation of content analysis is augmented by the adoption of Miles and Huberman’s approach (1994). The main reason for adopting this approach is its harmony with the multidisciplinary approach, the theoretical underpinning of CI in this thesis. One of the main assumptions of the multidisciplinary perspective of CI creates interrelationship where dimensions are connected in relation to each other. Miles and Huberman do not consider analysis as a process which is separate from other steps of doing research; they define analysis in relation to other processes of the research as shown in Figure 5.1.

**Figure 5.1: Miles and Huberman’s Approach for Data Analysis**

![Diagram of Miles and Huberman's Approach for Data Analysis](image)

Source: Miles and Huberman (1994:12).

Miles and Huberman’s approach has three main phases which involves stages of data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. These three phases are interconnected. They occur concurrently and shape one another as discussed below.
**Data reduction:** data reduction is a part of analysis which facilitates sorting, discarding and organising the data in a form that allows drawing and verifying final conclusions. It occurs continuously throughout the research, even prior to the actual data collection. In the early stage of analysis, it is represented in, for example, the identification of research questions, case study, sub-cases, and data collection methods. In the middle stage, data reduction takes place through coding and memoing. The process of data reduction persists after the fieldwork, until a final report is produced. When reducing the data, it is crucial that significant data is not lost or stripped from their context (Punch, 2000). Miles and Huberman (1994:57) put forward three approaches for coding:

- “Creating a provisional ‘start list’ of codes prior to fieldwork. That list comes from the conceptual framework, list of research questions, hypotheses, problem areas, and/or key variables which the researcher brings to the study. Nevertheless, the start list is temporary. It is open to change and modification as the study proceeds. They argued that a start-list helps to orient the researcher to the conceptual purpose of the study.

- A more inductive researcher may not want to pre code any data until it is collected, sees how it functions or nests in its context, and determines how many varieties there are. This is the ‘grounded’ approach advocated by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

- Partway between a priori and inductive approaches, is that of creating a general accounting system of codes that is not content-specific but that points to the general domains, in which codes can be developed inductively”.

In this thesis, the third approach was adopted when creating codes; some codes have been determined according to relevant categories that emerged from the literature review while other categories were created inductively from data. Strauss and Corbin, (2008) introduced the same idea, emphasising that researchers bring to an inquiry a considerable background from the literature. They added that still “there is always something new to discover; if everything about a topic is known beforehand, there is no need for qualitative study” (Strauss and Corbin, 2008:36).
However, for all the three approaches of coding, codes will change and develop continually during analysis. The final list of codes then needs to be described in detail (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In respect to the coding process, it involves developing first level and pattern coding:

- The first level coding aims to produce a working set of codes. At this level, codes might be descriptive as they entail little interpretation. It involves a process of naming and classifying what is in the data where the researcher is only “attributing a class of phenomena to a segment of text” (Miles and Huberman, 1994:57). The researcher may go far in this level by handling the data more interpretatively. First level codes are helpful in starting the analysis started, and allows the researcher to obtain the sense of the data (Punch, 2005:200). Further, they are very useful in summarising segments of data and provide the basis for the pattern codes (Fielding and Lee, 1998).

- The pattern codes are “explanatory or inferential codes as they identify an emergent theme, configuration or explanation” (Miles and Huberman, 1994:69). They pull together material into smaller and more meaningful units. According to Miles and Huberman (1994:70), “pattern codes usually turn around four often interrelated, summarisers: themes, causes/explanations, relationships among people and more theoretical construct”.

**Data display:** The reduced data need to be displayed it in an immediately accessible, compact or summarised form so that the analysts as well as readers can see what is happening. The displays can include graphs, figures, charts and tables (See Table of Contents for examples of figures and tables used in this research). Data display is the basis for further analysis to facilitate drawing conclusions.
Conclusion drawing and verification: this is the final phase of analysis. The aim of this stage is to integrate what has been achieved into a meaningful and coherent picture of data. In this stage, the researcher begins to formally make decisions about the meaning of things. Some conclusions might occur to researchers in previous analytical stages of data collection. However, Miles and Huberman (1994) advised that researchers need to hold these conclusions until the final stage when all data are in. Also in this stage, the concepts and proposition are presented in a form of the research findings (this is presented in Chapters Six, and further discussion about drawing on prior theories to interpret the findings is presented in Chapter Six and 7). Further, Miles and Huberman (1994) emphasised that the emergent meanings from the data need to be examined for their trustworthiness (See Section 5.7. for details on quality considerations of qualitative data in this thesis).

5.4.3. Using NVivo9

The emergence of computer software that facilitates the analysis of qualitative data is considered a remarkable development in qualitative data research. Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) has been a “growth area in terms of both the proliferation of programmes that perform such analysis and the numbers of people using them” (Bryman and Bell, 2007:603). NVivo is recognised as one of the best software packages that increases the efficiency and speed of the analysis process (Gummesson, 2003:485). Scholars from different disciplines have used NVivo for qualitative data analysis, either as a helpful program for coding or to perform different tasks such as performing comparisons and generating themes.

In this thesis, NVivo9 software was used as a tool to aid the process of analysing and interpreting the data collected. To start using NVivo9, two steps were undertaken:

The first step was to create a project in the software for this research. This project acted as a container to all the data files used during the project. It became an organised storage file system that helped the researcher locate material and store it in one place (Creswell, 1998b). Opening project files enables immediate access to all of its components. Such live contact to source data increases the researcher's closeness
to data (Lewins and Silver, 2004). To do so, interview transcripts were prepared using word processor and then imported into NVivo9.

The second step was to arrange the transcripts in a meaningful way. Three folders were created in the sources: the first folder included the transcripts of interviews conducted with branding, marketing and communication managers; the second included transcripts of interviews conducted with CSR, sustainability and citizenship managers, while the third included transcripts of interviews conducted with directors in PR consultants. (Appendix 4 - Figures 1 and 2 presents snapshots from NVivo9 as example of the folders and cases created in the sources).

In this thesis, using NVivo9 encouraged the researcher to look at the transcripts line by line and think about the meaning of each sentence and idea. In other words, it helped to ‘micro analyse’ the interview transcripts (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:57). Creswell (1998b:156) indicates that researchers who do not use computer software for qualitative data analysis are likely “to casually read through the text files or transcripts and not analyse each idea carefully”.

Moreover, using NVivo9 software provided this thesis many advantages as a tool to help in analysing the data such as (Beck, 2003; Creswell, 1998b; Silverman, 2005):

- Decreasing the time required to perform tedious manual tasks;
- Enabling the researcher to handle large amounts of qualitative data;
- Enhancing the flexibility and comprehensiveness of data handling
- Allowing for a more visible audit trail.

It is essential to indicate that NVivo assists the qualitative data analysis but it does not replace the thinking of the researcher (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Unlike quantitative data analysis, which can be automated, qualitative data analysis requires the intervention of the human mind as qualitative data needs to be uncovered, inferred and interpreted within a context. Such tasks cannot be performed by computer software. In other words, NVivo9 is a tool to assist the qualitative data

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5 Another option was to create the files directly using NVivo9. It was preferred to use the word processor as it has some functionality which is not provided by NVivo9 like spelling checking, word count, and thesaurus.
analysis as an iterative process; however, it is not a substitute for the core role of the analyst searching for meanings behind any given data.

Gummesson (2003:485) summarised this point by stating that

“The software can store data in an orderly way, provide structures and hierarchies of data, perform certain analytical tasks and respond to questions that the researcher puts to the data. Software assists, but does not take over interpretation”.

Based on the above discussion, the analysis of the qualitative phase of research was guided by concepts of content analysis and informed by the set of primary steps in doing qualitative content analysis, which were further developed by using the systematic approach of Miles and Huberman (1994), and facilitated using NVivo9. The following section presents the detailed process of analysing the qualitative research evidence (interviews).

5.5. The Analytical Process: The Process of Analysing the Data

This section aims to provide details of how the qualitative data analysis of the first phase of research was carried out. This involves: 1) preparing interviews for analysis (e.g., transcribing and validating interviews, importing interviews to NVivo software, defining unit of analysis and reading through interviews); and 2) generating codes and categories (e.g., general themes extracted from literature, abstract codes, higher-level codes and memoing).

5.5.1. Preparing Interviews for Analysis

Preparing the interviews for analysis is an important step that cannot be ignored. Creswell (2003:191) indicated that organising and preparing the data is the first step of analysis. The sequence of conducting the interviews and preparing them for analysis is shown in Figure 5.3.

Qualitative content analysis is employed to analyse different kinds of data, however, before starting the analysis, data need to be transformed into written form (Patton, 2002). In this thesis, qualitative content analysis was employed in analysing interview transcripts to reveal or model senior managers’ (practitioners’) thoughts and understanding regarding the meaning and elements of CI and its relationship with CSR.
Listening to interview tapes prior to transcription can be seen as a first step of analysis (Maxwell, 2005:96). Next, the transcripts were prepared. Transcripts considered as the principal sources of data for content analysis (Elo and Kyngas, 2008).

**Figure 5.3: The Sequence of Preparing the Interviews for Analysis**

Developed by the Researcher.

The transcription process is very time consuming; Bryman and Bell (2007:491) stated that researchers should allow five to six hours to prepare a transcription of a one hour interview. Interviews were transcribed by the researcher in order to be more familiar with the data which could speed the analysis process (Arkesy and Knight, 1999). In addition, all the interviews were fully transcribed to ensure that the details and richness of information emerging during the interviews were fully captured in their actual sequence. However, transcriptions are considered an inadequate record of non-verbal actions as they do not embrace the settings and visual aspects of the situation, neither the facial nor the body language of the interviewees (Kvale, 1996:161; Mason, 1996:53). To overcome this problem, observations were recorded during the interviews, which were later considered during the analysis.

After preparing the interview transcripts, they were subject to validation. Two established validation methods with regard to interview transcripts are respondent validation and peer validation. Respondent validation suggests that researchers should go back to respondents with the transcripts to verify or modify them, even to the extent of deleting certain points that had been raised during interviews.
The main objective of respondent validation is to seek congruence between the researcher’s accounts or impressions and the views or the thinking of respondents. Peer validation, on the other hand, involves the checking of transcripts or researchers’ accounts by a third party who has no connection with either the interviewee or the researcher. The purpose of peer checking is to ensure that the researcher’s transcripts or accounts reflect accurately with what was actually uttered by the subjects.

The respondent validation method has been criticised for posing a risk to the process of validating researchers’ accounts, especially when the participants are given a privileged status in relation to the accounts prepared by the researcher. Fielding and Fielding (1986:46, quoted in Silverman, 2005:212) argued that “there is no reason to assume that members have privileged status as commentators on their actions; hence, such feedback not be taken as direct validation or refutation of the observer’s inferences”. In addition, Bryman and Bell (2007:412) agreed that “respondent validation may invite defensive reaction on the part of research participants and even censorship. Accordingly, a decision was taken to rely on peer validation in order to ensure validity of interview transcripts. It was thought that as third parties, peers stand on a more neutral ground. They have no vested interests in interfering with or deviating from what was actually spoken in the recorded interviews handed to them. Three people were appointed, on a voluntary basis, to check the transcripts. Copies of the transcripts along with the tape recordings were given to the volunteers for checking purposes. These procedures were followed rigorously to guarantee a sufficient level of validity in the prepared accounts.

After preparing transcripts, they were imported into NVivo9 software. Also, at this stage, the unit of analysis was defined.

5.5.1.1. Define the Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to “the basic unit of text to be classified during content analysis” (Elo and Kyngas, 2008:109). Determining the coding unit is considered a fundamental decisions in content analysis (Cavanagh, 1997, Elo and Kyngas, 2008; Guthrie et al., 2004; Weber, 1990) since variations in the defining the unit of analysis can impact coding decisions and the possibility of comparing the findings with other similar research (De Wever et al., 2006).
Defining the unit of analysis depends on the research question; it could be a word, sentence, part of page, or number of participants in conversation (Robson, 1993). Graneheim and Lundman (2004:106) outlined that “the most suitable unit of analysis is whole interviews or observational protocols that are large enough to be considered as a whole and small enough to be kept in mind as a context for meaning during the analysis process”. Therefore, this thesis considers interviews as the unit of analysis. NVivo9 helped in classifying the interviews transcripts into three folders, as discussed in the previous section.

5.5.1.2. Reading through the Interviews

Reading through the interviews is an important step before starting coding and categorizing the data in order to gain a “general sense” of the data and “reflect on its overall meaning” (Bryman and Bell, 2007:594). Reading through the interviews helps the researcher to understand “What general ideas are participants saying? What is the tone of the ideas? What is the general impression of the overall depth, credibility, and use of the information?” (Creswell, 2003:191). Notes taken during reading the interviews are a valuable source that helps in generating the initial codes.

Whilst reading the interviews, the annotation tool of Nvivo9 was used. Annotations are fast to prepare and fast to access (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:50). The researcher can add any notes or ideas on the transcript. In addition, it allows the researcher to add more than one note, or idea, for each point if needed. (Appendix 4-Figure 3 shows an example of how annotations were in the qualitative analysis).

After getting the initial sense of the interviews, the coding process started using Nvivo9. Coding is an essential method for data reduction (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

5.5.2. Generating Codes and Categories

This sub-section represents the coding process for this thesis. This involves creating the general research themes, generating the early set of codes and categories, and emos in order to be able to draw the research conclusion (concepts and propositions).

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6 Like scribed notes in a margin; annotations enable the researcher to comment on selected content.
The literature presents two meanings of coding. On the one hand, “coding is the starting process of data analysis and the foundation for what comes later in this analysis” (Bryman and Bell, 2007:593; Punch, 2005:199). On the other hand “coding is analysis” (Miles and Huberman, 1994:56) as it is the core of the data analysis.

Both of these meanings are correct as coding starts the analysis and it also continues on different levels during the analysis (Punch, 2005:199) as will be discussed when introducing the types of coding. Miles and Huberman (1994:56) provide a comprehensive definition for coding by stating that:

“Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes usually are attached to ‘chunks’ of varying size—words, phases, sentences or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting”.

Neuman (2006:460) indicates that “coding involves two simultaneous activities: mechanical data reduction; and analytic categorisation of data”. Data reduction requires hard work from researchers to reduce huge amounts of raw data into few, manageable heaps. Data categorisation takes place when qualitative researchers analyse data by organising it into categories based on themes, concepts, or topics of related attributes and characteristics.

Codes are used to organise and retrieve the pieces of data. Organisation entails “some system for categorisation of the various pieces so the researcher can quickly find, pull out and cluster the segments related to a specific question or topic” (Miles and Huberman, 1994:57).

NVivo9 was utilised to facilitate the coding process. In NVivo9, the containers for coding are nodes, where a node is made for each topic or concept to be stored (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:24). The program permits multiple codes for the same

7What is a node? NVivo’s help system in earlier releases defined coding as “the process of marking passages of text in a project’s documents with nodes”. Thus, nodes are the way through which coding is accomplished. In turn, a node is defined in the latest releases as “a collection of references about a specific theme, place, person or other area of interest”. When coding a document, the node will include references to such parts of documents where the codes appear. When nodes are developed, they can be modified or removed. There are various kinds of nodes. Tree nodes and free nodes are two of these forms. In tree nodes, the nodes are structured in a treelike format, denoting linkages between them. In free nodes, the nodes stand-alone with no clear logical connection with other nodes.
data. Moreover, it helps to overcome the manual labour of coding, to rearrange the codes, and to retrieve them when needed, as coding using NVivo allows immediate retrieval of the text that was coded (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:23). However, it does not automatically make the codes as the researcher is the one who has to interpret the data, to create the codes, to reorganise and to retrieve them when needed. In other words, “CAQDAS does not and cannot help with decisions about how to code qualitative data or how to interpret findings” (Bryman and Bell, 2007:621).

5.5.2.1. Step One: Initial/General Themes Extracted from the Research Activity Model

The coding process of this research began with a set of general themes (Checkland and Holwell, 1998; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Miles and Huberman, 1994) informed by the initial CI taxonomy (see Section 2.4). Some codes were determined according to relevant categories emerged from the literature review while other categories were created inductively from the empirical data. This fits with the directed approach of qualitative content analysis explained in Section 5.5.2.1.

The following list of the initial themes emerged during the preliminary analysis of interviews:

1. Meaning of CI;
2. Elements of CI;
3. Nature of CSR;
4. Relationship between CI and CSR.

It is important to indicate that it is difficult to create fixed codes, when starting the analysis, and keep them without changes. Codes change and develop during the analysis as noted by Miles and Huberman (1994:61) and supported by Hsieh and Shannon (2005) in content analysis literature:

“Some codes do not work; others decay, no field material fits them. Other codes flourish, sometimes too much so. Too many segments get the same code, thus creating the familiar problem of bulk. This problem calls for breaking down into subcodes”.

This was the case while coding in this thesis. For example, the literature suggested three types of controlled corporate communication; market, organisational and management communication when dealing with the corporate communications
dimension, so codes were created for them. However, during data collection and analysis, it was clear that companies did not follow this categorization. Accordingly, these codes were omitted and replaced by two other codes: internal and external communication, which have an influence on manifesting CI, as pointed out by interviewees. Further, other codes flourished; interviewees pointed to different dimensions of CI in relation to CSR. Accordingly, this category was split into sub-categories: communication, behaviour culture, mission and founder concerns relate to the CSR.

5.5.2.2. Step two: Generating Codes and Categories

This step is concerned with the identification of codes taken from the data and the refinement of such codes into more abstract codes (categories). The coding process has started by assigning codes, which were seen as relevant to answering the research questions, to the texts stored in the NVivo9 project. (Appendix 4, Figures 4 and 5, presents snapshots from NVivo9 as an example of initial and abstract codes or categories created in this thesis). Coding was an overlapping process of reading through the texts, listening to the recorded interviews, consulting the CI taxonomy outputs, creating new codes, and refining existing ones. Two types of codes emerged during the analysis: early and abstract codes (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The early or initial level of coding is mainly descriptive and requires little or no inference beyond the coded data. Early level coding involves level codes which match with using the free node in NVivo. Free nodes do not assume relationships with other concepts, so they are useful at the beginning of coding (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:25). At this stage, it is useful to make generous use of free nodes in order not to structure the data too early. When the structure is more obvious, tree nodes are used (Bazeley and Richards, 2000). The following is a list of the early codes (free nodes) that emerged in the early stage of analysis and were further refined when developed to categories (Table 5.7).
The early codes/or free nodes shown in Table 5.7 include both the codes that were identified from the literature, and codes created inductively during the analysis.

The second level of coding is a higher-inference and explanatory pattern coding that brings together less abstract and more descriptive codes under it (Punch, 2000). The higher level coding is usually referred to by literature as categories, which Miles and
Huberman (1994) named ‘pattern codes’ and match with tree nodes created using NVivo9. Table 5.8 is a list of tree categories which are explained in Chapter Six.

Table 5.8: Summary of Categories and Sub-categories of the Qualitative Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tree Categories</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning of CI</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXTERNAL</td>
<td>Visual Expressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOLISTIC</td>
<td>What The Organisation Is/What It Stands For</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERNAL</td>
<td>Culture/Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elements of CI</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>Corporate Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager Behaviour/Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATIONS</td>
<td>External Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uncontrolled Communication - WOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURE</td>
<td>Corporate History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORPORATE STRUCTURE</td>
<td>Brand Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNTRY OF ORIGIN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MISSION STATEMENT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGANISATION FOUNDER</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VISUAL IDENTITY</td>
<td>Visual Design/Expressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nature of CSR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXIMIZE SHAREHOLDERS WEALTH</td>
<td>Corporate Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPPORT EMPLOYEES/STAKEHOLDER GROUPS</td>
<td>Employee Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAVE THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT</td>
<td>Management Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTRIBUTE TO LOCAL COMMUNITY/SOCIETY AT LARGE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CI &amp; CSR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>Corporate Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management Behaviour &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>Internal Communication &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External Communication &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURE</td>
<td>Values &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGANISATION FOUNDER</td>
<td>Value-based Leadership &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MISSION STATEMENT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tree nodes are used when the analyst finds that there is a need to create a node as a subcategory of another node (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:70). In other words, tree nodes are used when the analyst moves from descriptive coding towards interpretive coding. The tree nodes can be hierarchically-structured to include categories and any number of subcategories (See Appendix 4, Figure 5). The arrangement of the nodes
is flexible so that the trees can be rearranged to reflect the analyst’s perceptions towards the data in the different stages of analysis (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:72). In this thesis, the early codes (the free nodes) were put into categories (tree nodes) based on themes, concepts, and topics with common attributes and characteristics (Neuman, 2006).

5.5.2.3. Memoing

Memoing is another fundamental operation which starts at the beginning of analysis, like coding, and it continues till its end (Punch, 2005:201).

According to the widely used definition of Glaser (1978:83-84; cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994:72)

“A memo is the theorising write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding... it can be a sentence, a paragraph or few pages...it exhausts the analyst’s momentary ideation based on data with perhaps a little conceptual elaboration”.

However, Miles and Huberman (1994:72) added that memos do not stand only for the codes and their relationships as they can cover any aspect of the study. They can be substantive, theoretical, methodological or even personal.

Neuman (2006:464) pointed out that researchers can use analytic memos to discuss their thoughts and ideas about the coding process. Similarly, Maxwell (2005) mentioned that researchers have to regularly write memos while analysing data; memos captures, facilitates and stimulates the researcher’s insights and analytic thinking about the data. In other words, memos are potentially very helpful for researchers to focus their attention and to crystallise their thoughts and not to lose focus of their understanding on different issues (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:45; Bryman and Bell, 2007:589).

Thus, memos are ideas for making sense of data. They are stored for further work on them (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Memos can hold suggestions for deeper concepts than what coding has reached so far. They also link between different concepts and thus can produce propositions (Punch, 2005). In this thesis, memos were mainly used to find the relation between the data collected and the different theoretical
perspectives used in the second phase of research. These memos were helpful in the process of building the interdisciplinary theoretical framework that will be discussed in Chapter Six.

NVivo9 allows the creation of memos and links them with their sources (Bazeley and Richards, 2000:45) (See Appendix 4, Figure 6). However, the software does not allow linkage of one document with more than one memo, which could be regarded as a weak point in the program as some sources may give the researcher more than one idea to be added in the memos, but it cannot be linked to its source.

5.5.3. Drawing Conclusions and Reporting
The final step of the qualitative analysis involved integrating what has been achieved into a meaningful and coherent picture of data. At this stage, the researcher started formally to decide on meanings, and to present concepts and propositions in the form of research findings. This is explained in Chapter 6. Also, it is important to test the trustworthiness of the meanings emerging from the data, as asserted by Miles and Huberman (1994). The following section presents details on quality considerations of qualitative data analysis.

5.6. Assessing Quality of Qualitative Research
Debate among qualitative methodologists continues to take place about how to evaluate the quality and soundness of qualitative research (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Punch, 2005; Silverman, 2000). Guba and Lincoln (1989) introduced four criteria, upon which the quality of this qualitative research is to be judged. These are summarised in Table 5.9 and discussed below.

5.6.1. Credibility
Credibility refers to the “validity of setting the research frameworks” (Miyata and Kai 2009:67). This requires the findings of qualitative research to be convincing

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8 The difference between the memos and the annotations in Nvivo is that annotations are attached to the text and can be seen in the same window of the interview transcript, while memos are hyperlinked in the transcript to a separate folder named memos.
from the viewpoint of the research participants. Several activities are suggested that can be used during the research process to produce credible findings and interpretations, e.g., prolonged engagement, which entails staying in the field until data saturation occurs, triangulation, and member checking (Guba and Lincoln 1989; Miyata and Kai 2009; Riege 2003). The following are the techniques used in this thesis to enhance the creditability of the qualitative findings:

**Table 5.9: Criteria for Assessing the Quality of Qualitative Research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>Negotiates that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferability/generalisability</td>
<td>Concerns the degree to which the qualitative research results can be generalized to other contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependability</td>
<td>Concerns whether the applicability of obtaining the same findings if the same phenomenon is observed twice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmability</td>
<td>Concerns the degree to which the results could be confirmed by others.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Guba and Lincoln (1989).

1. Triangulation: is “an approach that employs multiple data sources, theories and methodologies” (Patton, 2002:556). Multiple sources of evidence were used in this thesis as it employed interviews and surveys in its data collection methods.

2. Referential adequacy: this refers to being able to prove the existence of the evidence that has been collected, such as audio recording. In this thesis, the recorded interviews are available with their transcripts. However, due to space limitations, these interviews are not included completely. Instead, segments of relevant parts (quotations) are included while presenting the findings in Chapter Six. The analysis of the interviews took place using NVivo9, thus, all the inputs to NVivo9, the process of the data, and the outputs are available.

3. Member checking: related to going back to the source of the information and checking both the data and the interpretation. The researcher was keen during the interview to restate or summarise the information obtained from respondents and then report back the preliminary findings. This process adds richness to a final report.

4. Disconfirming evidence or negative case analysis: The researcher actively searched for different accounts from more than one respondent in the same case in critical ways, for example, CSR and communication managers in the same
company, and managers in companies from different industrial sectors. Such different respondents or companies have different interest and perspectives which could reveal either confirming or disconfirming evidence, and subsequently may strengthen the validity of the data collected

5.6.2. Dependability

Dependability “is an evaluation criterion focused on the consistency of the research process and is applicable in cases where both method and phenomena might prove to be unstable” (Miyata and Kai 2009:70). Dependability corresponds to reliability in quantitative research. However, the latter assumes unchanging conditions that enable replication of the study, whereas, it is hard to presume stability in qualitative research (Lincoln and Guba, 1989), since qualitative studies generally rely on less controllable events (Miyata and Kai, 2009; Neuman, 2006). This is also due the interactive process between the researcher, setting and methods involved in qualitative research which can yield different results.

Dependability can be assessed by the audit trail, which presents how the researcher was able to reach what is reached (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). The audit trail includes a complete record of the different phases of the research process, tape recordings (available with the researcher), data reduction and analysis products (e.g., See Section 5.5).

5.6.3. Transferability

Transferability refers to the range of the findings’ applicability (Miyata and Kai, 2009). It concerns the degree to which the results can be applied to different contexts or with other respondents (Guba and Lincoln 1989; Babbie and Mouton 2001). Transferability corresponds to generalisability and external validity in quantitative research. This thesis follows the following strategies in order to assure transferability, as suggested by Patton (2002), Maxwell (2005) and Yin (2008).

1. Thick Description: this entails a thorough explanation of the phenomenon under investigation, which entails the researcher’s analysis together with the observed context (See Chapter 6).
2. Purposive selection of participants (See Sections 5.3 and 5.4): all respondents occupied senior positions, and as such were responsible for strategic
management practices in the organisations. Purposive selection is appropriate to qualitative research as it “purposively seeks both the typical and divergent data” (Erlandson et al., 1993:148) in order to maximise the range of specific details that can be gained from and about the research context.

3. Corroboration from other studies: this involves enfolding prior studies in which confirming and disconfirming evidences are argued, and interpreting the results of this research by using prior theories as a lens (See Chapter Six).

5.6.4. Confirmability

Confirmability concerns the neutrality of the observations and interventions in qualitative studies, which corresponds to objectivity in quantitative research (Miyata and Kai, 2009). In studies where participants are human beings, the observations and interventions may have an impact on the observed and the observer. In these cases, researchers need to demonstrate the confirmability of their studies. Guba and Lincoln (1989:243) stated that:

“Confirmability is concerned with assuring that data, interpretations, and outcomes of inquiries are rooted in the contexts and persons apart from the evaluator and not simply figments of the evaluator’s imagination”.

The usual technique for assuring confirmability is the confirmability audit. Guba and Lincoln (1989) assert that this audit and the dependability audit mentioned above can be done together. According to Miles and Huberman (1994) this is achieved by verifying that the findings and interpretations are founded on raw data and by clearly presenting the research methods and process (e.g., raw data, data reduction, analysis outcomes, process notes).

Also, this thesis established the correct operational measures for the theoretical concept to emerge, by carefully designing an interview schedule that went through considerable verification and piloting processes. To ensure accuracy and correctness in the interview transcripts, and hence give more credibility to the information provided, a peer validation or member checking exercise was undertaken. Finally, the whole research was undertaken in accordance with good practice and adherence to all relevant research ethics suggested by the literature, as discussed previously in Section 4.7 (Also See Appendix 5 for Consent Form).
5.7. Summary

This chapter has outlined the actual operation of collecting and analysing qualitative data carried out in the first phase of the research. The first section of the chapter provided an overview of qualitative sampling procedures with justification of the purposive sampling applied in the first phase of research. This was followed by reviewing the criteria/main features of the companies considered and respondents who participated in the interviews. The chapter then discussed the process of designing interview questions. A qualitative content analysis approach was employed to analyse the data, whereby the analysis was augmented by Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approach and the application of NVivo9. Steps undertaken for preparing and analysing the interviews were presented. These included recording, transcribing and validating interviews, defining the unit of analysis, importing interviews to NVivo9, reading through interviews, in addition to generating codes and themes and memoing. The criteria used to judge the quality and soundness of qualitative research in this thesis were then outlined in the penultimate section. Findings from the data collected are reported in the following chapter.
Table 6.1: The Research Stages

<table>
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<th>PART 1</th>
<th>PART 2</th>
<th>PART 3</th>
<th>PART 4</th>
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<td><strong>Chapter 2: CI Literature Review</strong>&lt;br&gt;Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct</td>
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<td><strong>Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review</strong>&lt;br&gt;Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</td>
<td><strong>Chapter 4: Research Methodology</strong>&lt;br&gt;Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy</td>
<td><strong>Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework</strong>&lt;br&gt;Postulating the Domain of CI, Theorizing CI, Hypothesizing the Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</td>
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<td><strong>Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach</strong>&lt;br&gt;Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
6.1. Introduction

As explained previously, the empirical research was carried out in two phases. The first phase was exploratory in nature, using qualitative semi-structured interviews with managers in leading UK based companies operating in different industrial sectors, in order to explore the meaning of corporate identity (CI); identify its key elements; and gain insights into the nature of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and its relationship with CI.

The previous chapter introduced the qualitative research design adopted and methods used in the first phase of the research, and explained how the data was analysed. This chapter presents an analysis and interpretation of the data gathered from this phase.

The interview analysis covers four main themes, as outlined in Chapter Five. The first two themes pertain to the meaning and elements of CI, respectively. The third theme concerns the nature of CSR while the fourth concerns the relationship between CI and CSR (See Section 5.5.2.1).

This chapter is structured by the data analysis themes. Following the introduction, the first four sections address the nature and meaning of CI, the elements and sub-elements of CI, the nature and meaning of CSR, and the relationships between CI and CSR, respectively. This is followed by a discussion of the main research outcomes and how these are taken forward in the next phase of research design. Finally, the concluding remarks summarise key findings and highlight how several of these were not encountered in previous literature review. In doing so, this chapter helps to explore the research questions and attempts to achieve the research objectives.

6.2. Nature and meaning of CI

This section analyses the data related to the first objective of the qualitative research concerned with exploring the nature and meaning of CI, and pertains to the first theme emerging from interviews analysis which encompasses managers’ views about the meaning of CI in their organisations.

The findings revealed three different perspectives related to CI meaning. First, thirteen interviewees acknowledged CI as an external perspective, which refers to the corporation’s external representation to different audiences, mainly customers.
This perspective includes the visual expression of the organisation through corporate logos and other elements (e.g., colour, staff uniforms). This also includes interviewees who associated CI with corporate image. Second, eight interviewees viewed CI from an internal perspective, identifying corporate values, culture, and behaviour when defining CI. Third, four interviewees offered a more holistic meaning to CI; pointing to internal aspects of the organisation as well as the visual expressions and communication used to convey their CI, which, in their view, make their organisations unique and different. For such companies, CI aligns different organisational aspects to provide a consistent approach throughout the business (See Table 6.2).

### Table 6.2: Meaning of CI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning of CI</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Quotations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>External Perspective</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Expressions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>“The ultimate representation of [CI] is what we call the blue oval, the oval name in the script is used if you want to summarize it [organisation] in one thing:... that is the core of our CI.” (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“It [CI] stretches from the corporate logo and our liveries through to the way that we present ourselves and our brands, and in other areas. I mean the architecture and the furniture of our buildings, the uniform that our employees have, and a number of other areas. So it is an integrated approach through the business.” (Corporate Communication Manager, Tobacco company).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate image</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>“Our CI is the overall perception that any of our stakeholders have; our patients, or surgeons, government body, etc.” (Creative Services Manager for Sales and Marketing, HealthCare company).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Perspective</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and Values</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>“It is the combination of our values and culture that defines the way this organisation makes decisions and positions itself. CI is a manifestation of the brand and its underlying values.” (Head of Mass Market and Distribution, Multinational Bank).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Holistic Perspective</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What the organisation is/What it stands for</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“CI is obviously having a consistent approach to the market, not just necessarily our visual identity but in terms of how we talk about things, how we behave in generally, how we present ourselves, and I think behaviourally as well as, in terms of marketing.” (Marketing Communications Manager, IT company).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“[CI] is about the clarity about what the business stands for.” (Communication Manager, Food and Drink company).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 6.2, eight interviewees associated CI with visual expressions of the organisation where they used the concept of CI primarily as a marketing tool; an umbrella term that encompassed logo, colour, architecture, furniture, uniform, and other elements those organisations used to distinguish themselves from competitors. Equally important, eight interviewees referred to CI as the internal culture and values of the organisation in terms of the way employees interact with each other, are treated by managers, and identify with the organisation. Five interviewees related CI to corporate image; stakeholders’ perceptions and beliefs about the organisation. Four interviewees perceived CI as more than just a corporate sign or representation for identification. Rather, in their view, CI denoted the organisation distinguishing way of doing business, its behaviour and interaction with the external environment through its staff.

Thus, the findings revealed disagreement on the meaning of CI. A possible reason for this disagreement could be due to confusion between CI concept and other related concepts, e.g., corporate brand, image and visual identity. These terms were often used interchangeably by interviewees, an issue noted in the CI literature (e.g., Melewar et al., 2005a; Simoes et al., 2005), particularly in the early phases of developing the CI domain. Another reason could be due to the variations in the nature of operations of companies sampled here since they represent a broad spectrum of industries. This was revealed from follow up telephone interviews with marketing consultants at a Public Relations company. This is plausible, given the proposed impact of industry characteristics (e.g., competitiveness, size and rate of change) on developing unique CI, which reflects the importance of industry identity as a key element in shaping CI (Olins, 1995; Melewar et al., 2005b). Indeed, this had implications on the design of second phase as explained later (See Section 6.6.1).

As discussed, the findings revealed both partial views of the meaning of CI, e.g., corporate logo and other representational forms used by the company; corporate image; and/or corporate values, as well as a more comprehensive and broader view of the concept which signpost what the organisation is/what it stands for. This reflects a multidisciplinary perspective of CI encompassing internal and external orientation of a wide array of elements, which may make each organisation unique and different from others.
6.3. CI Dimensions

This section refers to the second theme of the qualitative analysis and objective of the thesis which concerns identifying key dimensions and sub-dimensions of CI.

There are various dimensions that characterize CI, as discussed in Chapter Two, however this thesis focuses only on the dimensions outlines in Section 2.6 (See Figure 2.4). In this research, eight categories emerged from interview analysis that encompassed respondents’ views about CI elements. These included: corporate communications; corporate visual identity (CVI); behaviour; culture; mission statement; organisation founder and organisational structure, as displayed in Figure 6.1.

The following sub-sections present findings of the qualitative research in respect to each dimension of CI in detail.

**Figure 6.1: First Phase Analysis - Schematic Presentation of CI Dimensions**

[Shapes in white colour denote key dimensions and sub-dimensions of CI that were investigated in the second phase of research. While shapes in grey represent dimensions and sub-dimensions that were not considered as important to CI]
6.3.1. Corporate Communications

The first enquiry addressed the importance of corporate communications in manifesting CI. In this respect, interviewees were asked about the role of controlled (marketing, management and organisational) and uncontrolled communication (interpersonal, intermediary and intrapersonal).

Generally, there was strong agreement among all interviewees on the importance of controlled communication dimension to the CI construct. Communication directed at external stakeholders was considered as an integral element of CI, as all interviewees supported the view that marketing communication is fundamental in developing the desired corporate image. In terms of internal communication, seventeen interviewees noted the significance of communication flow among people in the organisation to disseminate information about corporate values, purpose, and direction, all of which serve to develop employee awareness. Understanding of the CI is crucial for staff in order to execute their duties and responsibilities effectively. Additionally, organisations communication about of the meaning and purpose of the CI is required to motivate staff to deliver the organisation promise.

[Internal communication] might be one of the first battles that you have within an organisation as you need to get people on board in terms of believing what the organisation is about and believing what the objectives are all about, where it is headed, and how it is going to get there. (Marketing Communication Manager, IT company)

Interviewees working in the service sector (e.g., healthcare) placed more emphasis on employees’ communication. The reason being, employees play a fundamental part in delivering CI, since they represent the link between the organisation and its external environment (See Section 6.3.3).

In addition, interviewees noted a wide range of communication tools directed to different stakeholders groups in order to achieve communication objectives.

Internet, email, signage, advertising, PR, general direct marketing, basically every opportunity to contact our customers or employees in my view is an important manifestation of our identity, our values and our culture. (Head of Mass Market and Distribution, Multinational Bank)
Interviewees were also asked about the categorization of marketing, organisational and management communication. Fifteen interviewees explicitly stated that in practice they did not use this categorization, rather they divided communication functions and activities into internal (mainly directed to employees) and external (mainly directed to customers and publics including government). These findings are consistent with Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) who reported senior managers’ opinions regarding the subdivisions of corporate communications which they saw as ‘a little artificial’ since interconnections and associations among these kinds of communication make it difficult to differentiate them.

From the range of internal communication tools, intranet and internal emails were noted by thirteen interviewees, which reflect how technology helped engage employees in active communication. Many communication messages were based on employee-generated content, which contributed to a collaborative environment and developed allegiance between companies and their employees.

*Internally, we use different methods for communicating with employees. We have an in house magazine which comes out every three months. We have a weekly email and a daily web site that have stories about the company. Stories on the web site are written and employees can comment on and blog around. This encourages and opens communication across the company. Also, we have in house TV.* (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

Notably, ten interviewees used phrases such as ‘walk the talk’ and ‘actions speak louder than words’ to describe expectations that corporate behaviour should match communication. That is, interviewees acknowledged that firms should develop accurate advertising, annual financial statements, and so forth. Indeed, today, misrepresentation can be met with harsh criticism, extensive publicity, and sometimes even legal penalties (Bartkus and Glassman, 2008).

In respect to uncontrolled communication, all interviewees agreed that CI and its communication are grounded in audience reception of messages. Also, customers and other stakeholders’ perceptions of the company are reinforced through uncontrolled communication. For example, five interviewees described Word-of-Mouth (WOM) communication from the close environment as powerful in motivating consumers to try company products and services.
An interviewee expressing the concern that his organisation had about WOM communication stated that:

*It [WOM] is incredibly important. According to research we have done, we asked customers: what are the sources of information that can influence you? Twenty five percent of people who responded to that survey replied by: A recommendation from a friend or relative. Consumers would take the opinion of friends or relatives, or aggregated opinion of strangers, and that is hugely important. There is also research which says that people would talk more about negative experience than positive experience (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)*

Thus, it seems managers in UK companies fully understand the importance of interpersonal uncontrolled corporate communication in influencing purchase intentions and corporate image. This is well known in the literature of consumer behaviour, stakeholders tend to rely on recommendations from others who have experiences about a company and its products and service (Williams and Moffitt, 1997). Also, in the CI literature, Cornelissen (2000) and Dacin and Brown (2002) comment that WOM information flow among consumers not only affects individuals' approaches to products and services, but may also influence their views about companies.

One reason for the growing importance of uncontrolled communication was related to the increasing scrutiny of public media, which reflect the relevance of intermediary WOM, as expressed by five interviewees:

*I think WOM is really quite important now when you have social media and how much WOM can be demonstrated on Twitter, that sort of WOM in public. (Senior Public Affairs Manager, Food and Beverage company)*

*Yes, I think in these days there is an admin of various social medias, the impact of the individual is growing and the ability to mobilize opinion is growing. So yes, I agree that this is a very important channel that should be managed. (Head of Mass Market and Distribution, Multinational Bank)*

Accordingly, it can be assumed that, not only person-to-person information exchange determines corporate image formation, but also communication by third parties such as the media, NGOs and governmental institutions etc. may shape individuals’ views about companies.
Further, ten interviewees stated that uncontrolled communication could be successful only if it is associated with fulfilling promises and achieving performance. This is acknowledged in the CI literature as positive unplanned communication often happens when corporate rhetoric is congruent with corporate behaviour and the reality of its operations (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

*I think the only way you could control that is consistency of behaviour and message from top to bottom throughout the organisation* (Creative Services Manager for Sales and Marketing, Healthcare company)

Interviewees also referred to another way to influence WOM communication, which was to ensure that employees were aware of and committed to achieve organisational objectives. This is plausible since uncontrolled communication often occurs when staff interacts with external audiences (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997), which reiterates the significance of interpersonal WOM in manifesting CI.

*Well, obviously the biggest ambassadors of any brand are the people who work for you. So what they think, what they say about the company is very important, and we make sure that everybody is fully briefed and informed about corporate goals and activates.* (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

This quotation acknowledges the dynamic inter-relationship between employee behaviour, communication and corporate image. Employee behaviour is generally a form of communicating corporate goals, values and intentions to stakeholders, therefore one method of reducing the occurrence of negative uncontrolled communication and influencing stakeholders’ perceptions is by gaining employee commitment to corporate objectives.

From the previous discussion, it would be false to assume that there is a one-way linear link between CI and corporate image. Also, it seems necessary to integrate uncontrolled communications, particularly, WOM, in the CI construct. This helps in understanding the receiver perspective, which is important in order to reveal how organisational cues are gathered and may be interpreted. Also, it allows the company to respond.
6.3.2. Corporate Visual Identity (CVI)

The second enquiry addressed the importance of CVI in articulating CI. Interviewees were asked whether they thought visual expressions are a key element in CI, and what sub-elements of visual design they considered important.

Almost all (twenty) interviewees identified how crucial was CVI to CI given the role the former played in corporate and brand identification through conveying the strengths and qualities of the firm and driving familiarity and recognition.

Well, it [CVI] is the physical manifestation of our identity; it drives customer recall through our values and our culture. It drives some core messages about our brand in terms of quality and distinction and our links with history, e.g., ‘ego’. (Head of Mass Market and Distribution, Multinational Bank)

Interviewees identified various components of CVI, where some appeared more important than others. Not surprisingly, corporate logo was the most important aspect of symbolism highlighted by interviewees, which plays a significant role in manifesting the implicit characteristics of their organisations. Seventeen interviewees highlighted the relevance of logo in communicating and reinforcing corporate values and emphasising specific attributes of CI.

The tint [logo], which is the kit, is a very deliberate visual. It is actually explicit to be sports kits which reflect our business: very strong, focused, dynamic, vision, so that a clear expression of how we see ourselves as the business. (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

Consistently, another interviewee reported:

The visual element of the brand is our corporate mark and it expresses our values and personality... we call it the energy burst which represents the energy of the employees and the enthusiasm that we bring into the company. (Creative Services Manager for Sales and Marketing, Healthcare company)

This finding implies that corporate logo is a tool which, if successfully managed, can be utilised to manifest the characteristics which a company wants to convey to its audiences. This is consistent with Van Riel and Van den Ban (2001) who explain the role of corporate symbols (e.g., logo) in assisting companies in expressing their features. Lately, Balmer (2008) outlined that visual expressions are able to convey the embodiment of an organisation, e.g., corporate principles and uniqueness.
In addition, ten interviewees perceived the company name as a central element of CVI, which carries connotations about the organisation that can create corporate associations, for instance trustworthiness, credibility, security, continuity, steadiness, advancement, and superiority.

*It [company name] conveys durability, it conveys a family name of the organisation; a principle element employees would recognise about ourselves.* (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

Another interviewee from a Healthcare company, which used the founder’s names as the company name, reflected that CEOs had recently updated CVI and suggested a new corporate name that could reflect its nature of operations. However, they preferred not to change the company name as it infused trust and confidence in the stability of the organisation and added credibility. This is in line with the opinion that brand names are emotionally loaded (Hutton, 1997) and facilitate placing the organisation in the mind of its target audiences (Ries and Trout, 1981).

The findings also revealed that colours can identify and differentiate an organisation’s identity. For example, an interviewee reported: “In Europe now, we use an additional orange colour which contrasts with blue and makes [us look] more modern which is relevant nowadays”. (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company) This reiterates the view of several scholars (Balmer, 1995; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar and Saunders, 2000) who argue that company name helps emphasise specific identity attributes, such as openness to communication.

Architecture was another important element of CVI. Seven interviewees agreed that buildings (with their internal and external structure and decoration) were important to communicate the purpose of the organisation and its main activities. They believed that the environment where transactions take place was powerful in creating an image about the organisation among employees, and other stakeholders.
A whole bunch of investment has gone into the building in 2001. The design of the building is important in terms of the way the company looks, the way that people come and interact with one another. Also important is the kind of eating space, and space we have for meeting, the way our brand is reflected around the building with decorations and signage. Generally, it [architecture] is very important. (Communication Manager, Food and Beverage Company)

A further point emerging in respect to CVI was consistency. As the most tangible aspect for expressing the organisation, visual identity was recognised as a visible common theme that appears in the way organisations expressed themselves, and thus should be applied with a substantial level of consistency.

Being a true multinational, one of the sections of our intranet is the CI guidelines from which people can download logos, typefaces, suggested approach to signage, even to sorts of furniture and posters. We try to have a relatively uniform approach to how we present ourselves whenever we are in the world. (Corporate Communication Manager, Tobacco company)

Collectively, the corporate logo, name, typeface, architecture, and other elements noted by some interviewees (e.g., employees’ uniform) were typically considered as components of company’s visual identity. Using such visual expressions consistently in all kinds of advertising and marketing were generally considered by managers to help publics to learn about the organisation, over time, the consistent presence of the company’s visual expressions was thought to influence public’s perception of the firm.

6.3.3. Behaviour

The third enquiry related to the relevance of behaviour in conveying CI. This involved questions regarding management and employees behaviour in daily interactions with each other and with the public. Also questions regarding corporate actions/behaviour especially in relation to social issues, were posed to interviewees from different industries in order to identify the significance of behaviour, as a dimension, in shaping CI. Thus, analysis of behaviour encompassed management, employee and corporate behaviour.

All interviewees pointed out that management behaviour, particularly their communications and actions, has a significantly impacted CI both internally and
externally. Fifteen interviewees claimed that senior management act as leaders who represent their companies and communicate, through words and deeds, corporate values, goals and vision. This in turn influences customers’ perceptions, inspires employees and impacts their behaviours and attitudes towards the organisation. Interviewees considered executives and high-level managers as examples and role models to other employees in some cases and that managers’ attitudes and actions are essential in creating benchmarks for employees behaviour.

*I do believe that organisations take their lead from the senior executives in each of the locations in which they operate. And, therefore, if the tonality of executives’ behaviour or style is one which is relatively congruent to our values, then I believe it is very quickly spread out in the organisation.* (Corporate Communication Manager, Tobacco company)

This quotation is consistent with the view of organisation behaviour scholars (such as Albert and Whetten, 1985; Hatch and Schultz, 1997) and CI and corporate branding scholars (such as Balmer, 2001a; Harris and De Chernatony, 2001; Kennedy, 1977; Simoes et al., 2005) regarding the role of decision-makers in CI management. They assert that organisation top managers are accountable for creating an environment that can motivate staff to internalise corporate values, which in turn may encourage employees to convey similar messages to outsiders.

In respect to employee behaviour, all interviewees recognised employees as ambassadors representing an interface between the company and its external stakeholders, which potentially influences consumers’ perceptions. Interviewees also noted the importance of employees in accurately understanding and communicating corporate values and goals in their daily behaviour. Employees’ values and principles, to a degree, are determined by corporate goals and culture, influenced actions and informal communicated messages. As such, employees’ behaviour was viewed by interviewees as a powerful communication tool, along with the more formal corporate communications and visual identity.

*I think it is important that your employees not only work for organisations but also live the value set of the organisation and express it. I do think there has to be coherence about what the company says and what it does, and what employees do.* (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)
Finally, all interviewees believed that organisation actions have a great influence on CI, since what the organisation does is linked to what it is. In particular, seventeen interviewees agreed that corporate behaviour towards social issues helps companies shape CI and can impact corporate reputation.

*The behaviour of the corporation is incredibly important because it is only through behaviours that people can trust the brand, and have a true relationship with it and what it represent.* (Corporate, PR and Communications Director, Food and Drug company)

*The community engagement - what we do in terms of helping the community that we serve and working with charities - is an embodiment of trust and reputation in the brand.* (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

Accordingly, most interviewees assume the behavioural dimension is important to CI construct. Behaviour is highly correlated to other CI elements, for instance communication and culture, providing support for interrelationship and dependence among these different elements. The important impact of behaviour on overall CI highlighted by interviewees is expected since what organisations ‘do’ plays an important role in forming perceived identity regarding what organisations stand for.

### 6.3.4. Culture

The fourth enquiry about CI dimensions addressed the importance of corporate culture in shaping CI and identified the main components constituting corporate culture, (e.g., values, mission statement, history, founder of the organisation, country of origin (COO) and sub-cultures), as proposed in the preliminary CI framework (See Section 2.6.4.).

Corporate culture was considered by all interviewees as a key dimension of CI construct. Twenty interviewees described culture as organisation shared values, beliefs, and behaviour that shape how firms conduct their business. In this sense, culture was considered fundamental and distinctive in relation to organisational character.

*It [culture] is about the ‘DNA’, different businesses have different cultures, and it is linked to CI as well as in terms of the behaviour and the principles that an organisation is operating with. We have our principles in terms of the way we operate. If you come to our business you would see a business based on principles and people who live by those principles tend to do well.* (General Manager, Food company)
Interestingly, most interviewees were able to describe the features of their respective organisation culture. For instance, a corporate communication manager from a Tobacco company stated what the culture represented: “I would say: inherent work hard, play hard culture. There is a lot of autonomy and independence”.

Thus, corporate culture was considered important in defining the working environment based on shared organisational values which in turn develop coherence among individuals and impact corporate and employees’ behaviour.

*We take ‘[company name] is a family’ in everything we do in a sense. We want our employees to feel that they are family members within the company.* (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

The following presents an analysis of its various components, which enables a systematic assessment of the notion of corporate culture.

The findings showed that corporate culture encompassed only one key component, namely, organisation values. In addition, culture included other elements, history and subcultures; however, they did not have crucial influence on culture or CI. Further, mission statement, organisation founder, and COO were considered dimensions of CI, rather than sub-dimensions /components of culture.

### 6.3.4.1. Values

All interviewees identified organisational values as a key constituent of culture that played a significant role in the formation of CI. Interviewees described values as a set of principles and beliefs held by personnel within the company which guided culture, directed employees’ behaviour and framed the way that organisations operated. Those values reflected CI, company performance and corporate behaviour.

*The culture is essentially the values that the organisation conducts itself, the way it deals with crises, the way it deals with victories, etc.* (Head of Mass Market and Distribution, Multinational Bank)

*Rather than saying CI is this, it is actually about saying what the brand is; what are our values, our purpose and mission, and actually that what shapes our CI.* (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

The way the organisation conducts itself, deals with crises, victories, and other situations often reflects the behaviour that organisation staff believe to differentiate
their company. This subsequently expresses organisation culture and relations with the external environment. Such corporate values commonly generate a foundation for the emotional aspect of the corporate brand, as argued by Urde (2009). Further, associating values with purpose and mission to describe CI highlights the importance of these elements in embracing CI. This view is consistent with Urde’s earlier work (2003:1026) who demonstrated that mission, including organisation values and goals, reflects overarching purpose: what the organisation wants to achieve, and how that will be achieved.

6.3.4.2. History

The findings revealed mixed results regarding the role of history in shaping corporate culture and developing CI. Seven interviewees did not acknowledge history as a key element of culture. One reason was due to mergers and acquisitions (M&A) which had reduced the impact of history on overall CI.

Not so much, I think both organisations from the [company name] side and [company name] side have a very long, hundreds of years history, but we are a fairly new company in terms of being together. (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

Similarly, another interviewee stated:

[Company name] has grown through a series of mergers and acquisitions of businesses in different countries. So it does not have the same sense of a shared identity and history and culture. (Marketing Communication Manager, IT company)

Further, an interviewee (General Manager, Food and Beverage company) denied the importance of history to CI, since the connection between the characteristics of CI and history could become stagnant. That is, a continuous referral to what was or has always been, could mean that the firm locks in on an identity that may have become dysfunctional although it is strongly supported in the organisation. Blomback and Brunninge (2009) noted that this risk is particularly present in companies that actively addresses history and seems to keep it alive through corporate communication.

For other respondents, CI was tightly connected to their corporate history. Ten interviewees, from different companies (e.g., broadcasting, automotive, food and drug) characterized by longevity and living up to their values and promises over time,
viewed history from both retrospective and forward-looking perspectives. They regarded history as a differentiating attribute and heritage which helped make the company relevant to the present, and prospectively, the future. Besides, these interviewees considered their corporate history a source of pride which created a sense of belonging and shared values. This in turn affected employee behaviour (commitment, loyalty and identification), and built trust and reputation over time. This view was expressed by an interviewee from an Automotive company:

... I do think that our history has shaped us and continues to shape us. It is just a thing that is behind you, underpinning behaviour. History is important for employees because there is a lot of pride in the heritage whether that is the feelings from [founder] in the beginning as we put the world on wheels, or it can be very local in a market like Britain where there is a huge pride having been market leaders for so long. (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

Consistently, an interviewee from a Food and Drug Company stated:

[Company name] is for 160 years and that is very much part of its heritage. That heritage is an important thing because we are a health and beauty company which gets passed on from mother to daughter. That longevity help to shape how people feel about the brand. So, there is much more a sense of belonging to [company name]. (Corporate, PR and Communications Director, Food and Drug company)

This is evidence that corporate image is created in the minds stakeholders over time, as a result, the history of corporate actions (reflected in its products, communication, behaviour, and others) can be key to the foundation of identity, which has a lasting impact on reputation. For such companies, history was also strongly related to another element of CI, the founder of the company, as explained later.

6.3.4.3. Subculture

There were two different opinions amongst interviewees regarding the influence of sub-cultures on corporate culture. Six interviewees stated that sub-cultures did not exist to any significant degree in their organisations; while ten interviewees believed that many sub-cultures could be recognised in their organisations. This was due to the large size and international operations of these companies.
Within any organisation of our size you would have smaller groups with slightly different cultures within different departments and different divisions. (Creative Services Manager for Sales and Marketing, Healthcare company)

However, ten interviewees claimed that sub-cultures were not problematic and had little influence on the existing culture and overall identity of the firm, the reason being that there were clear organisational goals, objectives and mission and prevailing organisational values which develop a dominant culture with shared meanings and commonalities across the organisation wide.

*This is partly because we have grown through acquisition. We have parts of the business which still maintain part of their previous identity, but there is some important values for example like focusing on returns and delivery which overlay those subcultures.* (Corporate Communication Manager, Tobacco Company)

It appears from the findings that overarching organisational values and principles prevail, which tended to lessen the impact of subcultures, thus, revealing a unitary perspective. The unitary perspective has been noted by Schein (1985), assuming that culture is monolithic, where employees share a common feeling of loyalty and commitment to a company.

### 6.3.5. Mission Statement

All companies had clear statements concerning organisation principles and objectives. Fourteen interviewees noted that the role of such statements was to explain corporate objectives to internal and external stakeholder groups. Thus, they perceived mission statements as an important organisational factor, which concerns the reason why the company exists and an important manifestation of CI. However, a few considered statements only a symbolic representations used mostly for impression management and PR purposes.

*...more and more across the whole company, our mission statement is important. It is quite very much part of developing our CI.* (Communication Manager, Food and Beverage company)

*...the vision and mission of the company fit to the very top level and give everybody a focus of who we are, what we are trying to achieve and how we have to get there.* (Product Marketing Manager, Telecommunication company)
Thus, it is clear that managers are aware of the importance of mission statement in reinforcing CI and consequently considered it as a key dimension of CI construct. However, interviewees did not perceive mission as a component of corporate culture. Moreover, they explained the role of the mission statement in embracing corporate values, and communicating its purpose and goals, thus becoming a point of reference and basis for employees and managers’ decisions and actions.

6.3.6. Organisation Founder
The findings revealed that organisation founder was a key dimension of CI construct, but not for all companies.

Five interviewees reported the relatively insignificant role of the founders, which had diminished over time. The reason being founders have been replaced by CEOs and boards of directors who are responsible for setting the vision and leading the management of the company, especially in case of companies which had passed through [many] merger and acquisition.

If you are talking about the founders, you are talking about people from a hundred years ago, so I think they are not relevant in terms of shaping the identity. (Product Marketing Manager, Telecommunication company)

A different view was reflected by ten interviewees who believed that the founder, especially in the developing stages of the company, played a key role and continued to be important in shaping CI. This was through their leadership position in setting the principles and values of the organisation which impacted corporate culture, behaviour, commitment to dedicated social areas and overall CI, even several years after their retirement or demise.

I think it is absolutely incredibly important and as I said, what was important to our founders is still relevant today. (Senior Public Affairs, Food and Drug company)

Another interviewee from a Tobacco company, when questioned about the influence of organisation founder on CI, stated this opinion:
[Company name] culture is quite paternalistic and it looks after the people and treats people well. And if we go back to the founders of [company name], sort of a hundred years ago, you can see that kind of giving paid holidays when it was not necessary and providing supports; these aspects of culture are sort of being retained. (Group CR Manager, Tobacco company)

The fact that interviewees were able to recall the role of company founders of their organisation suggests that they have played a role in development of CI by shaping initial corporate values culture. However, organisation founders were not considered a constituent element of culture. Also, some interviewees were more persistent than others regarding the perpetuation of that impact as time passed.

6.3.7. Country of Origin (COO)

Almost all interviewees were aware of the link that existed between the culture of the country from which the corporation originated and CI:

...around the world we are known for our news output, and I think that perception is that we are British and can be quite stuffy and dry (Head of Communications, Digital Media and Strategy, Broadcasting company)

Interviewees explained that customers are more likely to evaluate positively products originated from or produced in nations that have a favourable image. Also, consumers attached stereotypes and reputation to products of specific countries. For example, common associations were made about automotives such as: “American companies were followers rather than leaders of innovation and technology”, “Japan were seen as not very reliable” and “Italy was perceived to have a rust problem”, as described by a Marketing Communication Director from an Automotive company.

However, the findings revealed mixed views regarding the importance and influential role of COO in shaping CI. Eight interviewees claimed that COO had a significant influence on CI: “it is a Swiss company and that Swiss country element does comment on our research, perceptions of the company in the UK” (Senior Public Affair Manager, Food and Beverage company). Thus, these companies maintained national identity as an important part of CI.
Moreover, in other organisations, the impact of COO was declining due to globalisation since multinational companies operate in many different countries and consequently adapted their operations to local situations in such countries. Also, the effect of COO seemed weaker in companies which had gone for mergers and acquisitions, as well as companies which operated overseas for a long term with an organisation structure characterised by decentralisation. This view was reflected by a General Manager from a Food Company of American origin:

*I don’t think so...we are fairly decentralised as a business, so we have a very small head office. It is on a trading estate. Also, bear in mind that our brands have been in the UK from the 1930s.*

Another interviewee reported:

*The [company name] side is a British company and the [company name] side is a German company. But we don’t consider ourselves to be one or the other at all. We are extremely international. People tend to move a lot around the business. So you get a huge mix that really works in having the same culture across the business.* (Marketing Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

Thus, these companies could be characterised as multinational companies that operate in different countries and have overcome the COO effect by adapting their activities to local conditions in these countries (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

6.3.8. Corporate Structure

The fifth enquiry about CI dimensions addressed the relevance of corporate structure in conveying CI, which consists of brand structure (monolithic, endorsed and branded), as well as organisational structure (centralised vs. decentralised).

6.3.8.1. Brand Structure

As might be anticipated, the findings revealed different views concerning the relevance of brand structure for CI. Four interviewees stressed the importance of their monolithic branding strategy in order to differentiate their companies from competitors. The importance of brand structure was pointed out by interviewees representing companies with monolithic structure. In these companies, brand structure was considered vital in establishing identity and maintaining image in the market. This in turn strengthened customer loyalty, employee identification, and for such companies was fundamental in offsetting the growing retailer power.
I think it [brand structure] is important in our case because the [logo] is on the back and set on all of our products. So CI is to a large degree on the consumer side, inseparable from the brand, the product, the customer service and the dealers. That is all seen as [company name]. This can be a negative or positive thing. For example, in the US at the moment it is a very positive thing because the company is perceived as having a separate position from other manufacturers who compete to take government money, fight for loans or particular positions. This helps strengthen CI, product and brand as a whole position. (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

Another interviewee stated:

I think it [brand structure] is important; because our brand is shaping a lot our pride of engagement especially in the countries that [company name] is well known. I come from France, and [company name] is the biggest brand there. So obviously, it is shaping our identity because of the image associated with the products. Like when you say I am working with P&G, people directly involved in your competitive field will be aware of what it means. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)

Five interviewees, representing companies with endorsed and branded structure, felt it was not important for CI since customers were intangible of the manufacturing company operating the brands and that brand identity was the main focus of consumers.

Probably not, because [company name] brand is so strong, it has been now for 160 years. The fact that we are a part of [mother company name] group is, I think, much more significant for a limited number of stakeholders such as perhaps investors, analysts, people in government, as opposed to our customers. (Group Head of CSR, Food and Drug company)

This comment typically reflects the characteristics of endorsed CI structure, where the parent company remains visible, though the subsidiary company is a strong brand that keeps its own style (Ind, 1997). Similarly, an interviewee from a tobacco company with a brand structure reflected the insignificance of brand structure.

For us, we are like Unilever or P&G in the sense that we sell brands as a manufacturer. We are [company name], and so our logos always appear in the right hand side in the top of every one of our packs, the [company name] logo, which is simply a way we enforce our identity externally. But, I don’t expect most of our consumers would notice that, even though the logo is on there. (Corporate Communication Manager, Tobacco company)
Thus, brand structure seems to be a key element of CI for companies with a monolithic brand structure where corporate logo is the same as product; however, this element is not relevant for companies with an endorsed or brand structure where the brand identity is more important to consumers than the overall CI.

6.3.8.2. Organisation Structure

Similar to brand structure, the findings revealed mixed views regarding the importance of organisation structure to CI.

Seven interviewees agreed on the importance of centralisation to CI demonstrating how organisation structure was related to brand structure. Companies with a centralised organisational structure, tended to follow a monolithic brand structure which provided firms with the strength of consistency as each promotional activity supported others. This allowed firms to achieve marketing synergy. Therefore, it was important for centralised organisations to use the corporate name exclusively with one visual style worldwide in order to convey consistent CI. For example, interviewee from an Automotive company operating with a monolithic brand structure reflected on the importance of being centralised:

_Historically we have run regionally, probably we are moving towards a centralised model. We do believe that it is significant to have a centralised approach, trying to make sure that wherever you go in the market, particularly on the internet which is not defined by any physical borders, consumers see the same face of [company name]... That for us I think it is a very positive step, and also that is combined with making more central material, that help to again bring consistency._ (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

In this point, the interviewee referred to globalisation of operations as a driving factor for maintaining consistent look and behaviour of the company worldwide, which could be attained using a centralised organisational structure. This view is consistent with Stuart (1999a) who noted that organisational changes such as expansion, diversification and deregulation may require changes in organisation structure, at some point, in order to fit the type of CI structure.

Kammerer (1988) describes this type of identity structure as ‘Single Company Identity’ where all actions, messages and symbols come across as a consistent whole, referring to consistency as a main advantage. Van Riel (1995) took this approach
further by reasoning that the crucial issue is the extent to which the choice of communication policy reveals the parent behind the brand (labelled as ‘parent visibility’) in combination with the agreement about the common starting points in all company communication (labelled as ‘content guiding’).

A different view was reflected by six interviewees from companies employing endorsed and branded structure who pointed out the effectiveness of working within a decentralised structure, which gave managers more freedom in taking decisions and chance of implementing their ideas.

Thus, it was apparent the finding that corporations differ in their perspectives to the CI concept and how it relates to corporate structure (Stuart, 1999a). Organisations which employed a monolithic brand structure were more likely to implement a centralised organisational structure, due to the opportunities allowed for standardization and consistency. In contrast, companies with a brand-dominant structure realised that a decentralised organisational structure was more suitable for them since it allowed managers more autonomy. Importantly, interviewees did not stress structure as a key element of CI, though they tended to believe that structure followed CI, which could be changed or modified according to corporate operations, as expressed by a Corporate Communication Manager from a Tobacco company:

*The approach we use is a facilitator and enables achieve the desired behaviour because people clearly understand what their responsibilities are and the freedom they have.*

### 6.4. Nature of CSR

Generally speaking, the findings revealed an increasing importance of CSR, “*It is a very big part of our organisation, and this CSR drive seems to be growing substantially*” (Sustainability Associate Director, Multinational Bank). Also, interviewees used different terms interchangeably (e.g., corporate citizenship, corporate social sustainability and CSR) to refer to business decisions in relation to morals, complying with rules, respecting people and the environment, as well as commitment to help local communities and society. “*We use the term sustainability in our organisation, and prior to that we used the term corporate citizenship*” (Sustainability Manager, Automotive company).
Interviewees demonstrated different understandings of the meaning of the term CSR which included: 1) working toward improved shareholders’ wealth, 2) supporting people (e.g., staff and suppliers), 3) contributing to local communities and social outcomes, and 4) achieving successful performance for the environment (See Figure 6.3). Hence, CSR attempts were varied and ranged from improving relationships with society and different corporate audiences, and/or adopting products and procedures to minimising resource use and avoiding environmental pollution, as detailed below.

**Figure 6.2: First Phase Analysis - Nature of CSR in Practice**

![Diagram of CSR in Practice](image)

Developed by the Researcher using NVivo9.

### 6.4.1. Responsibility towards Shareholders

There was a common understanding among all interviewees that organisations operate in the benefit of owners-stockholders by increasing profit. In this sense, interviewees claimed that CSR entailed economic outcome, development and prosperity of organisations. However, interviewees pointed out that the realisation of economic responsibility only was insufficient for the total responsibility of organisations; organisations should give something back to society in order to embrace CSR.

*The CSR statement in which the CEOs said that we have got a double project which is both economy, so making a profitable business, and also social, having a sustainable business and behaving responsibly towards our people, towards our environment, towards our community in which we are operating. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)*
From the findings, it appears that all managers had a broad understanding of CSR which defines how business relates to society. This is viewed as “the most important departure of the concept from traditional management theory” (Gladwin et al., 1995), which asserted that organisations are only accountable for increasing stockholders’ resources (Friedman, 1962, 1970; Levitt, 1958).

6.4.2. Responsibility towards Employees and Other Stakeholders

Another understanding of the term CSR pertained to legal responsibility denoting responsibility towards various stakeholders, including internal staff/employees, customers and suppliers.

In terms of corporate responsibility towards employees, eight interviewees reported practices such as equal opportunity rights, human rights, diversity, discrimination, fairness, transparency, treating people decently, etc which were all governed by codes of conduct and corporate policies.

*It [CSR] is all stakeholders; one channel of our CSR policy is about corporate governance, legal compliance and good morals and strong ethics. There is a global code of conducts which goes into things which we would not engage in such as child labour. We acknowledge and represent fair rights to employees; we respect and value people differences in terms of diversity. So there is a lot of work around labour responsibilities. (Head of CSR, IT company)*

On the above point, an interviewee explained that integrity in corporate activity was a main part of corporate governance which complied with legislation about financial and regulatory controls to prevent fraud, corruption and bribery, thus, pointing to legal and ethical responsibilities as constituents of CSR.

Suppliers were another stakeholder group identified by seven interviewees, where companies had formed strong supply chains which allowed them to impose codes of conduct on their suppliers, divisions and subsidiaries.

*For example with issues of child labour; we don’t grow very much of our own tobacco, we still use about 95% from our third parties. So we had to influence our leaf supply chain and work in partnership with our own suppliers and the farmers below the suppliers. (Group CR Manager, Tobacco company)*
This comment highlights an important issue, namely child labour and welfare, which is considered an underlying theme of CSR (Zutshi et al., 2009). Children are often the first to be damaged in a work environment that lacks support, empowerment and basic safety standards (Winstanley et al., 2002). Importantly, responses to address allegations of child labour exploitation include development of regulations, guidelines, and codes of ethics (Groth and Roberts, 2001), which all point to the significance of legal and ethical obligations as important constituents of CSR.

6.4.3. Responsibility towards Local Community and Society

Fifteen interviewees described CSR as businesses obligations to different groups of stakeholder and the local communities they operate in:

We have three main areas for our social involvement point of view: first, activities that include environmental or conservation work; second, work with education in primary schools, for example, employees who want to have 2-hours off every Thursday afternoon to help children read. Third, is work with local community, for example, we decorate and restore a community hall as a sport team project. (Head of CSR, IT company)

I think it [CSR] is about a set of behaviours that clarifies the values of the organisation that reflect the fact we draw on our individual communities for our return on investment, our sales etc. and it is in many ways our responsibility that we make sure that we are making the appropriate contribution to those communities. (Sustainability Associate Director, Multinational Bank)

On this point, interviewees reflected the organisational responsibility to enhance social welfare through appropriate philanthropic activities and donating organisation capital. This reflects the essence of CSR which extends beyond the economic and legal obligations of the organisation.

6.4.4. Responsibility towards the Environment

The meaning of CSR was also associated with environmental sustainability. The findings revealed that proactively managing environmental programmes became essential to the corporate operations of seventeen managers interviewed. Fundamentally, understanding environmental sustainability is based on organisational efforts to prevent pollution and to operate within the carrying capacity of ecosystems by reducing resources used and corporate ecological footprint.
[CSR is] being environmentally aware and adopting appropriate environmental practices wherever possible. So in the case of our branches, we have initiatives to drive green technology to our branches including things like, lighting, environmentally appropriate air conditioning and heating strategies, appropriate building materials, etc. for new branches. (Sustainability Associate Director, Multinational Bank)

There are two sectors, environmental and social. In the environmental domain, we have a programme called CARBON 20, which is a program to reduce our carbon emissions by 20% by the year 2020. There are other areas within management, we have another programme which is called A HOME PLANET, which is a program to interface with consumers on how to best save energy through using our products, or how to save energy, water or company resources. (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

Thus, corporate environmental responsibility included internally and externally oriented social responsibility practices which involved voluntary programmes to lessen the environmental effect of factories and manufacturing techniques as well as developing sourcing and marketing activities that protect society well-being and commit to the benefit of the environment.

Therefore, the findings revealed that CSR represented a continuing commitment by organisations to support economic development, complying to regulations, and ethical behaviour, whilst enhancing the standard of living of its personnel, contributing to the society, in addition to addressing a wide variety of environmental problems.

Given that so many companies interviewed claimed their social and environmental management practices as evidence of CSR, it was important to understand how they pursued CSR in relation to their CI; or the way CSR is articulated in CI. The following section explains these points by discussing the relationship between CSR and CI.

6.5. Relationship between CI and CSR

When interviewees were asked about the relationship between CI and CSR, with the exception of one interviewee from a Food Company, interviewees asserted that CSR is highly related to CI. Initially, the responses were of the nature:
For [company name], it [CSR] is part of the DNA of the company which is set up hundred years ago and very much in the process of developing the business. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)

I think that embedded in organisation are the pillars of CSR, such as being responsible to your community, health and safety, etc which are embedded within the business systems themselves. (CSR Director, Healthcare company)

The CSR activity represents really the personality of the brand, because the things that we do in our CSR world underpins and supports the portrayal of the brand. (Corporate Communication Manager, Food and Drug company)

As shown from the quotations, interviewees described the relationship between CI and CSR as a way of doing business. This represents an interesting finding which implies that companies do not consider their economic and societal objectives as incompatible trade-offs. Instead, they are both incorporated into CI management, which reflects the interaction of business and society with CSR.

While these comments were explored in more detail, interviewees started to acknowledge how CI drove CSR, revealing the positive influence of CI elements on CSR initiatives and practices. “I suppose CI is our behaviours; how we do things, and CSR and performance are the outcomes; what are achieved from how we do things” (Group CSR Manager, Tobacco company).

Figure 6.3 represents the nature of relationship between CI and CSR. For simplicity, the interrelationships between CI dimensions are not included in the figure, although explained subsequently.
Figure 6.3: First Phase Analysis - Relationship between CI and CSR

Developed by the Researcher using NVivo9.

Figure 6.3 shows that CSR is derived by the identity of the organisation, particularly, CI dimensions, such as corporate communications (internal and external), behaviour (management, employee and corporate), culture (values), mission statement, and founder. This is explained in detail as follows.

6.5.1. Corporate Communications & CSR

Strong consensus existed among interviewees that corporate communication, directed towards external and internal stakeholders, was an important CI element that influenced CSR. In terms of external communication, an interviewee from an IT company stated:

> Well, everything that we do in terms of marketing communication is related to CSR. We position a whole set of corporate social responsibility elements that needs to be attached to every piece of marketing communication and this is something constantly communicated on the internet, by email, etc. In addition, we have separate campaigns about CSR and I place it very much top of mind when we communicate on a regular basis. (Product Marketing Manager, Telecommunication company)
It [CSR] is very much a kind of communication where we pour things together. It is where we can promote certain messages. So we kind of reinforce the culture and the positive messages about what the business is doing. (Group CR Manager, Tobacco company)

In respect to internal CSR communication, interviewees reflected the importance of employee, as a key stakeholder group:

It is important to make sure that communication, on what we are doing in terms of CSR, is clear to everyone inside the company. So it is a matter of making everyone aware and involved. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)

The majority of companies interviewed cited various channels and instruments for conveying CSR information, such as integrating ‘push’ channels (e.g., newsletters, CSR reports, e-mails) with ‘pull’ and interactive channels to offer employees the opportunity to express themselves (Mazzei, 2010). Nevertheless, the significance of successful internal communication has been outlined. For instance, an interviewee from a Food and Drug company emphasised the role of face to face communication in reaching organisation staff rather than depending just on indirect means of communication (e.g., e-media).

We have a lot of different ways to communicate our CSR activities with our people, whether through the intranet, internal magazines, internal face to face leadership meetings, we have regular employee forums and open discussion. (Group Head of CSR, Food and Drug company)

According to interviewees, employing interactive communication channels help companies to listen to employees, as key stakeholders, and potentially utilize their views and feedback in addition to operate transparently to allow employees learn more about the way in which the company operates.

From the above, it is clear that companies adopt a stakeholder approach in CSR communication which concerns internal communication with employees as well as external communication with different corporate audiences. Also, communication is viewed as a central aspect in managing CSR and stakeholder relationships in organisations, which is a key element of CI.
6.5.2. Behaviour & CSR

Three sub-categories emerged from the data concerning the relationship/influence behaviour dimension of CI has on CSR. These are related to management, employee and corporate behaviour.

For example, the findings revealed the important role of senior managers in enacting the strategic organisational core and emphasising CSR activities that were crucial to company survival and growth.

*We have a CSR statement in which the CEO said that we have got a double project which is both economic; so making a profitable business, and also social; having a sustainable business and behaving responsibly towards our people, towards our environment, towards our community in which we are operating. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)*

In this comment, the word ‘said’ signs the importance of the use of language by managers to justify organisation engagement in CSR. In this example, the CEO engaged in economic justification for corporate actions (Kolk, 2005; Porter and Kramer, 2002); expressing that the main contribution to the common good place in maximising profit, and outlining tangible contributions to stakeholders (e.g., environment, community). This ties with sensemaking literature which argues that CSR activities could be a result of internal organisational embedded cognitive and linguistic processes rather than external demands (Basu and Palazzo, 2008).

Another sub-category concerns employee behaviour. Almost all interviewees agreed that the effective delivery of CSR initiatives is dependent on employee willingness to collaborate.

*We actively encourage our employees to engage in the community in which they live, and that is seen as an important element of our responsibility. We have [company name] global week of caring, which is generally the second week of September, where we encourage all our employees globally to engage with their communities through projects that are organised by themselves or by the company. Also, we reward best behaviours and we publicize these among employees. (Sustainability Manager, Automotive company)*

This ties with the general recommendation by Collier and Esteban (2007), who argued that employees’ experiences of their working life is crucial to the creation of
self-esteem, and their understanding of their own identity, which in turn is linked to their views of and identification with the organisation.

In addition, interviewees stressed the importance of responsible corporate behaviour (toward employees, consumers, communities, society at large) and considered it a facet of wider corporate behaviour. Through corporate behaviour and operations, corporate social behaviour was believed to reinforce CI and reflect the character (personality) of the organisation. An organisation’s social initiatives commonly represent the essence, identifying or the unique and developing features of its CI, as argued by Balmer (2001a). This was considered as central by interviewees since CSR associations influence consumers’ opinions of a company and thus may impact product evaluations.

_The CSR activity represents really the personality of the brand, because the things that we do in our CSR world underpins and supports the portrayal of the brand._ (Corporate, PR and Communications Director, Food and Drug company)

Another interviewee reported:

_CRS is a reflection of company’s behaviour. [Company name] is proud of itself in having been for hundred years and we want to be of relevance for next hundred years. I think that CSR demonstrate that we care about the longevity of the organisation. We are not here to exploit short term opportunities; we want to be a part of communities, address society’s ills and come up with solutions through our products. It is a very important part of the company’s behaviour._ (Sustainability Manager, Automotive company)

The findings also revealed that companies are actively responsible towards different stakeholder groups to the extent that became a thread that runs throughout the organisation in daily operational terms:

_Health and safety, as we run and plan our factories, are priority. Also, we run our plants as efficiently as possible and we aim to reduce waste. Similarly, in the health care economics, we make products that benefit our health care systems. This is obviously part of our main focus._ (CSR Director, Healthcare company)

This reflects stakeholder management stance that maintains corporate responsibility towards a variety of audiences such as environment, customers and shareholders, which contrasts the traditional legal/economic perspective that stresses the
corporation’s sole responsibility towards maximizing shareholders’ wealth. The findings also revealed that companies are actively responsible for different stakeholder groups, such that this responsibility affects the entire organisation in daily operational terms:

Health and safety, as we run and plan our factories, are priorities. Also, we run our plants as efficiently as possible and we aim to reduce waste. Similarly, in the healthcare economics, we make products that benefit our health care systems. This is obviously part of our main focus. (CSR Director, Healthcare company)

This comment reflects a stakeholder management stance towards corporate responsibility for various audiences, including environment, customers, and shareholders, which contrasts the traditional legal/economic perspective that stresses the corporation’s sole responsibility towards maximizing shareholders’ wealth.

6.5.3. Culture & CSR

The majority (twenty) of interviewees asserted the importance of values as a foundation of corporate culture and noted that CSR was one of the pillars of corporate values. For example:

There has been a huge drive towards CSR projects because one of our core values that we talked about is ‘embracing change for the better’. These projects are high profile and we do put a lot weight upon them. (Director of Corporate Affairs, Broadcasting company)

One of our brand values is around sustainability, so this has been definitely given a huge consideration….Sustainability and environment are embedded into the culture. It is not something that we have added separately in recent years because it is quite trendy to do so. It is something that we have done for years just because that is the way the company work not because somebody has thought it is a great idea, or opportunity for business and a proposition. It is the way we do things. (Head of CSR, IT company)

These statements suggest that interviewees accept the CSR values and adopt and internalize them into their company’s strategic goals (Hillestad et al., 2010), which provides an essential prerequisite for developing successful CI (Schultz et al., 2005). Further, using the word ‘our’ reflects employee identification as they adopt the fundamental and unique values of their organisations as defining characteristics of
themselves, as noted in the literature of organisational identification (e.g., Johnson and Ashforth, 2008).

The findings also revealed that organisational values had often been attributed to the organisation founder:

*The principals and founders put these five principles in place in 1947: responsibility, efficiency, quality, mutuality, freedom. Those are consistent throughout the organisation. (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)*

Thus, the arrangement of an organisation’s shared norms, supporting ideas, practices, traditions, and principles converges to offer an organisation culture its unique characteristics. Corporate values express corporate obligation to its different audiences, environment and local community. Such commitment can be manifested in different aspects of the company’s activities and can become its true essence as shown in company behaviour and performance (Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000). For example, Johnson & Johnson displayed this in its management of the Tylenol crisis in 1982. Undoubtedly, its reaction to that crisis and subsequent behaviours resulted in widespread public acceptance of what Johnson & Johnson stands for.

### 6.5.4. Mission & CSR

Fifteen interviewees perceived mission statements as central to the interpretation and legitimisation of CSR, and as expressions of CI. Interviewees also legitimised CSR issues as part of CI in terms of an internal economic focus that emphasises maximizing both financial performance objectives and the broader corporate social and environmental platform.

*The] mission of the company considers making profit in a sustainable way, our people, our planet and the community around us. So, CSR is the social part of the corporate mission. (Senior Public Affairs Manager, Food and Beverage company)*

Inclusion of environment and society in corporate mission statements advocates that these groups of stakeholders are significant to organisations and executives (Mitchell et al., 1997); therefore, such statements can serve as indicators of an organisation’s priorities and actions towards CSR (Bartkus and Glassman, 2008).
According to Wood (1991), CSR should deliberately include public interests while taking business decisions, admiring the triple bottom line of people, planet, and profit. This view was also reflected by the interviewees. As an interviewee from a food and beverage company stated: “We have something called principles and actions, so basically everything we do, we try to do things in three ways, to impact performance, impact the planet and impact people”. Thus, integrating CSR issues into mission statements draws consideration to social environmental responsibility as a legal concern of organisational activities, which is central to CI.

_Before we address any [CSR] issue we should check if it is in line with our overall corporate mission which is around health for all and through nutrition, in general by tackling issues around diet, health and things related to health and food or food waste.... [It is] all around food._ (CSR Manager, Food and Beverage company)

This quotation provides support for Bartkus and Glassman’s (2008) work, which suggests that the mission statement is formed to direct and/or reveal rules and processes in the organisation, and thus ought to describe accurately corporate activities for managing stakeholder issues.

Thus, from a stakeholder management stance, in general, the mission statement is important for coordinating corporate utilitarian and moral objectives across the company. Statements help align collective organisational thinking and behaviour, resulting in a homogeneous corporate culture with an embedded CSR initiative.

### 6.5.5. Organisation Founder & CSR

In general, interviewees acknowledged the founder’s leadership role in influencing organisational commitment to dedicated social areas. From the findings, it is clear that the influence of founder was frequently accomplished by recognising CSR as an important and central corporate value:

_I think that he helped shape the company because he recognised that we have to be sustainable and he had a phrase, “We have to be affordable financially and affordable socially and environmentally”. I think he was one of the first executives in the car industry to address green issues. So, in that way he exercised leadership on issues related to social and environmental responsibility._ (Sustainability Manager, Automotive company)
In this respect, Child (1987:171) argues that organisational norms often originate from “the ideology of a founder who set out both a strategic perspective on the task of the organisation and a philosophy on the form of labour process to accomplish it” - in this case a departed, charismatic leader (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985; Stuart, 1999). This was the case for several of the companies; here, corporate culture was based on rich CSR and the moral values and beliefs established by founders and shared by organisational members, helping form an ideology that distinguished the organisation from others.

*I think that the founder’s values are very much still embedded in the company; we are not a premium volume manufacturer, but we still try to make vehicles that give people something they previously thought they could not afford. I think this is reflected in the culture of the organisation.* (Marketing Communication Director, Automotive company)

### 6.6. Discussion of Findings

Guided by the literature review, Chapter Two developed a preliminary CI definition and taxonomy. The construct is considered to comprise corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, and organisational structure. In addition, CSR encompasses economic, legal, ethical and philanthropy responsibilities.

This section discusses the findings of the qualitative analyses in the context of the literature review (Chapters Two and Three) and other relevant literature, as new insights were revealed from the findings. The importance of this discussion is to address the research questions by clarifying the meaning of CI, identifying its key elements which implicitly addresses the question concerning CI measurement, and explain the relationship between CI and CSR which entails, initially, gaining insights into the nature of CSR in practice.

By doing so, this thesis moves towards achieving its research objectives through developing a CI framework/taxonomy constituting its key elements, building a theoretical framework underpinning CI elements, and subsequently operationalising and developing a scale for measuring CI. In addition, exploring the relationship between CI and CSR allows formulation of a hypothesis to test such a relationship.
6.6.1. Meaning of CI

As the findings indicated, there were diverse meanings associated to CI which appeared to be a result of variations in the nature of operations and industries of the corporations in this research.

Almost half of the interviewees referred to CI as the visual modelling and external representation of the organisation to various stakeholders. This corroborates early definitions of CI offered in the practitioners’ literature on CI (e.g., Ackerman, 1988; Gorman, 1994; Siegel, 1988, 1994) which typically defines CI narrowly by emphasising the visual presentation of elements, such as company logo, name and slogan, controlled by the organisation and the associated perceived image. This view was criticised by Balmer and Soenen (1998) who highlight that practitioners seem to stress on tangible and visible facets of identity and overlook other aspects related to intrinsic value of the organisation. Further, the findings showed other interviewees referred to CI from an internal organisational perspective by acknowledging organisational behavioural aspects, though few reflected a broad understanding of CI by integrating both perspectives to express what the organisation is and what it stands for.

These results are supported by practitioner writers and scholars of CI. From the perspective of facilities management, Lambert (1989) noted the significance of considering CI in any element of a company’s presentation. He provided two generalisations of CI – “all those manifestations of an organisation that enables it to be distinctive” and “projecting who you are, what you do, and how you do it”. Based on this viewpoint, CI need to be integrated in every aspect of the organisation; whether visible (e.g., visual elements-name, logo, colour) or not visible to the public (e.g., corporate communication, behaviour). Accordingly, CI was depicted as an ‘iceberg’ with two levels; above and below the surface, which are equally important parts of CI (Lambert, 1989).

Thus, the findings are consistent with the practitioner perspective presented by Lambert (1989) because they incorporate both the tangible and intangible elements of CI. In addition, this corroborates the position of current discussion of scholarly work in CI, and adopted in this thesis, which considers CI a multidisciplinary construct with several elements (Melewar et al., 2005b).
Importantly, the findings support this thesis logic for adapting Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006) definition, though providing different categorisation. In this case, CI definition is revised as:

*CI is the presentation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and incorporates the organisation’s corporate communications, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, mission and organisation founder. It is intrinsically related to image.*

The agreement of the elements which constitute CI in the context of this thesis is discussed below.

### 6.6.2. Key Dimensions and Elements of CI

As seen in the previous sections, the importance of CI elements within these fifteen companies interviewed for this research varied greatly. The preliminary CI taxonomy, informed by the literature, assumed that CI construct consists of corporate communications (controlled, uncontrolled), CVI (corporate visual identity systems (CVIS), applications of CVIS), behaviour (management, employee, corporate), culture (values, mission, history, founder, country of origin (COO), subculture), and corporate structure (brand structure, organisational structure) (See Section 2.6, Figure 2.4). The analysis outlined how CI is a multi-dimensional construct made manifest via six key dimensions which are relevant to almost all companies interviewed, operating in different UK industries. These are corporate communications (controlled, uncontrolled), CVI (CVIS, applications of CVIS, consistency of CVI), behaviour (management, behaviour, corporate), culture (values), mission statement, and organisation founder. The following presents a discussion of CI dimensions in the context of the literature.

**Corporate Communications:** The findings revealed that corporate communication (encompassing controlled and uncontrolled communication) was a key dimension of CI. Corporate communications emphasised all the ways in which organisations communicated with various internal and external stakeholders and acted to shape their perceptions. This concurs with the view of several academics (Kennedy, 1997; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000) and practitioners (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Smidts *et al*., 2001) who view communication directed at external stakeholders is fundamental in developing the desired corporate image and differentiating the
organisation from competitors. While employees’ communication was considered crucial since it helps transmitting messages to all organisation members expressing corporate objectives, principles and performance outcomes, as well as offering guidance for personal and group activities. This supports the prevailing view that internal/management communication constitutes an integral part of CI (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar, 2003; Melewar and Karaosmanoglou, 2006; Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007), given the role of employees in representing their organisations and in turn influencing corporate image. Furthermore, the findings reflected that marketing, management and organisational communication were interlinked and it was difficult to set clear boundaries between them. Rather, controlled communication was divided into external and internal communication.

In respect of uncontrolled communication, the findings revealed the importance of WOM and its impact on how consumers perceive a company's products and identity, consumer buying behaviour and retention. This finding is consistent with research in the WOM area (Bristol, 1990; Brown et al., 2005; Cristiansen and Tax, 2000; Duhan et al., 1997; Halstead, 2002; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Lau and Ng, 2001) by showing that person-to-person information exchange (interpersonal WOM) among people that are strongly tied to each other (e.g. close friends and relatives) evokes attitudinal change towards companies. Besides, communication by the third parties such as the media, NGOs and governmental institutions etc. is assumed to shape individuals’ views about companies (Comelissen, 2000). Thus, interpersonal and intermediary WOM revealed to be important to CI; however, interviewees did not refer to the psychological consequences of prior experiences kept in consumers’ minds, known as intrapersonal uncontrolled communication.

**Corporate Visual identity (CVI):** Responses on the visual expression aspect of CI provided general agreement, thereby representing support for its inclusion as an important element of CI.

Most of the interviewees stated that CVI facilitates the internal and external dissemination of a company’s identity. Respondents emphasised corporate logo, name, slogan, typeface and other applications of CVI (e.g., architecture and office layout). These aspects were considered important in helping an organisation develop a linkage for its employees and determine consumer associations with it.
This view corroborates the findings by Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) and supports the position numerous scholars adopt (Balmer and Gray, 2000; Dowling, 1993; Schultz et al., 2000; Van den Bosch et al., 2006b). These scholars claim that visual identity provides the company with recognition and distinctiveness and represents the company to various audiences, thus influences its image and reputation. Besides, CVI may improve employees’ identification with the corporation (Bromley, 2001; Dutton et al., 1994; Kiriakidou and Millward, 2000; Olins, 1989).

Consistency of CVI was also considered by interviewees as a precondition for a clear image of the company. This position is supported by (Van den Bosch et al., 2006b) who conclude that using different visual presentations will unavoidably lead to an unfocused perception of the company. Thus, a new sub-dimension will be added to the CVI dimension, in CI taxonomy.

**Behaviour:** Behaviour involved the importance of management, employee and corporate behaviour for developing CI.

The findings reflected the impact of the way managers disseminate information (to internal and external stakeholders) on CI through influencing employees and other stakeholders’ perceptions about the organisation. This view is sustained by several scholars (e.g., Adler and Adler, 1988; Fritz et al., 1999; Scott and Lane, 2000) who argue that senior managers should act as organisational leaders who are assumed to represent and speak for the organisation. Forming public commitments on behalf of an organisation encourages individuals to change their self-perceptions and behave consistently with the presented self-image. This view highlights the representational behaviour of leaders, which refers to the degree to which the person (in this case CEO) will speak for the group and acts as its spokesperson (Nicol, 2009). In addition, it was believed by all interviews that their companies could enjoy a more favourable image and be more recognised if their staff are able to convey corporate values to external stakeholders.

Further, the findings revealed that organisations reactions, particularly, towards social issues, convey cues about CI. This view corroborates relevant literature which note that social responsible behaviour associations influence consumers’ opinions of a company, which in turn may affect product evaluations (Brown and Dacin, 1997).
Culture: Culture was considered one of the crucial dimensions of CI construct, comprising mainly of values, as a key component. The findings showed that culture is a set of shared values and beliefs held by employees, which enable them to behave in a manner consistent with CI. This reflects the role of culture in presenting organisation staff with a cognitive ‘schema’ or ‘logic’ that helps them respond to familiar and unfamiliar situations in a way consistent with organisational values (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1996; Sorensen, 2002). Moreover, this view aligns with the functionalist perspective that considers culture as a variable and focuses on understanding the function that culture fulfil in the company. This viewpoint, advocated by marketing scholars, is different from the social-constructionist view (symbolic perspective) that treats culture as a ‘metaphor’ and with the main emphasis is on understanding what the organisation means to its employees (Rowlinson and Procter, 1999; Schultz, 1994). The symbolic perspective is broadly supported by organisational behaviour scholars; for example, Hatch and Schultz (1997:357) assert that corporate culture is not a determinant or variable of CI, however, is in fact “a context within which interpretations of OI are formed and intentions to influence organisational image are formulated”.

While organisational values might differ slightly from one department to another, however, interviewees agreed that a dominant culture prevail in organisations due to the overarching corporate goals, objectives, and mission, yet they denied the importance of subcultures to CI. This view ties with organisational culture literature which argues that strong cultures, with shared and prevailing values, might exist and support consistent behaviour across the company (Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992; Sorensen, 2002).

Mission Statement: Mission statement materialised as a dimension in its own right, with significant relevance to the CI construct, which influences managers’ decisions and employees’ behaviour since it includes corporate targets, values and guidelines. This view supports Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006) work, which maintains that organisation norms and values, philosophy and guiding principle are incorporated in corporate mission statement. In this sense, the authors outline how the mission plays a vital role in describing the importance of organisation principles to all hierarchical level in the company.
Also, this position ties with CI literature which reveals that CI models as well as corporate image and reputation are mainly vision oriented, e.g., Abratt (1989), Balmer (1995), Dowling (1986; 1993), Gray and Smeltzer (1985), Van Riel (1995) and Van Riel and Balmer (1997). Generally, such models are underpinned by the notion that managing CI is based on disseminating the founder and top managers’ vision.

Notably, the findings did not maintain mission as an element of culture, since the latter comprised solely corporate values. This appears to be at odds with Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006) revised CI taxonomy, which represents mission as an element of culture. However, it is still possible to assume that an indirect relation between mission and culture exists, as implicitly held in interviewees’ quotes.

**Organisation Founder:** The organisation founder was considered important for shaping the identity of many companies, particularly in the formative stages, by assuming a value-based leadership role. This was done through setting organisational values, shaping culture, inspiring employees, and defining the way of doing business. This continues to be relevant to many companies, even though the founder might not any longer exist.

This view supports several CI and organisational researchers who outlined the importance of organisation founder in building CI (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Olins, 1978; Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1983). For instance, Olins (1978) noted, an organisation’s identity appears to be associated with the founder’s identity, whilst Deal and Kennedy (1982) pointed to the relationship between organisation founder, culture and performance. In a similar manner, Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) reported managers’ responses outlining how the founder had a significant impact on organisation culture, at particular phases of organisation life. From an organisational perspective, Schein (1983) demonstrates that founders have the ability to craft the culture, particularly, in early stages of organisation formation, since founders develop the framework through which appropriate behaviour and code of conduct are defined in organisations.

Conversely, other companies, e.g., those had passed through merger and acquisition (M&A), did not agree on the continuing role of founders. This makes sense since
merger often results in fusion of the identities of merged firms into a new identity that did not exist before the merger, a case called ‘Metamorphosis’ (Bouchikhi and Kimberly, 2012:13). Similarly, ‘Assimilation’ acquisition leads to a deliberate dissolution of the identity of the acquired company in the identity of the new parent. Thus, in both cases, the original identity (foundational values) no longer exists.

However, the literature cites opposite extremes of these cases. There are other approaches to integration, for example, when the merged organisations are allowed to preserve their original identities and are not expected to meld into a new common identity (e.g., Renault/Nissan, Air France/KLM, Unilever/Ben & Jerry’s, and L’Oréal/The Body Shop). At the same time, merged organisations might develop an umbrella, or overarching, identity, that each member in the organisation could relate to, identify with, and thrive within (e.g., Johnson & Johnson). In such cases, companies retain their identities and cultures while values and foundational principles continue to be important to CI.

Based on this logic, a decision was taken in this thesis to retain the organisation founder dimension for further investigation. Thus, the founder (constituting foundational principles, values, the way the founder used to treat/encourage employees, react to crises, etc.) is argued to be an important element of CI construct. This decision is reinforced given the importance of the founder in influencing CSR initiatives, as reported in Section 6.5.5.

As the previous discussion outlined, the construct of CI consists of six key dimensions which will be considered in the second phase of research for further empirical investigation and confirmation. However, some dimensions and sub-dimensions did not materialise from data analysis, namely corporate structure (organisational structure, brand structure), history, COO and subculture, as explained in the analysis.

Thus, based on the qualitative findings, the initial classification of CI is modified and a revised taxonomy is presented (See Figure 6.4B), which served as a foundation for developing a theoretical framework underpinning CI and operational measures for each element of CI leading to subsequent empirical examination.
6.6.3. The Nature of CSR

The findings revealed that companies are engaged in CSR programmes by assigning organisation resources. In addition, the findings uncovered organisations’ concerns with simultaneously improving people and society’s wellbeing whilst minimising their environmental impact (e.g., footprint) and assuring effectively accomplishing organisational goals. Particularly, interviewees expressed the classical responsibilities of their corporations which are embodied in their economic and legal responsibilities, thus reflecting the old social contract between business and society (Kotler and Lee, 2004). Further, they expressed other responsibilities of their corporations which are integrated in moral and philanthropy obligations, outlining the wider social commitment between the organisation and the public (Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

The findings yielded specific examples of how leading companies defined and engaged in CSR practices; however, the findings also showed that such companies, across different industries, were adopting similar types of CSR programmes, which entail shareholder, environmental, employees and other stakeholders, society and local community responsibilities.

The emergence of these dimensions of CSR are consistent with Samy et al. (2010) who attempt to examine the CSR activities of twenty organisations operating in the UK based on the global reporting initiative (GRI) guidelines. The authors outline how UK companies made labour practice a priority, as they focus on providing employees with a safe working environment and diverse workplaces with equal opportunities. Also, human rights were common CSR policy among the companies. This has to do with policies such as indigenous rights, collective bargaining, freedom of association and child labour. Society also featured prominently, as most of the companies were able to prove the positive impact they made in the community in terms of voluntary work and also giving support to charity organisations. Another issue was environmental responsibility, as companies tended to disclose the positive impacts they made on the environment, e.g., environmental pollution, waste disposal, gas emissions and other related environmental issues (Samy et al., 2010).

Likewise, these findings substantiate Dahlsrud’s (2008) who emphasise five key CSR dimensions frequently cited in literature definitions (shareholder, environmental, stakeholder, voluntariness and social).
Importantly, this confirms the enduring application of Carroll’s (1991) definition in CSR research, which grasp Dahlsrud’s (2008) dimensions, and encapsulates the four dimensions of CSR revealed from qualitative data analysis in this thesis, as discussed earlier (Section 6.4.). Whether in the definition’s categories or its application, it is worth noting that organisation outcomes in terms of environmental, stakeholders and societal issues are grasped in the economic and voluntary (philanthropy) dimensions (Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

The findings support the decision to adopt Carroll’s (1991) definition of CSR (See Section 3.2.1), especially as such definition has been employed in several research studies during the last twenty-five years (Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Galbreath, 2010; Matten and Crane, 2005). In this case, CSR is conceptualised as follows (See Figure 6.5):

**Figure 6.5: CSR Dimensions – After Exploratory Analysis**

![CSR Dimensions Diagram](image)

It is important to note that Figure 6.5 imitates Figure 3.2, where the latter displays the pyramid of CSR explaining the scope and breadth of social responsibilities of business based on Carroll (1991; 1999).

Moreover, it is clear that organisations employed a stakeholder perspective which considered stockholders as just one group of stakeholders among many others (e.g., employees, consumers, suppliers, local communities and others). Consequently, organisations were considered responsible for the interests of their various stakeholders; where managers had moral obligation as well as enlightened self-interest in directing corporate activities (Balmer et al., 2007). This in turn supports the justification for using stakeholder theory to underpin CSR in this thesis.
6.6.4. CI and CSR Relationship

The findings evidenced that CI and CSR were vitally interconnected. CSR initiatives were integrated into what organisations do (e.g., buying, selling, etc) and derived by various CI mix elements including communication, behaviour, culture, mission and founder of the organisation (See Figure 6.6).

Figure 6.6: Relationship between CI and CSR - After Exploratory Analysis

The findings revealed that CI can be viewed as a driver of CSR, and its dimensions as determinants of stakeholder management which facilitate CSR adoption.

CSR was embraced through controlled corporate communication, internally and externally, which reflected the inherent values of organisations encompassing sustainability and social responsibility that underpinned corporate communications. This is similar to relevant literature on CSR communication (e.g., Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007) since organisations use full range of communication tools that help in developing a good image of the organisation in the eyes of shareholders, stakeholders and the society, and subsequently enhance corporate reputation.
Importantly, this corroborates the position of numerous communication scholars (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Du et al., 2010, 2007; Sen et al., 2006) who call for stakeholder management of communication and stress the importance of internal communication, which is as important as external communication.

Another important dimension of CI in relation to CSR was behaviour, which has been linked to the way top management communicates and publicises information regarding organisation objectives, practices, and CSR initiatives, where top managers assumed the role of communicators (Van Riel, 1995). The findings reflected the impact of managers’ behaviour (how top managers communicate and act) on CSR through influencing employees and other stakeholders’ perceptions about the organisation. This position reinforces the view which argues that leadership is an important determinant of organisation morals and ethics (Ciulla, 1999, 2005; Paine, 1996; Weaver et al, 1999; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002), influencing company’s outcomes in respect to CSR.

For instance, Trevino et al. (2003) argue that top management develops an organisation’s ethical language, whilst Ramus (2001) claims managerial support is necessary for CSR involvement.

From a different perspective, Dutton and Dukerich (1991) and Sharma et al. (1999) argue that by assigning more time, interest and care to particular matters, managers emphasise their relevance to organisation strategy, which can influence how employees interpret and respond to issues. Thus, management could develop a shared vision of the company to permeate and unite corporate members and foster a sense of identity and engagement in achieving corporate CSR goals and aspirations. These, in turn, may lead to a highly integrated CSR-oriented culture in which CSR values are widely held by all members of the organisation (Crane, 1995).

Further, corporate behaviour towards social issues was considered by interviewees to be a facet of CSR. Participating in social activities allows organisations to create positive attitudes and supportive behaviours from stakeholders (e.g., sales, employability, investments), as well as develop favourable corporate image and reinforce organisation’s relations with it audiences over time.

In this respect, the mission statement was proposed by interviewees to guide managers and employees attitudes and behaviour in respect to stakeholder management and social issues because it communicates a firm’s identity. This view supports Collins and
Porras’s (1991) argument that mission statements direct the decisions, policies and actions of an organisation. Similarly, Pearce and Roth (1988:39) consider the mission as the basis that managers can use in the process of developing organisation strategic plans. This highlights the role mission plays as a foundation for organisational systems and policies. According to Bartkus and Glassman (2008), writing or forming the mission to direct corporate behaviour towards stakeholders’ issues, indicates that organisational decisions should be in line with the content of the mission statement. In this respect, mission dissemination among employees is important since it contributes to the reinforcement of consistent behaviour (Simoes et al., 2005) by providing guiding reference points within which employees frame decisions and actions and presents active support, motivation and enthusiasm for CSR initiatives.

Further, interviewees asserted that the mission had solid foundations in organisational values that to a large extent were shared among managers and employees, forming a dominant culture that helped shape and energize employees’ behaviour in the work environment.

Indeed, the significance of organisational culture to accomplishing CSR activities is not surprising, since organisational culture has previously been linked to the long-term financial success and improved effectiveness of organisations, as demonstrated by several scholars (e.g., Cameron and Quinn, 2006; Denison, 1990). Organisational or corporate culture presents a framework that offers guidelines on various aspects regarding, for instance, the way of doing work, how employees think and interact with each other (Maon et al., 2010). In addition, it defines how organisations recognise deploy activities, policy and strategy (Ghobadian and O’Regan, 2006) and considerably affects the organisation’s prospective advances in CSR (Berger et al., 2007). In support, Doppelt (2003) asserts that organisational cultures provide ‘storehouses’ of expertise, information, facts, understanding and experience which could maintain or damage CSR endeavours. Similarly, Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 2001) assume that an organisation’s culture influences the way managers address the relations between the corporation and its audiences, yet considering organisational culture an antecedent of corporate citizenship behaviour.

Also, organisational values are considered fundamental for adopting CSR (Maon et al., 2009). Accordingly, it is important to recognise the organisational values and principles that could possible influence CSR implementation. Given their role in guiding corporate
activities and decision-making, organisation values assist corporate endeavours in efficiently achieving its mission and goals. Moreover, by defining organisation values and integrating them in managerial activities, organisations may wish to emphasize behaviours that are of value to the corporation as well as internal and communities, and subsequently reinforce the organisation’s norms and values (Kotler and Lee, 2004).

Further, the findings revealed that organisation culture, in many companies, reflects the vision and imagination of the organisation’s founder, which developed when an organisation was new or young. Through formal statement of philosophy and the interactive processes between founders and followers, founders were able to generate and sustain their own ambitions, attentions and commitment to CSR over time.

This ties with leadership literature, where Shamir (1991) and Shamir et al. (1993) advance a theory of transformational (charismatic) leadership based on the self-concepts of followers that may be particularly relevant to CSR. The essence of their work was that such leaders communicate or symbolise messages that contain numerous references to values and moral justifications. They are able to have motivational effects on followers by presenting goals or a vision in terms of the values that they represent. Subsequently, the intrinsic valence of effort and goals, and the follower’s self-concept, become linked to values, resulting in value internalization on the part of followers (employees) (Lord and Brown, 2001, 2004; Lord et al., 1999). As such, the salience of certain values espoused by the leader becomes greater for followers. In addition, Shamir et al. (1993) suggest that self-concepts are composed, in part, of identities, and that value-based leaders help link one’s identity with greater social causes. Accordingly, value-based transformational leadership of founders is argued to be relevant in setting CSR initiatives and shaping the identity of the organisation, particularly in the early stages of organisation development.

Based on the above discussion, and in line with previous studies, for instance, Ashman and Winstanley (2007); Atakan and Eker (2007); Cornelius et al. (2007); Fukukawa et al. (2007); and Verbos et al. (2007), this thesis argues that CSR is related to and should be studied from the lenses of CI. However, the thesis relies upon usage of an eclectic approach that emphasises CI as a determinant for CSR. This highlights the importance of external as well as organisational context and internal factors, e.g., communication, behaviour, culture, values, foundational principles, employee’s organisational identification, communication, in addition to issue legitimation (Sharma et al., 1999;
Sharma 2000) through mission statement dissemination (Linnenluecke et al., 2009), which all embody and reinforce CI.

Accordingly, in this thesis, studying the relationship between CI and CSR is linked to issues addressed by authors in many interrelated domains, for example CI (Balmer, 1995; Keller, 1998, 2000; Olins, 1989; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997; Urde, 2003), corporate communication (Fombrun, 1996; Van Riel, 1995), organisational identification and social identity theory (Gioia et al. 2000; Hatch and Schultz 1997, 2001; Knox et al. 2000), leadership (Bass, 1998; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), stakeholder theory (Clarkson, 1995; Maignan et al., 1999) and CSR (Carroll 1999; Wood 1991). These foundational domains assist in establishing a theoretical basis that cohesively fuses the disciplines of CI and CSR, as explained in detail in Chapter Seven: Theoretical Framework.

6.6.5. Summary of Key Findings and Implications

After presenting the findings of the qualitative research and discussing the results in the context of relevant literature, this sub-section seeks to: 1) consolidate and unify the outcomes of the first empirical phase; 2) demonstrate how the outcomes attempt to achieve the research objectives of the first phase and answer the research questions; and 3) outline the implications on the second phase of research. This is considered important given the nature the research design employed in this thesis (exploratory sequential mixed methods) and, consequently, the role of qualitative research in laying the foundation for the following quantitative research.

The qualitative findings highlighted the relevance of various disciplines associated to the meaning and elements of CI. Moreover, the discussion integrated different, but related, literatures that were not referred to in the CI Literature Review, Chapter Two, or in the previous studies concerning the relationship between CI and CSR. Accordingly, it is important to summarise the key outcomes of the exploratory phase of research, which helped in transferring CI from conceptual to operational state (See Table 6.3).
**Table 6.3: Key Findings of Qualitative Research and Implications on Quantitative Research Design**

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<th>Key Outcomes of Qualitative Research-Phase One</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1: Meaning of CI</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Phase - Research Objective 1:</strong> Explore the Nature and Meaning of CI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Question 1:</strong> What is the Meaning of CI?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Diverse interpretations of the meaning of CI due to variations in the nature of operations/industries of companies involved.</td>
<td>• Select a single industry for survey administration, rather than multiple industries. (See Section 8.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The meaning of CI refers to external view (visual expressions, image) or internal view (values, behaviour, culture) or broad view indicating what the organisation stands for.</td>
<td>• Support the multidisciplinary approach for studying CI and the holistic perspective which integrates external and internal aspects of the organisation, thus, Support adopting Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006) definition of CI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Revised definition of CI: CI is the presentation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and incorporates the organisation’s corporate communications, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, mission and organisation founder. It is intrinsically related to image.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2: Dimensions of CI</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Phase - Research Objective 2:</strong> Determine the key Dimensions and Sub-dimensions of CI.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Phase - Research Objective 3:</strong> Establish a New Theoretical Framework Through which CI can be Operationalized.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Question 2:</strong> What are the Key Dimensions of CI?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Dimensions of CI are: corporate communications (controlled, uncontrolled), CVI (CVIS, applications of CVIS, consistency of CVI), behaviour (management, behaviour, corporate), culture (values), mission statement, and organisation founder.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Communications</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Controlled communication is crucial to CI.</td>
<td>• Corporate communications is a key dimension of CI construct. It comprises two sub-dimensions: controlled (internal and external) and uncontrolled (WOM) communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Companies use a wide range of communication tools directed to external and internal stakeholders.</td>
<td>• The importance of employing a wide range of communication tools (internal and external) to reach different stakeholders and convey CI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• External communication is important to convey messages about company’s products, values, and identity and influence consumers’ perceptions.</td>
<td>• The importance of considering WOM a vital communication channel which has an impact on customer retention and changing consumers’ perceptions and attitudes towards the corporation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Internal communication is vital to raise employees awareness about organisations goals, mission, which allows for cohesive employees behaviour.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uncontrolled communication is important to CI; particularly, WOM from interpersonal and intermediary sources, which influences consumer buying behaviour, retention, and perceptions about CI.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Key Outcomes of Qualitative Research - Phase One

**Corporate Visual Identity (CVI)**
- CVI is an integral part of CI since it provides the organisation with visibility and recognisability, and helps the company create a sense of attachment for its employees.
- CVI is considered a communication tool which symbolises the organisation and expresses its values to different stakeholders.
- CVI includes mainly corporate logo, name, slogan, typeface, colour and other applications (e.g. architecture).
- Consistency among CVI elements is important since it helps develop clear perception of the organisation among stakeholders.
- CVI is a key dimension of CI construct.
- It comprises three sub-dimensions: CVIS, applications of CVIS and consistency of CVI.
- CVIS (name, logo, slogan, typeface and colour) and its applications (architecture) are important in conveying CI and expressing what the organization stands for.
- The importance of maintaining consistency of CVI, e.g. through central guidelines, in order to develop strong corporate image.
- It comprises three sub-dimensions: management, employee and corporate behaviour.
- The importance of representational leadership role of senior managers in conveying CI, in terms of how they act and what they speak.
- It is important that employees accept organizational premises, hold supportive attitudes, and uphold organizational actions and identity.
- The importance of corporate behaviour towards social issues, given its influence on creating positive associations about the organization among consumers.
- **Culture**
- Culture is crucial to CI. It consists mainly of shared values which help employees act consistently.
- Organizations have dominant cultures that can be managed to convey strong identity.
- Subcultures don’t have an influence on CI due to the existence of overarching values.
- Culture is a key dimension of CI construct, which comprises of values as the only vital sub-dimension.
- It is important to address culture from a marketing perspective that treats culture as a variable which has a specific function to perform.
- Prevailing organizational values reveals an integrative perspective of culture, which reflects subculture as irrelevant to CI.

### Implications on Quantitative Research - Phase Two

**Business**
- Behaviour is important in expressing the reality of the organization.
- Senior managers’ behaviour is fundamental in representing the company to internal and external stakeholders, which affects corporate image.
- Employee behaviour has a direct impact on CI and image because employees can interface with customers, thus, they act as ambassadors representing their organizations.
- Corporate behaviour reflects organisation values and stance which present a means of differentiation from other organisations. Particularly, corporate behaviour towards social issues influences stakeholders’ perceptions of a corporation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Outcomes of Qualitative Research - Phase One</th>
<th>Implications on Quantitative Research - Phase Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Visual Identity (CVI)</strong></td>
<td><strong>CVI is a key dimension of CI construct.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- CVI is an integral part of CI since it provides the organisation with visibility and recognisability, and helps the company create a sense of attachment for its employees.</td>
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</tr>
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<td>- CVI includes mainly corporate logo, name, slogan, typeface, colour and other applications (e.g. architecture).</td>
<td>- The importance of maintaining consistency of CVI, e.g. through central guidelines, in order to develop strong corporate image.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Consistency among CVI elements is important since it helps develop clear perception of the organisation among stakeholders.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behaviour</strong></td>
<td><strong>Behaviour is a key dimension of CI construct.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Behaviour is important in expressing the reality of the organization.</td>
<td>- It comprises three sub-dimensions: management, employee and corporate behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Senior managers’ behaviour is fundamental in representing the company to internal and external stakeholders, which affects corporate image.</td>
<td>- The importance of representational leadership role of senior managers in conveying CI, in terms of how they act and what they speak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Employee behaviour has a direct impact on CI and image because employees can interface with customers, thus, they act as ambassadors representing their organizations.</td>
<td>- It is important that employees accept organizational premises, hold supportive attitudes, and uphold organizational actions and identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Corporate behaviour reflects organisation values and stance which present a means of differentiation from other organisations. Particularly, corporate behaviour towards social issues influences stakeholders’ perceptions of a corporation.</td>
<td>- The importance of corporate behaviour towards social issues, given its influence on creating positive associations about the organization among consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Culture</strong></td>
<td><strong>Culture is a key dimension of CI construct, which comprises of values as the only vital sub-dimension.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Culture is crucial to CI. It consists mainly of shared values which help employees act consistently.</td>
<td>- It is important to address culture from a marketing perspective that treats culture as a variable which has a specific function to perform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Organizations have dominant cultures that can be managed to convey strong identity.</td>
<td>- Prevailing organizational values reveals an integrative perspective of culture, which reflects subculture as irrelevant to CI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Subcultures don’t have an influence on CI due to the existence of overarching values.</td>
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Continued Table 6.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Outcomes of Qualitative Research-Phase One</th>
<th>Implications on Quantitative Research-Phase Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mission Statement</strong></td>
<td>• Mission statement is a key dimension of CI construct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mission statement is important in conveying CI.</td>
<td>• Disseminating mission statement is crucial in order to maintain a cohesive behaviour among employees and consistency in decision making.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mission is not a sub-dimension of culture, although the indirect relationship between them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mission statement communicates corporate objectives and values, and act as a point of reference for decisions taken by organisational members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization Founder</strong></td>
<td>• Organization Founder could be considered a key dimension to CI construct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Organization founder(s) is important to many companies, particularly in formative stages.</td>
<td>• The value-based leadership approach of founders is important in shaping CI,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. In such companies, founders’ value-based leadership approach helps shape corporate culture and the way of doing business.</td>
<td>• The value-based leadership approach of founders continues to be important even if the founders no longer exist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. In many instances, founders’ principles are maintained and effective even after their retirement or death.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Founders are not relevant to some companies, particularly those which passed through M&amp;A.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 3: Meaning Of CSR</strong></td>
<td>• CSR is multidimensional towards different stakeholders (e.g. customers, employees, local community, environment).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Phase - Research Objective 4</strong>: Gain Insights into The Nature of CSR; Its Meaning and Elements</td>
<td>• Support adopting Carroll’s (1991) definition of CSR, which comprises economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. CSR is substantially important to all companies.</td>
<td>• Support using stakeholder theory underpinning CSR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. CSR represents a continuing commitment by an organisation to contribute to economic development, comply to regulations, behave ethically while also improving the quality of life of its employees (and their families), contributing to the local community and society at large, in addition to addressing a wide variety of environmental problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 4: Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</strong></td>
<td>• CSR is highly related to CI and associated with its dimensions (e.g. controlled communications, management, employee and corporate behaviour, culture and values, mission statement and organisation founder).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Phase - Research Objective 5</strong>: Explore the Relationship between CI &amp; CSR; how CI elements affect business commitment to CSR practices/how elements of CI interact with and contribute to CSR.</td>
<td>• CI derives CSR, and dimensions of CI determine the adoption and facilitate the implementation of CSR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research Question 4</strong>: What is the Nature of the Relationship between CI and CSR?</td>
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6.8. Summary

This thesis focuses on exploring the meaning and dimensions of CI, and the construct’s relationship with CSR.

By analysing data gathered during the first (qualitative) phase of research, this chapter has helped this thesis to move towards achieving its objectives by exploring the meaning of CI and its key dimensions from practitioners’ view. Exploring the dimensions of CI construct also lays the ground for the following chapters which focus on constructing a theoretical framework for CI construct (Chapter Seven), developing a CI scale (Chapter Eight) and applying it in relation to CSR (Chapter Ten). Therefore, this assists in understanding how CI is measured and the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR.

In this sense, the qualitative research outcomes help shape the design of the next quantitative phase. The preliminary/initial CI definition and taxonomy obtained from the literature are modified and revisited (Sections 6.6.1 and 6.6.2) and the relationship between CI and CSR is identified. Further, the nature of CSR revealed from the findings supports this thesis logic in adopting Carroll’s (1991) definition which conveys the four dimensions of CSR.

The following chapter explains in details the theoretical framework underpinning the second phase of the research, conceptualisation of CI and CSR dimensions, and the hypothesis reflecting the relationship between CI and CSR.
Table 7.1: The Research Stages

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<td>Research Background, Research Problem, Statement and Questions, Research Objectives, Research Contribution, Thesis Structure</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Chapter 2: CI Literature Review</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</td>
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<td>Chapter 4: Research Methodology</td>
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<td>Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy</td>
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<td>Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach</td>
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<td>Chapter 6: Qualitative Research Findings</td>
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<td>Findings of Semi-Structured Interviews and Discussion of Qualitative Findings</td>
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<td>Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postulating the Domain of CI, Theorizing CI, Hypothesizing the Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach</td>
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<td>Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 9: Quantitative Research Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 10: Quantitative Research Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypothesis Testing Using Smart PLS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 11: Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 12: Research Contributions and Limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theoretical, Managerial and Methodological Implications, Limitations and Future Research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.1. Introduction

Informed by the literature review and guided by the findings of Chapter Six, this chapter covers postulations of the domain of corporate identity (CI) and the development of a theoretical framework, conceptualisation of CI and CSR constructs, and hypotheses development.

This chapter commences by presenting a CI framework and justifying the rationale for postulating, rather than hypothesising, its dimensions. Next, the chapter introduces a theoretical framework underpinning the dimensions of CI, based on a multidisciplinary perspective. At the same time, the chapter focuses on the conceptualisation of the dimensions of CI. Specifically, it defines the dimensions and establishes measurement items for each dimension. This moves from construct conceptualisation to operationalisation. The interactions among CI dimensions are also highlighted at this stage. Next, the chapter develops hypotheses outlining the influence of CI on CSR as well as the moderating effect of organisation size on the association between CI and CSR. Finally, a summary of the main points reiterates the logic for developing a CI taxonomy and theoretical framework, the relationship between CI and CSR and demonstrates how this chapter underpins phase two of the research, described in Chapter Eight.

7.2. CI Framework

This section of the chapter presents a CI taxonomy which helps explicate CI and to offer a theoretical explanation of how CI works/could be managed. The development of this CI framework is informed by CI definition and considering CI dimensionality as portrayed in the literature review and revealed from exploratory findings. The literature review and exploratory findings also inform the development of a theoretical framework of CI that will guide quantitative analysis in phase two.

Figure 7.1 presents the CI construct visually in order to clarify thinking and facilitate comprehension (Whetten, 1989). As the figure shows, this thesis proposes the dimensions of CI to be corporate communications (controlled, uncontrolled), corporate visual identity (CVI) (corporate visual identity systems (CVIS), applications of CVIS, consistency of CVI), behaviour (management, employee, corporate), culture (values), mission statement and organisation founder.
In this sense, CI is thought of as a concept that draws on the boundaries of multiple disciplines. Accordingly, insights from visual design, marketing and communication, organisational and leadership studies are taken into account. Although this research adopts a predominantly marketing approach, interdisciplinary insights are considered when establishing the scope of CI. Indeed, drawing on the earlier discussion (see Section 2.3) of the CI construct and various perspectives, a holistic view of the CI domain is adopted.

**Figure 7.1: Proposed CI Taxonomy and Key Elements**

The CI framework and taxonomy aims to identify aspects of identity that are manageable and used to develop CI. The domain of the construct is concerned with both controllable aspects of CI and uncontrollable aspects that are beyond the organisation’s control but influence its image (e.g., Word-of-Mouth (WOM) communication). In this thesis, the CI construct is viewed as those dimensions (activities) the organization (or business unit) should consider, in order to improve image among its stakeholders.

It should be noted that the framework of CI is only concerned with the main construct of CI, without considering the construct’s antecedents. This is because CI is a new construct, thus, it is not integrated in a nomological network (Cronbach and Meehl,
Accordingly, considering CI antecedents at this stage was not feasible. Nevertheless, once establishing the dimensions of CI, it would be valuable to explore the wider nomological network of CI, as avenues for future research (See Section 12.7). Identifying the dimensions of CI and the way the domain of CI is addressed is important because it indicates what constitutes the construct, which helps establish parameters for consequent scaling procedures, which are addressed later in the chapter. The next step is to justify the dimensions of CI.

7.3. Postulating the Domain of CI

Three factors contribute to the decision to postulate dimensions. First, it is an approach which is in line with prior literature on scale development, which, rather than hypothesising dimensions, postulates them (Bennet et al., 2005; Coleman et al., 2011; Cretu and Brodie, 2007; Lings and Greenley, 2005; Simoes et al., 2005; Sin et al., 2005; Venable et al., 2005; Walsh and Beatty, 2007). Further, scaling procedures are followed that have been established in previous literature on scale development (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003), which extended Churchill’s (1979) influential work. This involves the use of exploratory factor analysis before confirmatory factor analysis. This results in initial dimensions seldom remaining at the latter stage, in which formal testing of a hypothesis could be performed. Hence, postulation, with its more exploratory approach and language is preferred to hypothesising. Moreover, CI is a holistic third order construct. The rationale for taking a holistic view of conceptualising the construct stems from dimension interrelations discussed in Section 7.6 of this chapter. Due to this stance, it is inappropriate to hypothesise individual dimensions, as this approach would mean that only the components of the construct would be considered, rather than the entire construct. Therefore, the decision was taken to postulate rather than hypothesise dimensions.

7.4. Theorising CI

Building on a multidisciplinary perspective, this section offers a new theoretical framework to better understand CI (See Figure 7.2). The framework is based on the interfusion of corporate communication, stakeholder theory, and organisational and corporate culture theory, leadership theory and organisational identification and social identity theory (SIT). These theories underpin the six dimensions postulated to constitute the domain of CI, which the thesis addresses, namely: communications (encompassing controlled and uncontrolled communication) and CVI (encompassing
CVIS and its applications), behaviour (encompassing management, employee and corporate behaviour), corporate culture (encompassing values), mission statement and organisation founder.

**Figure 7.2: Proposed CI Theoretical Framework**

7.4.1. Corporate Communication Theory: Foundation for Communications and Corporate Visual Identity

Corporate communications involves all the ways an organisation communicates with its stakeholders (Simoes et al., 2005). Traditionally, much focus is placed on marketing communication (Blomback and Brunninge, 2009), but corporate communications is considered “more comprehensive and complicated” (Balmer and Greyser, 2003:145).

As referred to earlier (See Section 2.6.2) during the presentation of the communications dimension, corporate communications includes both controlled and uncontrolled communication (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

Controlled corporate communications is defined as “an instrument of management by means of which all consciously used forms of internal and external communication are harmonized as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis
for relationships upon which the company is dependent” (Van Riel, 1995:26). Theoretically, Van Riel and Fombrun (2007) classify three types of communication that are employed and controlled by organisations: management, marketing and organisational communication. However, this classification is not followed in this thesis, based on the qualitative findings (Section 6.3.1); rather, controlled communications is divided into internal and external communication.

Controlled communication is broad by nature (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007) and entails a broad range of communications tools, such as on- and off-line advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, sponsorship, public relations, investor and labour relations, house journal and magazines for internal staff and environmental and annual reports for external stakeholders (Melewar et al., 2006). These tools are directed to different stakeholder groups, both inside and outside the organisation (e.g., owners, employees, customers, suppliers, distributors and financial community) (Blomback and Brunninge, 2009).

In order to actively manage CI, companies need to take account of the breadth of communication management and consider all forms of communication which are regarded as important by the company (Simoes et al., 2005). Externally, with instruments such as advertisements, promotions, public speeches, and newsletters, corporate communication can help convey the distinct qualities of CI (Markwick and Fill, 1997) and help position an organisation’s products and services in the marketplace (Keller, 2001). In turn, this results in considerable organisational benefits, such as favourable stakeholder attitudes (Du et al., 2010), positive CI, increased purchase intention (David et al., 2005), enhanced corporate image, reputation, and financial returns.

Internally, communication is used to inform organisational members about issues, for example objectives, goals, activities, developments and achievements). Such communication enables employees to participate in discussions about organisational issues (Smidts et al., 2001) and learn about the important characteristics that differentiate an organisation from its competitors (Dutton et al., 1994). This helps establish and maintain trust in the organisation leadership and can empower and motivate employees, which results in organisational identification (Van Riel, 2008).
Moreover, Kennedy (1977) stresses the significance of communicating corporate policies to staff so that an adequate company image is transmitted to other audiences. Whilst Bick et al. (2003) call for consideration of the relationship between internal and external audiences, as some stakeholders play more than one role. Thus, from a multidisciplinary perspective, Bick et al. (2003) highlight that it is important that the communication process integrate all the management disciplines in order for organisation staff to understand and agree with senior managers’ values and norms.

**Figure 7.3: Components of Corporate Communications**

![Diagram showing the components of corporate communications](image)


From the above discussion, controlled corporate communication is addressed in terms of the breadth of communication management, which focuses on the degree to which communication is regarded as important by the company (Simoes et al., 2005). Accordingly, controlled corporate communication is determined by the importance of various aspects of communication (e.g., advertising, sales promotion, public relations, direct marketing, sponsorship, trade shows/exhibitions, products and services of the company internal publications, internal marketing, annual report).

In addition to the breadth of corporate communication management, consistency and coherence in all forms of communication are relevant when managing communication and essential for creating cohesive identity. Marketing messages need to present a unifying image. Duncan and Moriarty (1998:6) summarise the pertinence of communication, at both the corporate and marketing levels:

> Brand messages originate at the corporate, marketing, and marketing communication levels. In other words, all corporate activities, marketing mix activities, and marketing communication have communication dimensions.
At the corporate level, messages sent by the company's overall business practices and philosophies have communication 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”.

The desire for consistency in corporate communication fuelled the drive toward integrated marketing communications (IMC) (Bernstein, 1986; Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). In turn, this led to the need for corporate communications consistency. Simoes et al. (2005) explains that corporate brand (identity) consistency is linked to both marketing communication and visual identity in a way that allows for the transmission of a consistent image to different audiences. In this respect, brand consistency has an overarching nature in that it includes a wide spectrum of items from symbolism to a consistent marketing image. This aligns with the literature that advocates that CI concerns all possible forms of communication (e.g., marketing, internal and corporate communications) (Van Riel, 1995), IMC, a high level of symbolism (Olins, 1991; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Van den Bosch et al., 2006a; 2006b), and consistent image.

Accordingly, addressing consistency of communications in this thesis focuses on the degree to which the organisation’s advertising, sales promotion, PR etc. provide a similar clear, consistent message to its stakeholders, and the extent to which the organisation sends out a consistent visual presentation via buildings, equipment and stationary (Simoes et al., 2005).

Further, corporate communications includes CVI (Schmidt, 1995; Markwick and Fill, 1997; Balmer and Soenen, 1998), as the latter is also linked to corporate brand consistency in a way that allows transmission of a consistent image to different audiences (Simoes et al., 2005). CVI is based on graphic design perspective (Balmer, 1995) and seeks consistency across all possible forms of a company's physical identification in order to develop a strong corporate image.

Accordingly, CVI is considered a mechanism for expressing the organisation’s distinctive identity, and strategy (Hatch et al., 2001). Van den Bosh et al. (2006:871) describe CVI as the “most tangible asset for the self-expression of an organisation”, thus, from their view, “CVI must be viewed as an important strategic instrument within corporate communication”. By coordinating and integrating CVI with other
communication tools, they will be instrumental in generating identification by stakeholders, and so to building organisation reputation (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007).

In this sense, companies should develop handbooks that specify appropriate language, style, and nomenclature that guide integration across communication systems. Even for small companies, it is advisable to do so in order to build recognition and reputation and attract more investors and customers (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007). Thus, coordination and integration are considered the hallmarks of an effective system for corporate communication.

Van den Bosch et al. (2004) demonstrated how CVI can be studied at three levels: strategic, operational, and design level (See Figure 7.4). The strategic level emphasises corporate choices with regard to corporate branding strategy, e.g., monolithic, endorsed and branded strategy (Maathuis, 1999; Olins, 1989), and the choice between a standardised and a localised CI for multinational organisations (Melewar et al., 2000; Melewar and Saunders, 1998, 1999; Schmitt, 1995). This echoes Melewar’s brand structure in the CI construct (Section 2.6.5.1) which revealed mixed results in phase one of the research (See Section 6.3.8.1), and accordingly was not included in revised the CI taxonomy. Thus, the strategic level of CVI is not considered when measuring CI.

**Figure 7.4: Levels of CVI Research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic Level</th>
<th>Design Level</th>
<th>Operational Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate name</td>
<td>CVI Design Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Branding Structure</td>
<td>Corporate logo</td>
<td>CVI Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate Slogan</td>
<td>Maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Typography (Colour &amp; Font)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Van den Bosch et al. (2004).

The design level emphasises the effectiveness and functionality of particular elements of a CVI. The literature (See 2.6.1.1) suggests that the scope of an organisation’s visual expressions encompasses a wider range of areas. Specifically, the CI of a company is projected by 1) CVIS (which includes logo/symbol, name, slogan, colour and typography) (Dowling, 1994; Melewar and Saunders, 1999,2000; Topalian, 1984); and other applications such as: 2) Staff apparel (Dowling, 1994; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Kennedy, 1977; Van Riel, 1995), and 3) Corporate aesthetics including printed material
(e. g. stationery, promotional literature etc.) and exterior and interior design of company buildings (e. g. headquarters, plants, retail stores, offices etc.) (Schmitt et al., 1995; Topalian, 1984).

The operational level emphasises the development and management of CVIS, as well as translating a desired CI into an effective and visual presentation (Melewar and Saunders, 1998). With regard to developing and managing CVI, Van den Bosch et al. (2006b:873) distinguish three characteristics in regards to how CVI is managed: “1) Knowledge of CVI Strategy; 2) CVI Tools and Support, and 3) CVI Socialization Processes, which are all derived from literature on the strategy, structure, and culture of organisations”. Consistency of CVI is defined as “the extent to which the various CVI elements were actually employed as intended” (Van den Bosch et al., 2006b:873). This is based on the premise CVI consistency is based on establishing CVI guiding principle and how these principles are implemented, which affects the level of consistency in visual presentation of the corporation.

Accordingly, this thesis addresses CVI from both the design and operational levels due to their importance in CVI literature, thus, focuses on the degree of functionality and effectiveness of CVIS and its applications, the development and management of CVI, and the degree to which a desired CI is translated into a coherent, consistent, and effective visual self-presentation.

The preceding discussion relates to controlled communication. However, formal communication occurs among other forms of unplanned communication; that is interpersonal, intermediary and intrapersonal as acknowledged by Cornelissen (2000) (Section 2.6.1.2.).

In terms of interpersonal communication, it is well accepted in the marketing literature that consumers give substantial importance to non-marketing dominated sources of information when forming opinions about products and corporations. In this respect, WOM communication has been considered as an input into consumer decision-making (Halstead, 2002; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Lau and Ng, 2001). Information exchange between people (WOM) concerning an organisation or a product is commonly considered in consumer research to be a major determinant of consumer attitude and behavioural change (Christiansen and Tax, 2000). Similarly, in respect of intermediary communication, favourable news spread by mass media, non-government organisations
(NGOs) and opinion leaders etc. can affect consumers’ perceptions of corporations. Christiansen and Tax (2000) argue that the development of new technologies for information exchange like the internet has extended the definition of Word-of-Mouth from being only person-to-person. They assert that the information delivered by different mediums also plays a role in WOM communication. Fombrun and Shanley (1990) note that management should ensure that clear corporate information is presented in the media in order to create a favourable impression in the public domain. They assert that companies should also strive for positive coverage in newspapers and in reports by non-profit organisations or governmental institutions as much as possible to help shape consumers’ views about their organisations. Hence, the news obtained from intermediaries can shape customers’ view of companies’ identities.

As can be shown from the above review, the bulk of the literature has considered WOM from a behavioural perspective (De Matos and Rosi, 2008; Mazzarol et al., 2007) considering consumers as users (Derbaix et al., 2003; Roselius, 1971; Sweeney et al., 2008) or providers of WOM (Harrison-Walker, 2001; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Selnes, 1993; 1998). Such research reveals important understanding of the reasons that drive customers to use and participate in WOM (e.g., reducing risk, commitment, satisfaction) (Hartline and Jones, 1996; Selnes, 1993). However, the opportunities for companies to manage WOM are argued to be limited, resulting in few studies (e.g., Ennew et al, 2000; Haywood, 1989) which consider WOM activity as part of the corporate programme (Haywood, 1989).

Since this thesis aims to develop a scale of CI from a managerial perspective, WOM is addressed from an internal perspective, which focuses on the degree to which firms attempt to manage this form of communication (e.g., the degree to which the organisation actively monitors WOM through websites, facebook, etc) (Ennew et al., 2000), yet filling a gap in the body of knowledge.

In this respect, WOM refers to verbal communication (either positive or negative) among groups, e.g., friends and family, independent experts, product provider and the real or prospective consumer (Helm and Scheli, 1998).

The above discussion shows how corporate communication theory explains the communication and corporate visual identity dimensions of CI. It has been shown that, when managing communication it is important to take into account the breadth of
controlled communication management, the consistency of communication as well as managing uncontrolled communication (WOM). This indicates the degree to which communication is regarded as important by the company (Simoes et al., 2005). In addition, companies should consider the design, operation and management, and consistency of CVI.

7.4.2. Stakeholder Theory: Foundation for Corporate Behaviour

Stakeholder theory advocates that organisations are accountable for various audiences (stakeholder groups), such as stockholders, customers, and employees (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). Unlike the traditional economic/legal viewpoint, which ignores all non-commercial interactions and is only concerned with increasing shareholders’ profits, stakeholder theory adopts a pragmatic standpoint that regards shareholders as one of various contributors to an organisation. Stakeholder theory views the purpose of the company in an entirely different way, where it is not important any longer to distinguish between the social and economic objectives the organisation. It recognises that continued existence of organisations is affected by various stakeholders including shareholders and others, e.g., customers, employees, governments (Lee, 2008), and this view is pertinent to the strategic nature of CI management.

The main aim of CI is to develop a positive reputation among an organisation's stakeholders. In so doing, consumers become more willing to buy a company's products, employees are more predisposed to work for it, and banks are more likely to invest in it (Balmer, 1995; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). This discussion reflects the fact that organisations have distinct audiences who may perceive the organisation differently and develop their own ideas about it (Dowling, 1994). Individual stakeholders interpret the conveyed organisational images and build a cognitive image of the organisation. When their identities overlap with the perceived organisational image, stakeholders identify with the organisation (Scott and Lane, 2000). Given that every group of stakeholders presents companies with particular responsibilities (Clarkson, 1995; Maignan et al., 1999) managers must manage operations with the interests of all stakeholders in mind (Simoes et al., 2005).

Stakeholders’ issues are part of corporate behaviour and identity, and thus “the firm is viewed as a trustee for the interests of its various stakeholders” (Balmer et al., 2007:10). In this respect, CI is an important strategic tool for understanding and understanding and dealing with the needs and demands of firms’ stakeholders (Berrone et al., 2007),
which include legitimate demands for product safety, workplace non-discrimination, business performance, and environmental interaction. Managers also have an ethical responsibility (and an enlightened self-interest) to direct firm operations to balance between stockholder benefits’ (Hay and Gray, 1974). Thus, the way firms manage their interactions with these domains contributes to the shaping of CI because their values, actions, and stance present a means of differentiation from other organisations (Berrone et al., 2007), which in turn influences stakeholders’ perceptions of the corporation (Balmer at al., 2007; Morsing, 2006). Thus, CI becomes the result of continuous interactions between the organisation and its stakeholders (Stuart, 2002).

Thus, stakeholder theory provides theoretical foundation for corporate behaviour as a key dimension of CI by considering CI as a strategic tool for fulfilling different stakeholders’ needs and requirements. The corporate behaviour aspect of CI is addressed in terms of how much a company supports environmental and social issues, based on Brown and Dacin (1997), Gardberg and Fombrun (2002), and Simoes et al. (2005).

7.4.3. Organisational Theory: Foundation for Corporate Culture

Organisational culture is defined by Deshpande and Webster (1989:4) as:

“The unwritten, the formally decreed, and what actually takes place, it is the pattern of shared values and beliefs that helps individuals understand the functioning of the firm and thus provides them norms for behaviour in the firm”.

Accordingly, culture centres on the underlying or informal elements within the company, which may have a more profound effect on behaviour than formal techniques (Appiah et al., 1999; Schneider and Rentsch, 1988; Wilson, 2001). Further, values have a key role to play in the formation of culture and are considered significant as they influence behaviour (De Chernatony and Cottam, 2008; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Kotter and Heskett, 1992).

Sorensen (2002:70) supports this, arguing that corporate culture gives personnel a structure for their responses to the context and therefore culture may be seen as offering a guide to behaviour. Similarly, according to O'Reilly and Chatman (1996:160), culture assists in “defining appropriate behaviours for organisational members”. Thus, culture can offer tacit norms or rules that serve as control systems in terms of how one is expected to behave (Deshpande and Webster, 1989) which impacts CI.
Hence, it is logical to conclude that this behaviour plays a major part in CI implementation. This is also asserted given the important contributions offered by research in organisational identification for understanding the significance of employee behaviour in shaping CI (Stuart, 2002).

Accordingly, culture can be used to support behaviour which is consistent with organisation character and principles. This is consistent with the integration paradigm (Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Schein, 1985) adopted in this thesis, which holds that culture is possessed by the company and can be dealt with as an independent variable. This is to assume that every organisation has a uniform culture with universal belief and values (Martin, 2002). This is, however, in contrast to the differentiation paradigm, which views the organisation as being its culture rather than possessing it (Meyerson and Martin, 1987), and assumes that it is possible for there to be a number of subcultures with different values in an organisation (Martin, 2002).

De Chernatony (2006:158) highlights the argument on culture and brand identity by stating:

“When an organisation has its different departments aligned with a desired culture, there is a more unified identity presented to different stakeholders and greater likelihood that staff will act in a more consistent manner”.

The idea of an ‘aligned’ culture suggests the prior establishment of values which support uniform behaviour throughout a company. This view reflects Kotter and Heskett’s (1992:15) Theory I of a strong corporate culture where “almost all managers share a set of relatively consistent values and methods of doing business”. However, Kotter and Heskett (1992) note that viewing cultures only from a strong standpoint may be to oversimplify the issue. Strong cultures are not advantageous at all times and have the potential to suppress innovation and creativity (Nemeth, 1997) and foster conformity (Kim et al., 2004; Lee and Yu, 2004). This may be a result of a successful financial operation, leading to the emergence of strong cultures which at first were appropriate to the corporation’s context, but are not any longer. Hence, Kotter and Heskett (1992) posit Theories II and III of corporate culture. Theory II emphasise the idea of a culture which is strategically suitable and which matches an organisation’s current situation. Theory II has been criticised on the grounds that, because of change, the culture context match could cease to be suitable. Hence, it could be seen as leading to a short- to medium-term viewpoint.
Theory III concerns the ability of leaders and managers to amend corporate strategy in view of changes in the requirements of the stakeholders through a flexible corporate culture. Therefore, according to Theory III, change takes place to keep a match among the company and its stakeholder, while Theory II is concerned with a fit with the environment or culture which is less fluctuating. Hence, Kotter and Heskett’s (1992) work, particularly Theory III, may be seen as an extension of the literature on culture as it has a more active and flexible standpoint, holding that culture must alter in accordance with the context of the corporation.

Hence, this thesis adopts a functionalist view which treats organisational culture as an independent variable, given the marketing dominant perspective applied. Further, treating organisational culture as a manageable construct fits with the CI approach applied in this thesis, which employs a managerial perspective that considers CI as a construct that can be managed. Culture is addressed using the competing values framework (CVF), since values are reliable and measurable representation of organisational culture (Howard, 1998; Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010), yet, considered central to understanding an organisation’s culture (Ott, 1989). The following discusses the CVF adopted in this thesis.

Quinn and his collaborators (Quinn, 1988; Quinn and Kimberly, 1984; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1981) pioneered CVF. It has become a validated model used widely to investigate organisational culture and to analyse organisations (Cameron, 2008; Deshpande and Farley, 1999, 2004). CVF has been shown to be a useful framework for the identification and assessment of dominant organisational cultures as it assists in the identification of the fundamental culture in corporations (Cameron, 2008). It helps to raise consciousness of cultural attributes (Zammuto and Krakower, 1991). Further, the CVF has been widely used by both researchers and practitioners and has been used to gain a better comprehension of the association between company culture and social behaviour and sustainability initiative (Crane, 1995; Dodge, 1997; Linnenluecke et al., 2009; Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010; Übius and Alas, 2009).

The framework comprises two dimensions. The first distinguishes an emphasis on adaptability, activity and discretion from an emphasis on permanence, order, and direction. The second dimension distinguishes an emphasis on an external outlook, differentiation and competitiveness from an emphasis on an internal outlook, integration, and cohesiveness. A matrix of four quadrants is formed by these dimensions,
each of which represents a different grouping of indicators of organisational effectiveness. Figure 7.5 shows the interrelation of the two dimensions, together with the four quadrants.

**Figure 7.5: The Competing Values Framework**

![Diagram showing the Competing Values Framework](image)

Source: Cameron and Quinn (2006).

It has been found that these dimensions correspond to what individuals hold to be important in an organisation’s performance and what they view as appropriate, desirable and correct. Moreover, it has also been found that these dimensions accurately depict how individuals process information, what basic human requirements exist, and which central values are involved in the formation of judgements and entering into activity (Beyer and Cameron, 1997; Cameron and Ettington, 1988; Lawrence and Nohria, 2002; Wilber, 2000). Hence, they describe some of the fundamental underlying dimensions that comprise organisational culture.

The noteworthy quality of these dimensions is their ability to represent opposed or conflicting suppositions. Each scale focuses on a central value that is the opposite of the value on at the other end of the scale; for example, internal as opposed to external, and adaptability as opposed to permanence.

Therefore, dimensions generate quadrants that are also conflicting or opposing on the diagonal. The lower right quadrant shows values that emphasise an external, directed focus, whereas the upper left quadrant displays values that emphasise an internal, undirected focus. In a similar way, the upper left quadrant shows values that have an
internal directed focus, while the upper right quadrant shows values with an internal, undirected focus. These opposing or conflicting values in the quadrants that give the framework its name: the Competing Values Framework.

Table 7.2: Description of CVF Culture Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clan Culture</th>
<th>(the upper left quadrant of CVF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristics:</strong></td>
<td>Friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family with best friends at work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dominant attributes:</strong></td>
<td>Cohesiveness, participation, teamwork, sense of family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leaders:</strong></td>
<td>Mentors, coaches, facilitators, parent figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonding:</strong></td>
<td>The glue that holds the organisation together is an emphasis on loyalty, tradition, and collaboration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategic Emphasis:</strong></td>
<td>The long-term concerns of the organization are on benefits of individual development with high cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. The organisation places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adhocracy Culture</th>
<th>(the upper right quadrant of CVF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic:</strong></td>
<td>Dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative workplace. People stick their necks out and take risks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dominant attributes:</strong></td>
<td>Creativity, entrepreneurship, adaptability, dynamism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leaders:</strong></td>
<td>Visionary, innovative, and risk-oriented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonding:</strong></td>
<td>The glue that holds the organisation together is an emphasis on commitment to experimentation and innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategic Emphasis:</strong></td>
<td>The organisation’s long term concern is on rapid growth and acquiring new resources. Success means producing unique and original products and services. Readiness for change and meeting new challenges are important.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market Culture</th>
<th>(the lower right quadrant of CVF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic:</strong></td>
<td>Results-oriented workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leaders:</strong></td>
<td>Hard-driving producers, directors, and competitors. They are aggressive and demanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonding:</strong></td>
<td>The glue that holds the organisation together is an emphasis on winning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategic Emphasis:</strong></td>
<td>The long-term concern is on competitive actions and achieving stretch goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Outpacing the competition, escalating share price, and market leadership dominate the success criteria.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hierarchy Culture</th>
<th>(the lower left quadrant)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic:</strong></td>
<td>Formalized and structured place to work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dominant attributes:</strong></td>
<td>Procedures and well-defined processes govern what people do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leaders:</strong></td>
<td>Good coordinators, organizers, and efficiency experts. Maintaining a smooth-running organisation is important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonding:</strong></td>
<td>The glue that holds the organisation together is an emphasis on formal rules and policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategic Emphasis:</strong></td>
<td>The long-term concerns of the organisation are stability, predictability, and efficiency.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006).
Every quadrant in CVF has a label that distinguishes its most salient features - clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy (See Table 7.2). These names were taken from the academic literature and show the way in which, over time, various different organisational values have become linked with various types of cultures which reflect the effectiveness of organisations (Cameron and Ettington, 1988:385). Accordingly, addressing corporate culture through CVF highlights the extent to which employees within an organisation experience each of the four culture types of CVF, e.g., clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy.

Importantly, Deshpande et al. (1993) pointed out that these are model or prevailing culture types but are not mutually exclusive. By implication, the majority of organisations can and do comprise features of more than one type of culture, which may be between product groups within the same strategic business unit (SBU). None the less, over time, one type of culture comes to be the prevailing one, which matches the aligned perspective adopted here.

7.4.4. Leadership Theory: Foundation for Management Behaviour and Organisation Founder

The leadership literature reveals many categories of theories and typologies of leadership, according to recent reviews by Aycan (2008) and Dorfman and House (2004), which include (but are not limited to) trait theories, situational leadership, behaviourist theories, contingency theory, transactional theory and transformational theory, and others. This thesis focuses on behaviourist theory and transformational leadership to explain the leadership role of the management behaviour and organisation founder, respectively, in developing CI.

In respect to management behaviour, senior managers play an important role in driving CI and shaping internal and external stakeholders perceptions, as cited in CI, organisational identity (OI) and leadership management literature (Melewar, 2003; Scott and Lane, 2000; Van Riel, 2008). Van Riel (2008) notes that management, in particular the CEO, plays an important symbolic role as the spiritual and emotional leader of an organisation and is sometimes ascribed heroic characteristics. The symbolism of top management speeches is considered an important expression of a company’s values and priorities (Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2006). Argenti (1998), and Hunt and Grunig (1994) note that the CEOs of organisations should be a part of the public relations
activities, and appear in the media and on public occasions as spokespersons of their organisations.

Thus, top managers are concerned with promoting attractive organisational images for presentation to stakeholders (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990) for the purpose of organisational identification construction (OIC) (Hill and Jones, 1992) and other strategic reasons (e.g., corporate reputation building and goal attainment). Drawing on leadership management literature, this is considered the primary role of leadership to manage OI toward that end (Pfeffer, 1981).

In this sense, this thesis argues that the representational role of leaders measures management behaviour, where the latter is considered an element of the CI mix. A representational leader is defined as a person who ‘speaks and acts as the representative of the group/organisation’ (Stogdill, 1963). Accordingly, representation emphasises the degree to which managers (as leaders) act as the spokesperson of the organisation; speak as a representative of the organisation, speak for the organisation when visitors are present; represent the organisation at outside meetings and publicize its activities. This is based on the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and underpinned by the behavioural school of leadership which presumes that there exists effective behaviours for leaders which can be revealed by observing leaders acting in practice, or by asking staff about the their supervisors’ behaviour (Abdul Hamid et al., 2012; Benson, 1998).

In respect of organisation founders, they are referred to as value-based leaders who set the organisational vision and shape CI through their impact on organisational culture, especially small and medium sized corporations (Brexendorf and Kernstock, 2007; Burmann and Zeplin, 2005). This positively affects organisational identification, increases the intrinsic valence of goal accomplishment, and enables the behaviour of employees to align with CI (Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2006). Although the founder’s importance is commonly associated with corporate history, it is acknowledged that the founders’ principles often remain an important part of organisations’ identity (Hall et al., 2004). Thus, the founding stage is critical to identity formation (Kimberly and Bouchikhi, 1995; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

Hence, the leadership role of founders has been emphasised as fundamental in proactively impacting, stimulating and shaping organisational culture (Chatman and
With regard to corporate branding, Burmann and Zeplin (2005:293) assert that leadership and strong culture advance organisational identification. Importantly, they assume that transformational leadership theory, developed by Bass (1978; 1985), is the most effective kind of leadership that creates identification. With regard to corporate branding, Burmann and Zeplin (2005:293) describe transformational leadership as “leaders’ behaviours that influence the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and induce them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the [corporate] brand”.

According to Bass’s (1985) conceptualisation of leadership, transformational leaders provide meaning and stimulate followers, thereby helping them identify with corporate goals and problems (Shamir et al., 1993). Further, such leaders strengthen the common identity of work groups (Dionne et al., 2004) and thus advance organisational identification (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005; Lindebaum and Cartwright, 2010).

Antonakis (2001) and Avolio et al. (1999) identified four distinct components/dimensions of transformational leadership, which are referred to as a higher order construct of transformational leadership. These include 1) Idealized influence (which represents the degree to which leaders are admired, respected, and trusted). This dimension includes charisma (where the leader provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust); 2) Inspiration (where the leader communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, and expresses important purposes in simple ways); 3) Intellectual stimulation (where the leader promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving); 4) Individualized consideration (where the leader gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises) (Bass, 1990; Bass et al., 2003). The transformational approach is commonly contrasted with more traditional ‘transactional’ leadership, where the leader gains commitment from followers on the basis of a straightforward exchange of pay and security etc. in return for reliable work (Bass et al., 2003).

Accordingly, organisation founder, addressed through transformational leadership, focuses on the extent to which founders provide meaning and stimulate followers, thereby helping them identify with corporate goals and problems (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993).
As the above discussion shows, rather than being distinct and separate, leadership is considered a dimension of a multifaceted management role (Mintzberg, 1973, 1975). Thus, management and leadership are considered an important part of developing CI.

7.4.5. Organisational Identification and Social Identity Theory (SIT): Foundation for Employee Behaviour and Mission Statement

Organisational identification is the perception of unity with or belonging to a social aggregate (in this case, an organisation) (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Organisational identification is underpinned by social identity theory (SIT) which has been considered the most prominent and pervasive theoretical framework in contemporary organisational identification research (Haslam, 2004; Van Dick, 2001; Riketta, 2005; Boros, 2008). SIT was developed by Tajfel (1978:63) who defined it as the “cognition of membership of a group and the value and emotional significance attached to this membership”. Consequently, social identity constitutes three distinctive dimensions: (1) a cognitive component, which is the knowledge of being a member of a certain group; (2) an affective dimension, which is the emotional attachment to that group; and (3) an evaluative aspect, which describes the value connotation assigned to that group from outside. Recently, a fourth dimension has been added, which represents a fourth dimension (Gautam et al., 2004).

Organisational identification is considered a special kind of social identification where individuals cognitively perceive themselves members of or belong to a specific corporation (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Punjaisri et al., 2009). The cognitive dimension is considered the focal of organisational identification; an initial step which could subsequently result in the emergence of other facets (affective, evaluative and behavioural) of organisational identification (Riketta, 2005), (e.g., organisational identification is related to employee behaviour) (Lievens et al., 2007).

Identification is created when organisational staff recognises overlap between their principles and objectives, and are able to influence organisational mission and behaviour (Miller et al., 2000). However, if employees feel uncertain about their organisation’s principles and values, this results in weak organisational identification.

Therefore, employees’ organisation identification is regarded as a circular process: the greater the employees identification with their organisation, the greater the stability and consistency of the organisation identity, and the greater the likelihood of employees
upholding that identity in their behaviour. The opposite is also true: the less they identify with an organisation, the less stable the identity will become (Stuart, 2002).

Further, employees who identify with their organisation seems to view themselves as representing the organisation while dealing with corporate audiences and hold organisation concerns as priority when making their decisions (Boros, 2008; Miller et al., 2000) Also, Organisational identification aligns employees and corporate interests, enables accomplishing tasks, and organisational citizenship behaviours (Haslam, 2004; Johnson and Ashforth, 2008; Van Knippenberg and Ellemers, 2003).

Therefore, research on organisational identification offers important contributions for understanding the significance of employee behaviour and identification in shaping CI. Thus, employee behaviour is measured from an organisational perspective in terms of OI, which is argued by Van Riel and Fombrun (2007) to be applicable to the context of CI. Van Riel and Balmer (1997) assert that employees should align with corporate principles and objectives, based on the premise that employee behaviour directly influences CI and image (Kennedy, 1977) since employees are a substantial source of competitive advantage (Boros, 2008) and interface with customers.

Accordingly, employee behaviour focuses on the extent to which members describe themselves by the same characteristics as those they perceive characterize the organisation. Consequently, organisational identification is created when employees define themselves with the core and distinguishing characteristics of their organisation (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Pratt, 1998; Haslam, 2004; Johnson and Ashforth, 2008). In this context, employees identify with the CI and the OI (Stuart, 2002). This supports the premise adopted in this thesis which assumes that OI is an integral part of CI (see Section 2.3).

In this sense, the mission statement plays an important role in shaping employees behaviour. The mission statement entails features of an organisation that relate to its sense of purpose over time (Levin, 2000), thus it forms either explicitly or implicitly a vehicle for information about organisation’s identity. Corporate missions encompassing corporate values represent the articulation of the corporate philosophy, therefore it emphasises the uniqueness of the company and guides organisational direction (Bernstein, 1986; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Also, core values become the code of conduct. This leads to the definition of tradition in terms of important attitudes and
behaviours. Importantly, however, behaviour is embodied in employees’ actions and behaviours (Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Cascading the company’s values and philosophy from managers down to employees makes them committed to organisational goals, which establishes a point of contact with organisational identification. This point of view supports that identity may be expressed in common values and principles, mission and organisational climates (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Moreover, frequently communicating corporate mission and principles to staff contributes to the reinforcement of consistent behaviour. Accordingly, addressing mission statement is this thesis focuses on the extent to which mission statement is communicated and disseminated in the organisation among employees.

Thus, transposing the idea that mission is a ‘vocalisation’ of corporate beliefs to stakeholders, the communication and dissemination of corporate the mission becomes part of CI (Simoes et al., 2005). Mission dissemination allows the setting of behavioural guidelines for employees and staff through the promotion and diffusion of an organisation's mission, values and goals. This accentuates the importance of appropriately communicating the shared mission to employees and ensuring that it has been properly interpreted.

7.5 Dimension Interactions

With the evolution of the CI theoretical framework, interrelations between CI dimensions emerge. Table 7.3 shows how the wider marketing literature has considered the relation between certain dimensions.

Taking into consideration these interactions, it is necessary to impose and accept potential research constraints in order to move from the conceptualisation of the construct to its operationalisation. This is in line with the rationale that it may not be possible for the marketing constructs of concern accurately to depict the whole spectrum of reality (Keon, 1991).

To assist in addressing this subject, Leeflang and Wittink (2000) suggest that it is preferable to develop frameworks in accordance with particular purposes. Therefore, these interrelations, although noted, will not be analysed statistically in this thesis. There are two reasons for this. One is that they do not have a direct relation to the research objectives and objectives. The other reason is that it would encumber the
In fact, Ehrenberg et al. (2000) outline that in the literature of marketing, it is a common error to build complicated models at the early phase of development. Accordingly, at this phase in the process, it is more crucial to establish a clear understanding of CI dimensions and provide empirical evidence of what constitute the construct domain, than to address the interaction among these dimensions.

### 7.6. CI and CSR

The previous sections of this chapter considered a wide range of literature to explain the theoretical underpinning of the dimensions of the CI construct; see Figure 7.1 for the CI framework. The CI framework consists of six dimensions. These are communication, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder.

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**Table 7.3: CI Framework - Dimensions Interactions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions Interaction</th>
<th>Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate visual identity and Communication (Notes 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>(De Chernatony, 2006; Melewar and Saunders, 1998; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005; Van den Bosch et al., 2005, 2006a; Van Rekom, 1997; Van Riel, 1995; Van Riel and Van den Ban, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and corporate visual identity (Notes 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>(Balmer, 1995; Schein, 1984; Van de Bosch et al., 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate visual identity and employee behaviour and identification</td>
<td>(Van den Bosch et al., 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and Behaviour (Note 1)</td>
<td>(Albert and Wheten, 1985; Hatch and Schultz, 1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and communication</td>
<td>(van Riel, 1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission statement and Behaviour</td>
<td>(Linnenluecke et al., 2010; Simoes et al., 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Founder and Culture (Note 1)</td>
<td>(Burmann and Zepli, 2005; Hillestad et al., 2010; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1983)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note 1:** Authors tended to use the term symbolism, symbol or logo to refer to what is now generally referred to corporate visual identity.

**Note 2:** Authors tend to refer to the term ‘culture’ generically. It is assumed here that most authors are referring to organisational culture, in particular Deshpande and Farley (1999).
This section seeks to justify a research hypothesis outlining the influence the independent variable (CI) has on the dependent variable. The dependent variable of this thesis is corporate social responsibility (CSR).

CSR is defined by Carroll (1979:500; 1991:283) as follows:

“The social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary [later referred to as philanthropic] expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time”.

Accordingly, this section attempts to synthesize the CI and CSR literature. Figure (7.6) conceptualises this process:

**Figure 7.6: Conceptualising the Influence CI has on CSR**

At present, empirical research that assesses the influence CI has on CSR has not been conducted. Consequently, a theoretically informed body of knowledge does not exist which this thesis can use to ground a CI-CSR hypothesis. However, it is still regarded possible to hypothesise:

**H1: CI has a positive and significant influence on CSR**
The logic for this approach is underpinned by three rationales. First, the notions of organisational sensemaking and identity orientation presented by Basu and Plazzu (2008) explain how an organisation makes sense of its world. Second, the previous sections of this chapter explored the domain of CI. In order to develop this hypothesis, this section will outline how the literature indicates that each dimension of CI, in isolation, has a positive impact on CSR. Third, the potential for positive dimension interactions is highlighted (See Section 7.5). Consequently, it is not considered unreasonable to hypothesise that CI, which is made manifest via these dimensions, should have an influence on CSR.

Adopting this approach is consistent with former Journal of Marketing Editor Varadarajan (1996:4) who, when reflecting on JM submissions during his time as an editor noted:

“[T]hat little prior theorising exists to lay the foundation for a sound conceptualisations does not exempt the researcher from the responsibility for developing at least a preliminary framework or model that would provide insights into the phenomenon of interest. For instance, an author could present a logically reasoned explanation of why a certain relationship may be true”.

Now the logic underpinning the development of the CI-CSR hypothesis has been shared, it is necessary to address the first point above. This is followed by the second point which relates to reviewing literature that outlines the influence of each dimension, in isolation, on CSR.

7.6.1. The Idea of Identity Orientation and CSR

In recent years, there have been many studies on institutional factors that may shape or trigger CSR (Basu and Palazzo, 2008; Brickson, 2007; Campbell, 2006; De Graaf, 2006; Gond and Herrbach, 2006; Jones, 1999; Margolis and Walsh, 2003). This has led to a rich body of research linking key organisational features to the nature of CSR.

According to Basu and Palazzo (2008), CSR-related activities are guided by the inherent direction of the organisation, identified through a set of cognitive, linguistic and conative dimensions. These dimensions are assumed to make up a process of organisational sensemaking within which CSR is rooted. In this approach, activities such as CSR are not considered a direct result of external demands, however they originate from organisationally entrenched cognitive and linguistic processes. Brickson (2007) asserts that these sensemaking processes within an organisation affect
perceptions of the world is viewed within the organisation, and thus result in the organisation viewing its relationships with stakeholders in a specific manner. This then impacts on the organisation’s engagement with stakeholders, and crucial decisions regarding demands, both external and internal.

The focus of this section is the cognitive dimension, which entails “thinking about the organisation’s relationships with its stakeholders and views about the broader world (e.g., the ‘common good’ that goes beyond what’s good for business) as well as the rationale for engaging in specific activities that might impact on key relationships” (Basu and Palazzo, 2008:9). Basu and Palazzo (2008) hold that the cognitive dimension of an organisation’s sensemaking process is founded on its identity orientation. They state that an organisation’s ideology has been defined as the “shared, relatively coherent interrelated sets of emotionally charged beliefs, values and norms that bind some people together and help them to make sense of their worlds” (Trice and Beyer, 1993:33). These shared perceptions are held to make up the organisation’s identity, forming the basis for interaction with others (Albert et al., 2000). Brickson (2007) suggested that identity orientation is a construct consisting of the shared perceptions of what an organisation is, hence influencing motivation and behaviour. It is “best positioned to inform how businesses relate to stakeholders and why they relate to them as they do” (Brickson, 2007:13).

Brickson (2007) specifies the identity orientation that an organisation might employ in terms of three types, individualistic, relational and collectivistic, each being defined by a completely different view of reality. Whether managers view, is likely to influence the kind of relationships that organisations build with their stakeholders and the world outside the domain of their business interest likely to be affected by whether managers perceive of their organisations in individualistic, relational, or collectivistic terms (Brickson, 2007). In turn, the nature of these perceived relationships determine the characteristics of their activities, including activities related to.

For instance, if an individualistic organisation chooses to engage in CSR, it may take a competitive attitude and strive to be the best performer of through opting for activities that highly visible (Basu and Palazzo, 2008:12). In contrast, with regard to CSR, a relational organisation may focus on CSR activities that are likely to reinforce specific stakeholder relationships, such as, for example, making contributions to charitable institutions that are preferred by staff in order to enhance their loyalty (Basu and
Organisations with a *collectivistic* orientation tend to view themselves as part of wider network which go beyond the stakeholders most directly involved in their business operations. In terms of CSR, a collectivistic organisation may opt to address a social or environmental issue, by cooperating with others and using its resources to participate in high profile activities (Basu and Palazzo, 2008).

Hence, organisational shared values and beliefs make up the organisational identity and shape an organisational orientation (individualistic, relational or collectivistic) which creates the basis for interaction with others. Some work has dealt with external forces on organisations and their CSR initiatives (Campbell, 2006; Greening and Gray, 1994; Jones, 1999) but it is argued that another, potentially fuller description of CSR emerges from the study of internal institutional determinants (Basu and Palazzo, 2008; Brickson, 2007).

In this respect, it is argued in this thesis that CI, which is a combination of internal and external elements signalling what the organisation is and what it represents, determines CSR adoption. It is suggested that this effect occurs through five dimensions, namely, corporate communications (internal and external); behaviour (management, employee and corporate), culture (values); mission statement and; organisation founder (See Figure 7.6). These dimensions have been identified from the literature review and determined by the exploratory phase of the research in which practitioners’ perceptions of the relationship between CI and CSR were revealed. In this thesis, an eclectic theoretical framework founded on a perspective that interweaves a number of several theoretical domains, such as leadership, corporate communication, stakeholder management, and organisational identification and culture, is used to explain the relationship between CI and CSR.

The second point in explaining the relationship between CI and CSR concerns reviewing literature that explores the effect of each individual dimension on CSR.

### 7.6.2. Dimensions of CI and CSR

#### 7.6.2.1. Corporate Communications and CSR

In respect of the relationship between corporate communication and CSR adoption, Steyn (2007) argue that corporate communication has a strategic role. This is found on the premise that “corporate communication is practised as a strategic management function with a unique disciplinary identity supporting organisational environmental
adaptation by balancing the organisation’s commercial imperatives and the socially acceptable behaviour” (Steyn, 2007:159).

Corporate communications is the orchestration of all internal and external tools of communication, with the focus on stakeholders (Trapp, 2010; Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007). It seeks to develop common understanding between a corporation and its different stakeholders, which adds a societal aspect, particularly in respect of public relations (Grunig, 2006) highlighting social participation (e.g., philanthropic and sponsorship activities) as a reaction to the rising pressure of societies on firms (Daugherty, 2001).

Through proactive issues management and environmental scanning activities, Steyn asserts that corporate communication can identify and respond to stakeholders concerns and create competitive advantage for the organisation (Steyn, 2007). In this sense, Benn et al. (2010) describe these competencies of corporate communications to be valuable particularly in the area of CSR, since relationships with stakeholders are becoming more sophisticated complex.

Issues management includes “the identification of, and response to all the strategic, public policy, and importantly social issues confronting organisations” (Wartick and Rude, 1986:125-140). Heath (1998) argues that issues management strengthens the role of communication, particularly public relations, and allows it to get involved in strategic planning, influence the standards of CSR and encourage sustained issue communication with key stakeholders. Environmental scanning is defined as the “managerial activity of learning about events and trends in the organisation’s environment. It is the first step in the ongoing chain of perceptions and actions leading to an organisation’s adaptation to its environment” (Hambrick, 1981:299).

Notably, both issues management and environmental scanning are considered key facets of corporate social performance (CSR) models (e.g., Caroll, 1979; Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Wood, 1991) which entails managing organisation reactions to public issues via developing and screening processes, both internal and external (Brown and Dacin, 1979). Wood (1991) describes environmental, issue and stakeholder management are major processes of CSR, which allow the organisation to stay informed of and able to deal with stakeholder needs. Stakeholder demands are relevant issues to individuals or groups that affect or are affected by the operations of the organisation (Clarkson, 1995).
In the meantime, environmental scanning and issues management are considered fundamental processes of public relationships, which reflect how organisations respond to social issues in their context (Wood and Jones, 1995).

In order to contribute to a fresh flow of ideas regarding the organisation environment and stakeholders, appropriate channels of communication must be considered (Roy and Thérin, 2008). Importantly, there is a need for balanced dialogue, two-way communication, with stakeholders, rather than following a persuasive and manipulative form of communication (Black and Hartel, 2004). In this sense, the role of communication in CSR would not only entail providing facts, but also connecting with and showing consideration to organisation audiences’ opinions (Somerville and Wood, 2008). Accordingly, communication would be able to make real trials to determine stakeholders needs and enable organisations to respond more quickly to their demands.

Further, Morsing et al. (2008) highlight the importance of employees as a key stakeholder group. In line with Nielsen and Thomsen (2009) and (Dawkins, 2005), they recommend an ‘inside-out approach’ as basis for developing CSR communication in order to ensure employee commitment (Uusi-Rauva and Nurkka, 2010).

In this sense, internal communication is used to inform organisational members concerning issues of organisation (e.g., aims, actions, progress and accomplishments). This enables employees to participate actively in discussions about organisational issues (Smidts et al., 2001) and to determine the distinguishable attributes of the company (Dutton et al., 1994) which enhances employee identification. Likewise, internal communication is used to create understanding of CSR activities and to motivate employee identification, which can lead to organisational adoption of CSR by encouraging employees to participate in volunteer programmes and other CSR programmes, as discussed in the following section.

7.6.2.2. Behaviour and CSR

It is argued that behaviour, (involving management, employee and corporate behaviour) influences CSR implementation.

Regarding management behaviour, top managers are usually the first group in an organisation have the formal responsibility for communicating the organisation’s core values (Scott and Lane, 2000), as mentioned previously (Section 7.4.4).
Basu and Palazzo (2008) state that understanding what top managers say, think, say and do vis-à-vis others is likely to reinforce CSR analysis by seeing it as an vital part of the organisation’s identity. Ring and Rands (1989: 342) describe this proves as sense-making in “which individuals develop cognitive maps of their environment” (Ring and Rands, 1989:342). As mentioned previously, (Section 7.6.1), in the process of sense-making, activities such as CSR are viewed as stemming from individual linguistic, conative and cognitive processes.

Basu and Palazzo (2008) linguistic processes involve ways of explaining the reasons managers and organisations’ have for engaging in particular activities, and how they share such explanations with others, while conative processes involve the behavioural posture adopted by these managers and organisations, together with the commitment and regularity they display in carrying out activities that impose on their perceived relationships.

Regarding the linguistic aspect of the sensemaking process, it may be argued that the way in which managers justify their actions to others reflects how they perceive their relationships with stakeholders as well as their perception of their wider responsibilities to society (Basu and Palazzo, 2008). Hence, studying the nature of justifications can offer insights into the reasons for managers’ actions, and allow differentiation among organisations according to their prevalent ways of justifying their actions.

Moreover, the manner in which a manager thinks of a relevant issue could be influenced by the justifications per se. In this respect, Ferrao et al (2005:16) argue that “how we talk about behaviour, influences that behaviour”. Explanation could also be viewed as indicative of the language style that distinguishes an organisation in regards to the way its filtering of views of the external environment, interpretation of conflict, and formulation of responses to requirements.

In addition, the conative CSR dimension, also known as posture, depends on the behavioural tendencies of how managers and organisations. An organisations’

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9 Although distinctions can be drawn between individual (e.g., manager) - level processes and overall organisation processes, Daft and Weick (1984) asserted that they are both strongly interrelated, which permits sensemaking to be seen as a continuous activity depending on both organisational and individual contribution and change.
responsive posture in terms of others’ demand, expectations, or criticisms are seen as a crucial behavioural character (Carroll, 1979; Epstein, 1987; Strand, 1983). Instead of explaining the nature of the response itself, a focus on the way in which the response is made rather than a description of the nature of the response itself, shows the character of the organisation with respect to character interaction with others (Wood, 1991).

Hence, a study of the conative and linguistic dimensions of managerial sense-making may show how representative managers perceive, discuss and act their perceived role with regard to others, and predict the kind of CSR outcome generated by managers and organisations over time.

Regarding employee behaviour, this thesis argues that employees’ behaviour has an impact on the pursuit of CSR by an organisation. The successful achievement of CSR and environmental programmes is argued to be reliant on organisational identification and employee involvement (Collier and Esteban, 2007; Jones, 2010; Van Dick et al., 2007).

Collier and Esteban (2007) demonstrate that it is necessary that, for employees to participate in CSR programs and deliver on CSR requirements, they are both motivated and dedicated to addressing the challenge and achieving the aims of responsible corporate behaviour. Commitment, identified as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target”, sustains motivation (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001:301). Commitment is argued to support behaviour that will lead to positive results (Collier and Esteban, 2007). In addition, personal identification and the correspondence of personal values with the aim are its basis (Meyer et al., 2004).

Jones (2010) notes that an organisation’s activities in the social domain, be they laudable or otherwise, exert a strong influence on organisational identification since these activities can enhance or damage organisation character (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). Further, the majority of corporations engage in CSR activities in order to improve their reputations with different audiences (Waddock et al., 2002). Employees are stakeholders whose impressions of their organisation’s reputation play an important part in identification theory (Smidts et al., 2001). Therefore, organisational identification theory is particularly helpful for explaining the responses of employees to CSR (Jones, 2010).
Similarly, Van Dick et al. (2007) contend that strong organisational identification translates into co-operative and citizenship-type behaviours. Organisational Identification indicates employees’ perception of unity with their organisation (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Individuals’ identities are partially derived from the corporations in which they work (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991), and they therefore prefer to identify with companies that increase their sense of self-esteem (Ashforth et al., 2008). Employees who have a strong sense of identification with their organisations are likely to feel that its achievements and failures as personal to themselves (Dutton et al., 1994). This leads employees to act in accordance with the group’s (organisation’s) norms and values (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Van Knippenberg, 2001), and to act in such as way as to assist the organisation realise its objectives (Van Dick et al., 2007). Among the core goals and norms in organisations nowadays are CSR (Jin and Drozdenko, 2010; Lee, 2008) and sustainability (e.g., labour practices, energy consumption, and workforce diversity) (Epstein and Roy, 2001).

Thus, organisational identification with an organisation’s values, ideals and CSR goals are argued to be a key determinant of the effective delivery and implementation of corporate social and environmental responsibility initiatives (Collier and Esteban, 2007). Employees’ identification leads to higher employee motivation and commitment to organisational goals (Wheeler et al., 2006) which could be translated into co-operative and citizenship-type behaviours (Morsing, 2006), engaging in volunteering programmes (as a form of CSR) (Muthuri et al., 2009), and attaining CSR objectives (Collier and Esteban, 2007).

Despite the increasingly important role of CSR in corporate strategy (Waddock et al., 2002) and the importance of employees as internal stakeholders (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001), it is both surprising and unfortunate that only a few studies (e.g., Collier and Esteban, 2007; Jones, 2010; Van Dick et al., 2007) have focused on the mechanism which explains how employees may impact and respond to socially responsible business practices, and the underlying mechanisms were not tested (e.g., Brammer et al., 2007).

Finally, regarding corporate behaviour, according to the CI literature, corporate behaviour refers to the behaviour of a corporation towards social issues (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007). Organisational managers consider and respond to social demands in order to be viewed as socially responsible.
Clarkson (1995) identified social issues as sufficiently considerable community concerns that derive consequential legislation or regulation. The connotation of social is society, which reflects an inclusive and ambiguous responsibility. Usually in the term, a particular society determines what a social issue is, and, when it is regarded as crucial, rules and regulations are endorsed.

Opponents of the stakeholder approach of the organisation (e.g., Clarkson, 1995; Maignan et al., 1999; Wood and Jones, 1995) assert that firms are accountable for only their stakeholder, not the entire society. Key stakeholder groups constitute shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, the government, and community members. In this sense, it is easier for managers to fulfil their responsibilities towards such stakeholders, than to manage their responsibilities to the general public (Lee, 2008).

Stakeholder analysis and management (Section 3.3) provide the theoretical underpinning which explains CSR (Lee, 2008). Through stakeholder management, CSR has become clearly defined depending on the specific stakeholder relations that a company is involved in. This lead to expanding the nature and scale of CSR activities as a consequence of identifying the responsibilities of the organisation towards each group of stakeholders.

Thus, the term ‘social issues’ reflects corporate commitment and responsibility towards society and important concerns of stakeholders groups. It is considered an aggregate category of social responsibility that could be transformed into a more rigorous form of CSR through adopting stakeholder management. The stakeholder framework induces the development of various emergent classifications of CSR to reveal the broad scope of stakeholder relations and associated obligations and commitments.

7.6.2.3. Culture and CSR

The influence of organisational culture on CSR has been outlined in several studies (Crittenden et al., 2011; Galbreath, 2010; Kusku and Zarkada-Fraser, 2004; Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010; Maignan and Ferrell, 2000, 2001; Maon et al., 2010; Übius and Alas, 2009).

Crittenden et al. (2011) argue that CSR has been used interchangeably with a wide various terms and management approaches (e.g., corporate sustainability, environmental responsibility, social responsibility, sustainable development, sustainability, corporate citizenship, green marketing, and triple bottom line) to reflect organisation
responsibility and obligation to society. Regardless of the term used, Matten and Moon (2008) explain that the aim has been to express organisation accountability to the wider social welfare. This view is used in this thesis in explaining the relationship between organisational culture and CSR.

From the early literature, Wood (1991) identifies organisational culture as a factor which influences an organisation’s ability to demonstrate social responsibility and deal effectively with stakeholders. Furthermore, Swanson (1999) notes that organisational culture has a crucial influence on the development of the business CSR initiatives. According to Simons and Ingram (1997), culture is associated with social responsibility, as explicit values embedded in the company influence decisions made at the organisational level in accordance with organisation objectives and principles. Shields et al. (2002) also agree that an approach to sustainability should be value driven.

The importance of culture values in CSR development has been noted in several studies. From a stakeholder-oriented perspective, Moan et al. (2010) claim that the values, attitudes and patterns of behaviour in a company, which basically characterise how the company incorporates stakeholders’ needs, reflect the degree to which the organisation culture can assist in developing corporate CSR policies and programmes. McWilliams et al. (2006) note that when it comes to implementing corporate sustainability initiatives, culture does indeed matter. In agreement, Galbreath (2010) explains that since organisation culture directs behaviour that influences the quality of products and services, morals in the content of advertisements, and fairness in treating consumers and employees (Herndon et al., 2001), culture, based on its type of value, is assumed to positively (or negatively) influence CSR. In a similar manner, Linnenluecke et al. (2009) found cultural orientation and corporate sustainability are inseparable in terms of values moderate behavioural response. Accordingly, organisational culture, encompassing values, is considered an internal organisational factor that shapes and drives socially responsible or irresponsible actions towards stakeholders (Galbreath, 2010).

Different kinds of values create distinct organisational cultures which influence CSR development. For example, Maignan and Ferrell (2000; 2001) study internal and external dimensions of organisation culture and suggest that special kinds of corporate principles and values tend to have an effect on the probability of the organisation becoming engaged in corporate citizenship behaviour. Kusku and Zarkada-Fraser (2004), based on Maignan and Ferrell (2000; 2001), argue that the external dimension
of organisation culture, market orientation, may be a medium for receiving and responding to signals from the external environment. They also argue that humanistic and competitive orientation, the internal dimensions of organisation culture, may be employed to determine features of organisation culture associated with corporate citizenship. Recently, Linnenluecke and Griffiths (2010) explain that the values and ideological bases of an organisation’s culture determine the success of the corporate sustainability implementation and the types of results that can be seen. Specifically, using the competing values framework (CVF), the authors examine the link between organisational culture type (comprising one or more of the four culture types of the CVF) and the adherence to principles of corporate sustainability. They argue that the type of culture reflects a set of values and managerial beliefs, which form the way in which individuals think and act inside the organisation (Zammuto, 2005; Zammuto et al., 2000). It can therefore be assumed that different types of organisational culture affect employees’ understanding and organisations implementation of CSR and sustainability (Linnenluecke et al., 2009).

While special kinds of values are thought to foster or hinder CSR and sustainable development; however, it is not the objective of this thesis to examine the influence of each kind of culture values on CSR.

Thus, it could be concluded that culture has an impact on CSR development. Also, an organisation’s internal values are considered essential elements of culture that drive organisational behaviour, and are imperative in social interaction and the creation of humane work environment.

7.6.2.4. Mission Statement and CSR

The mission statement has evolved into a key aspect in managing the organisation’s relationships with stakeholders since it disseminates the corporate identity to audiences, externally and internally (Bartkus and Glassman, 2008; Leuthesser and Kohli, 1997).

Externally, corporate missions are statements of purpose (Bailey, 1996; Ireland and Hitt, 1992) which have developed into public disclosures of organisations’ promises to external constituencies regarding their commitments to stakeholders. This explains why mission statements often include primary stakeholders who might impact the organisation’s long-term survival (Bart and Hupfer, 2004; Leuthesser and Kohli, 1997) and emphasise the organisation’s social responsibility (Bartkus et al., 2006).
Despite many missions being oriented towards external actors, they are a type of autocommunication (Christensen, 1997). Morsing (2006) suggest that even when corporate communications are aimed at external stakeholders, a significant proportion of the communication is received internally. In other words, the mission statement is a type of internal discourse that corporations use to recognise and reaffirm their perceived identity, principles and suppositions (Christensen, 1997). While the mission statement is made public and enlightens external audiences about organisation behaviour and purpose, the main objective of organisation messages is “an efficient disciplining of the corporate body” (Morsing, 2006:177). This implies that the commitments made in the mission statement add to the social pressures on organisation managers and staff to take decisions that are consistent with the company’s mission, although the mission may only seek to obtain the endorsement of external audiences. In this light, that the content of the mission statement may be seen as a reliable indication of the firm’s stakeholder management.

Based on this premise, Atakan and Eker (2007) conclude that mission statements motivate, support and stimulate the main actors engaged in CSR programs (e.g., discretionary undertakings) that are intended to result in a change in the communities where organisations operate. Recently, Linnenluecke et al. (2010) assume that integrating CSR issues in mission statement draws attention to such issues as a valid focus of action throughout the organisation. It is argued that this labelling via mission statements is central to CI, offering guidance, which assists organisation members to make decisions and take actions. Issue legitimation is identified as part of OI and a key feature of the organisational environment that helps members of the organisation to understand and interpret CSR (Sharma, 2000).

Thus, a mission statement is a formal way to address important stakeholder issues and emphasise social issues (Fairfax, 2006). Such statements affect internal CI management because they provide a way to legitimise CSR as part of CI. Furthermore, they serve as internal policy and/or reference points that can direct managers and employees’ decisions and actions towards CSR programmes (Morsing, 2006). In terms of external CI management, mission statements offer an accurate description of firms’ stakeholder management practices, conveying the way the organisations want to be perceived (Bartkus and Glassman, 2008).
7.6.2.5. Organisation Founder and CSR

Hillestad et al. (2010) assert that organisation founders play important roles in crafting organisational culture, identity, behaviour, and commitment to CSR. In their proposed model, Hillestad et al. assume that the founder, through leadership, emphasises and promotes values related to CSR through attention to and concern about this area. In addition, a founder’s leadership can enhance awareness and internalization of organisation values, which in turn can foster an innovative approach towards environmental issues and CSR. Subsequently, this approach can help the organisation operate consistent with its moral principles and ambitions and create trust in its strategic initiatives and disseminated visions and beliefs, thus influencing corporate reputation, particularly with regard to CSR.

In this respect, social identity theory may offer a wider framework for a deeper understanding of the relations between charismatic leadership, identification processes, and followers engagement in CSR. In particular, social identity theory implies that membership of a group can offer a strong basis for identification for individuals which can affect behaviour and attitudes (Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003). Charismatic leaders may have the ability to shape a collective identity from appealing to values that extend beyond individual or even organisational interests. Consistent with CSR, such values may contain an appeal to the higher needs of stakeholders and the well-being of the wider community. Hence, followers would be motivated to engage in CSR (Waldman et al., 2006).

Similarly, in terms of moral values, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) and Turner et al. (2002) suggest that charismatic leaders may attain higher levels of ethical growth. In a similar vein, it is argued by Kanungo (2001), Kanungo et al. (2009), and Mendonca (2001) that charismatic leadership can be based on strong moral principles in a way that transactional leadership cannot. Essentially, this argument holds that such leaders are probably directed by altruistic ideals that “reflect a helping concern for others even at considerable personal sacrifice or inconvenience” (Mendonca, 2001: 268). Hence, their visions should be aligned with the requirements of different audiences. Moreover, charismatic leaders have the strength to face risks and make an effort to overcome barriers in order to pursue meaningful CSR objectives (Mendonca, 2001).

Thus, transformational, value-based founder-leaders propose policies and involve in activities that are likely to conclude in CSR. The visions of such leaders may indeed be
inspired by justice, altruism and the desire to do good and as such, will attract the admiration of followers (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Moreover, such values strengthen processes of identification and increase the inherent valence of goal attainment, particularly those related to CSR (Waldman et al., 2006).

7.6.3. The Effect of Organisational Size

It is likely a number of organisation-level characteristics have an effect on the development of CI and participation in CSR, and it is vital to understand these effects since organisations try to gain strategic value from both CI and CSR. Of these, the matter of organisation size has been identified as crucial and under-examined (Blomback and Wigren, 2009; Bresciani and Eppler, 2010; Juholin, 2004; Lepoutre and Heene, 2006; Lopez-Gamero et al., 2009; Madden et al., 2006; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Udayasankar, 2008).

In respect to CI development and management, the branding literature focuses largely on multinational companies and well established firms which are assumed to invest in branding activities and have established CI and communication functions/departments responsible for managing their identity, image and reputation (Aaker, 1991; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2002; Argenti and Forman, 2002; Balmer and Gray, 1999, 2003; De Chernatony, 2001, 2002; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Kapferer, 2008; Keller, 1999; (Melewar et al., 2005a; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Wheeler, 2003).

Recently, brand management studies show important differences between large and small organisations in terms of nine out of ten dimensions of brand management and identity (Berthon et al., 2008). In addition, Arendt and Brettel (2010) suggest that CSR activates the process of CI-corporate image building and that its association with organisational success varies widely according to the size of the organisation.

Typically, SMEs’ resources are limited in terms of time (Wong and Merrilees, 2005), capital (Abimbola, 2001), and knowledge (Rode and Vallaster, 2005). Thus, many SMEs depend on managerial generalists, while larger companies make greater use of functional specialists. Hence, it could be argued that differences in resources of time, capital, market and differences in financial resources, available managerial expertise, and specialists (Shipley and Howard, 1993) will give rise to differences in the behaviour and use of branding, of large and small companies.
Further, in the CSR field, researchers recognise that the CSR programmes of other firm types are not benchmarked appropriately against those of large multinational firms (Spence and Rutherfoord, 2003). The findings of studies focusing on CSR and sustainability issues cannot be generalised to both large and small firms, as they have a tendency to underrate the differences in the relationships between smaller firms and their stakeholders and those of larger companies (Fassin, 2008; Graafland et al., 2003; Jenkins, 2009).

Larger companies are likely to be more visible, and therefore tend to be more responsive to social needs. In contrast, due to their lower visibility, smaller companies may encounter less pressure, or obtain low recognition from CSR (Blomback and Wigren, 2009; Juholin, 2004; Lepoutre and Heene, 2006; Madden et al., 2006; Udayasankar, 2008). The influence of organisational size on CSR engagement also has a connection with the matter of access to resources (Brammer and Millington, 2006; Udayasankar, 2008). Larger companies tend to have more resource-slack, which was found to have a considerable effect on their commitment to CSR (Johnson and Greening, 1999). However, small companies frequently have limited or insufficient resources, the thing that can result in the unfeasibility of engaging in CSR initiatives. Several studies (e.g., Del Brio and Junquera, 2003; Lopez-Gamero et al., 2009; Noci and Verganti, 1999) point out that SMEs frequently suffer from inadequate financial resources and consequently are unable to devote funds to CSR.

Another aspect connected to company size is that larger organisations may have more highly developed administrative processes (Donaldson, 2001), and have different perceptions of the external environment due to their business exposure (Aragon-Correa et al., 2008). Hence, their internal systems for managing issues is also likely to be more highly evolved, resulting in their being more responsive to social issues (Brammer and Millington, 2006; Udayasankar, 2008). It has been consistently argued by academics that the implementation of CSR and environmental management needs an intricate coordination of resources and skills, both technical and human (Lopez-Gamero et al., 2009), which are areas in which the capacities of SMEs are often limited (Aragon-Correa et al., 2008; Russo and Fouts, 1997).
This state can be summarised to suggest that size affects CSR participation, although little research examines this impact (Udayasankar, 2008) and the stakeholder theory discussion does not offer support for the dichotomisation of CSR according to organisation size. Thus, it is possible to hypothesise that:

**H2: The association between CI and CSR is moderated by organisation size.**

### 7.7. Summary

This chapter, informed by an empirical gap in the CI literature, has developed a theoretically grounded CI framework. The rationale for developing this framework was fourfold. First, to bridge the literature review and the empirical research that follows. Second, to distil the extensive but relevant literature reviewed in Chapter Two. Third, to inform and structure subsequent scale development procedures by postulating a CI construct domain. Finally, to provide a conceptual apparatus that will guide the overall research effort in pursuit of answering the remaining research questions which relate to dimensionality, measurement and construct influence on CSR.

This chapter opened by presenting a CI framework which resulted in the emergence of CI construct dimensionality. The proposed CI framework comprises six dimensions: corporate communication, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder. Next, the chapter developed a theoretical foundation for the CI construct based on a multidisciplinary perspective encompassing five theories: corporate communication, stakeholder theory, organisational culture theory, leadership and organisational identification and social identity theory. With the CI framework presented, the chapter then attempted to develop a hypothesis outlining the influence of CI construct on CSR. Given the fact that there is no direct pertinent literature, the CI-CSR hypothesis is based on the view that corporate identity orientation and sensemaking are argued to drive corporate relationships with stakeholders and CSR that CI dimensions, in isolation, influences CSR in addition to the existing interrelationships among the dimensions. Informed by this reasoning, it is considered possible to assume that CI has a significant influence on CSR. Moreover, the chapter hypothesised that size has a significant effect on CI-CSR relationship.
This chapter is founded on a wide range of literature to postulate and conceptualise a CI framework and hypothesise a CI-CSR relationship. This presents the foundation for the following chapter, which outlines the methodology employed in the quantitative phase of research in order to build a scale of the CI construct and test its influence on CSR.
Table 8.1: The Research Stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>PART 2</th>
<th>PART 3</th>
<th>PART 4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 12: Research Contributions and Limitations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter 2: CI Literature Review</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 6: Qualitative Research Findings</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct</td>
<td>Findings of Semi-Structured Interviews and Discussion of Qualitative Findings</td>
<td>Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 9: Quantitative Research Findings</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 10: Quantitative Research Findings</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</td>
<td>Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SPSS</td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypothesis Testing Using Smart PLS</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter 4: Research Methodology</strong></td>
<td><strong>Chapter 11: Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy</td>
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</table>
8.1. Introduction

Guided by the literature review and the findings of the exploratory phase of the research, the previous chapter introduced the corporate identity (CI) taxonomy and theoretical framework. The CI construct included corporate communications, corporate visual identity (CVI), behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder. Also, hypotheses outlining CI’s influence on corporate social responsibility (CSR), and the moderating effect of organisation size on CI-CSR relationship were developed.

This chapter presents the quantitative research design employed in the second phase to collect data that will help establish the CI construct and its influence on CSR. The chapter consists of five main sections, summarised in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Methodology Chapter Structure

The first section, after the introduction, outlines the quantitative research design employed. Next, the sampling technique used is described, followed by a demonstration of the scale development process. The fourth section explains how the survey was finalised with consideration given to several issues, e.g., structure of survey, format of questions, pretesting, etc. The penultimate section reviews the quantitative methods used for data analysis. Finally, key points are summarised.

8.2. Overview of the Research Design

As presented in Chapter One, the aim of this thesis is to establish CI dimensionality and the construct’s relationship with CSR. To achieve the research objectives a mixed methods approach was followed. Phase one, reported in Chapters Five and Six, was an
exploratory qualitative research investigating the nature of CI and its relationship with CSR. Based on the findings of the exploratory phase and supported by the literature, in phase two, quantitative research methods discussed in this chapter were employed to develop a CI measurement scale and test the influence of CI on CSR. The quantitative research was carried out in three respective stages.

The first stage was guided by exploratory interview findings and scale development procedures (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2003) which concerned specifying the CI construct, and generating a pool of items to scale CI dimensions. Subsequently, the items were reviewed by an expert panel, which reduced the number of items to a more manageable level.

Next, the quantitative research concerned finalising the survey, following Dillman’s (2000) principles, and preparing a cover letter. Accordingly, after the expert panel review in stage one, a number of pre-tests were conducted. In the in the meantime, considerable attention was also given to the structure of survey and format of questions. The final survey was mailed to the sample frame comprising executives working in the UK’s food and beverage manufacturing sector.

Finally, the quantitative research design concerned analysing the data. Initially, Cronbach’s α and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were utilised, according to Churchill (1979). This was augmented by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) techniques (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988), in order to ascertain the factor structure and psychometric properties of the scale, and examine the influence of CI on CSR in structural path analysis.

8.3. Target Population, Sampling Frame and Sample
The target population included all UK based food and beverage companies that could be obtained. These comprise the industrial sector to which this thesis was intended to be generalised. Food and beverage organisations provide a highly relevant market representing more than 15% of manufacturing employment and turnover. This manufacturing sector is identified as a core element of the UK manufacturing economy (IfM, 2010). Importantly, in the current recession, this sector had the lowest volatility and was the strongest in terms of economic recovery. Furthermore, since 1990 the UK food and beverage industry has minimised its CO₂ emissions by at least 11%, demonstrating a great effort to reducing the environmental impact of food manufacture,
which reflects commitment to CSR (IfM, 2010). As Clark (2006) has stated, the food and beverage industry has been predominantly effective in creating brands with a strong identity concerned with ethics and CSR, generally by emphasising provenance and quality of their products. Thus, this sector should gain a strategic focus of private and public action in order to remain a valuable sector with high environmental and social impacts (IfM, 2010).

The sampling frame included the names of branding/marketing/communications managers employed in the food and beverage manufacturing sector. When database search was done, a total of 824 contacts were obtained. The sampling frame was acquired from the ONESOURCE database hosted at the British Library. ONESOURCE was preferred to the FAME database since the former comprises names and contact details of organisations’ managers, which were necessary for penetrating organisations and reaching target respondents. When these contacts were not found, the MD/CEO was selected. This was considered acceptable since CI, in the context of this thesis, is considered a senior management construct. CI management is a strategic function and executives are considered highly informed sources of this kind of information (Norburn and Birley, 1988). As noted in the literature, high-level managers are responsible for developing and maintain CI (Balmer, 1995), and accordingly in a position to provide their views on this subject. Therefore, the branding/marketing/communications managers (or MD/CEO) contact was selected.

The decision was taken to contact the full list of 824 executives. By the cut-off date, 136 questionnaires were received. A total of 10 returned questionnaires were removed since they were incomplete or inappropriately completed. The sample yielded 126 usable questionnaires. The response rate was 15.6%. This was considered satisfactory as top management survey response rates range, on average, from 15 to 20% (Menon et al., 1999; 1996).

8.4. Scale and Questionnaire Development Process
When developing the questionnaire, two main features were considered: the development and testing of the CI scale, and the development and testing of the overall questionnaire. Figure 8.2 summarises the steps followed to develop and test the CI scale and questionnaire.
Throughout the CI scale development and questionnaire testing, content validity was addressed. Judges (academics and practitioners) were asked to assess the items included in the scales to highlight any omissions and redundant/irrelevant items (Litwin, 1995). Developing and validating the CI scale was informed by Churchill’s (1979) paradigm, which is commonly employed in marketing research studies (e.g., De Chernatony et al., 2004; Simoes et al., 2005; Walsh and Beatty, 2007). Further, this process was augmented by the use of CFA since it is suggested and widely approved in the scaling.
literature (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Clark and Watson, 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

8.4.1. Specifying the Domain of CI

In developing a scale, it is important to specify the construct’s domain in which “the researcher must be exacting in delineating what is included in the definition and what is excluded” (Churchill, 1979:67). In this stage, the researcher must thoroughly draw the borders of the constructs under investigation.

In line with several CI scholars (Van Riel and Balmer, 2007; Simoes et al., 2005; Melewar et al., 2006), this thesis regards CI as a managerial, not consumer, construct. The literature review (See Section 2.2) shared the justification for adopting Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s (2006) definition of CI. Based on exploratory findings of first phase of research, CI definition is revised as:

The presentation of an organisation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and it incorporates the organisation’s communication, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder. It is thus intrinsically related to corporate image.

This helps specifying the domain of CI construct and guides its dimensionality (De Vellis, 1991). The theoretical framework chapter outlined the domain of CI was postulated as comprising dimensions of corporate communications (controlled and uncontrolled), CVI (corporate visual identity systems (CVIS), applications of CVIS and consistency of CVI), behaviour (management, employee and corporate), culture (values), mission statement and organisation founder. A clear construct definition is an important preliminary step in scale development and in line with Netemeyer et al.’s (2003:9) approach where “the process of scale development starts with a thorough review of the literature in which a solid theoretical definition of the construct and its domain is delineated and outlined”.

8.4.2. Specifying the Domain of CSR

Similar to the CI construct, the literature review (Section 3.2.1) provided the justification for adopting Carroll (1991) definition of CSR. Later, the exploratory findings supported this decision and confirmed that CSR comprises economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities, which embraces ‘corporate citizenship’, as suggested by Carroll (1991).

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Building on Carroll’s definition and classification, Maignan et al. (1999) claim that good corporate citizens can be expected to assume their social responsibilities by engaging in economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary citizenship. According to each type of responsibility Maignan and Ferrell (1999) developed a framework for corporate responsible social behaviours as an instrumental scale for measuring the degree to which organisations accomplish the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities placed on them with respect to three main groups of stakeholder (employees, customers and general public stakeholders).

Their scale includes items which reflect different responsibilities, such as legal (e.g., ‘avoid discrimination in hiring’), ethical (e.g., ‘implement codes of conduct’), and discretionary (e.g., ‘support local schools’). The scale is supposed to offer a better understanding of ‘good’ corporate behaviour and a measurement instrument that can be used by practitioners who are interested in evaluating their organisation’s commitment to corporate social responsible behaviour (Maignan and Ferrell, 1999). Also, Maignan and Ferrell’s (1999) scale has been verified by Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 2001) by applying it in the United States and France. Further, it has been employed in various research, (e.g., Draft, 2008; Kusku and Zarkada-Fraser 2004; Lindgreen et al., 2009a; Wang and Dou, 2012).

Accordingly, this thesis uses Maignan and Ferrell’s (1999, 2000, 2001) measurement instrument in respect of three main groups of stakeholder, namely, customers, employees, and public, who can directly affect, and be affected by, organisation activities. (See Appendix 6, Table 2 for a full list of CSR items, their source and stage of elimination). The selection of these stakeholder groups is derived by the fact that the literature has researched these three groups the most (Lee, 2008). Additionally, the findings from exploratory interviews revealed that corporate managers considered these to be the key stakeholder groups. Further, the general demands of other stakeholder groups, e.g., suppliers, relies greatly on the kind of activity considered, whilst investors have distinguished needs based on their status of ownership (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001).

**8.4.3. Generate a Pool of Items**

To generate items for each latent variable, questionnaire items from previously published and validated questionnaires were adapted to the context of this thesis.
## Table 8.2: List of Definitions, Measurement Focus and Sources of Scale Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/Sub-dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Measurement Focus &amp; Underpinning Theory</th>
<th>Key Sources/Items Adapted From</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. COMMUNICATIONS</strong></td>
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</table>
| Controlled Communication | Controlled Corporate Communication is defined as: “an instrument of management by means of which all consciously used forms of internal and external communication are harmonized as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships upon which the company is dependent” (van Riel and Fombrun, 1995:26). | Controlled corporate communication is determined by:  
- The degree to which communication is regarded as important by the company; the importance of various aspects of communication (e.g., advertising, sales promotion, public relations, direct marketing, sponsorship, trade shows/exhibitions, products and services of the company internal publications, internal marketing, annual report).  
- The degree to which the organisation’s advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear consistent message to its stakeholders and the extent to which the organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.  
**Underpinning Theory:** Corporate Communication Theory | Gray and Balmer (1998); Gray and Smeltzer (1985, 1987); Simoes et al. (2005); Van Riel (1995) |
| Uncontrolled Communication | Uncontrolled Communication is defined as: “the communication of an organisation that is not created consciously or deliberately” (Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997).  
WOM is defined as “verbal communication (either positive or negative) between groups such as the product provider, independent experts, family and friends and the actual or potential consumer (Helm and Schlei, 1998). | WOM it is determined by: the degree to which firms attempt to manage this form of communication (e.g. the degree to which the organisation actively monitors WOM through websites, facebook, etc).  
**Underpinning Theory:** Corporate Communication Theory | Ennew et al. (2000); Helm and Schlei (1998) |
Continued Table 8.2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/Sub-dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Measurement Focus &amp; Underpinning Theory</th>
<th>Key Sources/Items Adapted From</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY (CVI): CVI is defined as “an assembly of visual cues by which an audience can recognize the company and distinguish it from others” (Bernstein, 1984).</td>
<td>CVIS is determined by: the degree of functionality and effectiveness of specific elements of a CVI (e.g. logo, name, slogan, typeface), and the degree of development and management of CVIS (e.g. knowledge of CVI strategy, CVI tools and support, and CVI socialisation processes). <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Corporate Communications Theory</td>
<td>Baker and Balmer (1997); Melewar and Saunders (1998, 1999, 2000); Simoes et al. (2005)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Visual Identity System (CVIS)</td>
<td>CVIS is defined as: “an assembly of visual cues by which an audience can recognize the company and distinguish it from others (Bernstein, 1984).</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applications of CVIS</td>
<td>Applications of CVIS is determined by: the degree of functionality and effectiveness of specific applications of a CVI (e.g. architecture, vehicles, stationary).</td>
<td>Schmitt et al. (1995); Simoes et al. (2005); Melewar et al. (1998, 1999, 2000); Melewar et al. (2001); Williams and Moffit (1997)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency of CVI</td>
<td>Consistency of CVI is defined as: “the extent to which the various CVI elements were actually employed as intended” (Van den Bosch et al., 2006). Consistency of CVI is determined by: the degree to which a desired CI is translated into a coherent, consistent, and effective visual self-presentation. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Corporate Communications Theory</td>
<td>(Melewar and Saunders, 1998); Van den Bosch et al. (2004; 2005; 2006a, 2006b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. BEHAVIOUR: Behaviour refers to the nature of human interaction and conduct within them (Melewar, 2003).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management Behaviour</td>
<td>Management Behaviour refers to: the attitude – way of acting – of top management, which expresses the organization’s central idea to the internal and external audiences (Hatch and Schultz, 1997).</td>
<td>Management Behaviour is determined by: the degree to which managers (as leaders) act as the spokesperson of the group; publicize the activities of the group; speak as a representative of the group; speak for the group when visitors are present; represent the group at outside meetings. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Behavioural Leadership Theory.</td>
<td>Stogdill (1963); Stogdill et al. (1962)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Behaviour</td>
<td>Employee Behaviour refers to: the attitude-way of acting-of the company’s personnel in their daily work (Hatch and Schultz, 1997).</td>
<td>Employee Behaviour is determined by: the degree to which members define themselves by the same attributes as those they believe define the organisation. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Organisational Identification and Social Identity Theory</td>
<td>Mael and Ashforth (1992; 1995); Mael and Tetrick (1992); Smidts et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Continued Table 8.2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/Sub-dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Measurement Focus &amp; Underpinning Theory</th>
<th>Key Sources/Items Adapted From</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Behaviour</td>
<td>Corporate Behaviour refers to: the sum total of those actions resulting from the corporate attitudes that influence the identity, either planned in line with the company culture or occurring by chance or arbitrarily (Schmidt, 1995).</td>
<td>Corporate Behaviour is determined by: the degree to which a company supports environmental and social issues. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Stakeholder Theory</td>
<td>Brown and Dacin (1997); Balmer and Soenen (1999); Gardberg and Fombrun (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Corporate values is defined as: “the dominant system of beliefs and moral principles that lie within the organization that comprise everyday language, ideologies, rituals and beliefs of personnel (Campbell and Yeung, 1991).</td>
<td>Values is determined by: the degree to which employees within a company experience each of the four Competing Values Framework (CVF) culture types: Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchical. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Organisational Culture Theory</td>
<td>Deshpande et al. (1993); Deshpande and Farley (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission Statement</td>
<td>Mission Statement is defined as: “the reason for which a company exists (de Witt and Meyer, 1998); “the company purpose, ideally setting it apart from all other companies” (Abratt, 1989).</td>
<td>Mission Statement is determined by: the extent to which mission statement is communicated and disseminated in the organisation among employees. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Social Identity Theory</td>
<td>Baker and Sinkula (1999); Simoes et al. (2005); Sinkula et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation Founder</td>
<td>Founder of the company is defined as: “the person who brought the company in to existence” (Melewar, 2003)</td>
<td>Organisation Founder is determined by: the extent to which founder(s) provide meaning and stimulate followers. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Transformational Leadership Theory</td>
<td>Bass (1985, 1990); Bass and Avolio (1989); Bass et al. (2003); Bass and Bass (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)</td>
<td>CSR is defined as: “the social responsibility of business encompass the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time” Carroll (1991)</td>
<td>CSR is determined by: the extent to which businesses assume the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their various stakeholders. <strong>Underpinning Theory:</strong> Stakeholder Management Theory</td>
<td>Ferrell et al. (2000); Maignan et al. (1999); Maignan and Ferrell (2001, 2004)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.2 lists the definition, focus of measurement, and the sources for each variable integrated in the survey (See Appendix 6, Tables 1 and 2 for a complete list of 127 items, their source and the phase of removal).

Also, multiple items were generated to scale each latent variable, for four reasons: 1) multiple items “allow the most unambiguous assignment of measuring to the estimated constructs” (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988:415); 2) a construct is not sufficiently measured using single item (Clark and Watson, 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2003); 3) multi-item scales increase the reliability of scale (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979) since measurement errors cancel each other out; 4) the psychometric properties of single item measures are difficult to assess (Diamantopoulos, 1999).

The preliminary qualitative research phase and literature review were drawn on to generate new items and augment items grounded in the literature, consistent with Churchill’s (1979) paradigm. Indeed, the qualitative stage has added to items’ richness, and enhanced content and face validity. Information about the appropriateness of the instrument, namely validity and reliability, was considered and addressed during both the questionnaire testing and data analysis.

8.4.4. Question and Item Wording

Consideration was given to ensure that items were unambiguous, clear and simplified (Johnson et al., 2004; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) in order to enhance reliability (Peter, 1979), while avoiding double negatives, double barrelled items, and specialist jargon (Ailreck and Settle, 1995; Baker, 2003; DeVellis, 1993; Payne, 1980; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Such wording issues were addressed by asking five PhD students at HUBS (from the Centre for Marketing Innovations and Applications (CMIA) and aware of scaling procedures) to fill in the questionnaire and provide their feedback. The major change concerned the rewording of visual identity scale items: several participants suggested incorporating ‘In our organisation’ before some items to make them more meaningful and tidy. Other grammatical changes and minor rewording were made, and this list of sample items constituted the experience survey as explained below (See Appendix 7).

Importantly, the PhD researchers who filled in the experience survey reported that the survey took between 20-25 minutes to complete.
8.4.5. Experience Survey

The literature review resulted in a comprehensive pool of 127 items in order to ensure all dimensions were represented and the CI construct had been sufficiently sampled (DeVellis 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2003). This initial pool of 127 items formed the experience survey.

The experience survey was used to obtain the views of expert panel members on the extent to which they considered each item ‘represented’ the domain of CI (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Additionally, expert panel members were asked to comment on the conciseness, clarity, etc of scale items in order to achieve face validity, as recommended by Netemeyer et al. (2003) Further, to improve content validity, panel members were asked to suggest items they thought might be relevant. Thus resulted in no additional scale item being suggested, which could imply that the CI domain had been sufficiently sampled.

8.4.6. Expert Panel

As a rule of thumb, Netemeyer et al. (2003) suggest five or more judges for an expert panel. Accordingly, a panel of six experts completed the expert survey. The five panel members were academics at leading Universities (in Australia, Canada, Germany, US and UK) who also consult on organisational and branding issues. The part of the scale related to visual identity and communication was also analysed by a senior practitioner working at a branding consultancy. This resulted in reducing the initial list to 116 items. The 116 CI scale items, together with 29 CSR items, were ready to go through a series of pre-tests.

8.5. Finalizing the Survey

This section involves decisions concerning the structure of survey, format of questions, bias, pretesting the survey, rationale for using a postal survey and response rate enhancing techniques were made (See Appendix 8 for final survey and associated covering letter).

8.5.1. Structure and Other Physical Aspects of Survey

The design, layout and presentation of the survey reflect its importance (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Mayer and Piper, 1982), also “[t]he format, spacing, and positioning of questions can have a significant effect on the results” (Malhotra, 1999:312).
Accordingly, the survey was formatted into a user friendly six page double-sided standard size A4 booklet in order to look shorter and less dense, based on Dillman’s (2000) suggestions.

The questionnaire included two sections. The first concerned CI items while the second contained CSR items. The CI section was further divided into three parts: Marketing & Communications (including items of communications and CVI), Behaviour (including items of management, employee and corporate behaviour), and Organisational Factors (including items of culture, mission and organisation founder). Initially, the survey asked few questions related to visual identity since earlier items were designed to be simple and non-threatening (Baker, 2003; Gendall, 1998). In this case, questions about logos and organisation brand structure are directly related to the subject of CI (Melewar, 2003). The second section of the survey consisted of 29 CSR items along four dimensions: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropy responsibilities. The items were not divided by dimension to reduce the possibility of pattern response (Brace, 2006). The source of items for CSR measures is outlined in Table 8.3 (Also see Appendix 6, Table 2). At the end of the survey, descriptive data was obtained (e.g., position, company size, years of experience, etc). This was to ensure that important data had been collected before respondents might become fatigue (Brace, 2006), and not to ‘break off’ respondents by questions perceived as irrelevant or personal (Baker, 2003; Dillman, 2000).

8.5.2. Format of Survey Questions

The survey used a five point Likert scale, based on extensive scaling literature (Churchill and Peter, 1984; Coulthard, 2004; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Moors, 2008; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2012; Weng, 2004). The five-point scale was employed due to its ease of development and administration. It takes a shorter time to answer than other types of Likert scale (e.g., seven or ten-point scales). Further, it is easy for respondents to understand and provides more space in the survey for respondents, which makes reading the survey more comfortable and allows respondents to concentrate better when answering the questions compared to a seven or ten-point scale (Neuman, 2006:211).

Another issue is related to the use of scale labels, which “enables participants to conceptualise and respond in spatial terms” (Cox, 1980:420). Also, Weng (2004:970) notes that “a scale with each anchor label clearly specified should be preferred to
achieve consistent and stable participant responses”. Hence, scale labels were utilised as suggested in the literature (Krosnick and Fabrigar, 1997). The midpoint was labelled ‘not sure’ which is regarded as non threatening (Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, a five-point Likert scale constructed from 1 = ‘Strongly Disagree’ to 5 = ‘Strongly Agree’ with a midpoint of ‘Not Sure’ was utilised.

8.5.3. Considering Bias as Part of Survey Design

As part of the research design, consideration was given bias in terms of socially desirable, acquiescence and non-response.

8.5.3.1. Socially Desirable

Socially desirable bias involves the “tendency of respondents to give answers that are not accurate but that may be desirable from a social standpoint” (Malhorta, 2010: 227). Consideration was given to social desirability bias since respondents might wish to answer questions about CSR in a way that improves their organisation’s status, resulting in distorted or exaggerated responses (DeVellis, 1993). However, socially desirable bias is not considered as an issue here since the use of self administered questionnaires (Brace, 2006; Nederhof, 1985) and collecting data from executives (Cycyota and Harrison, 2002), both tend to reduce the tendency to respond in socially desirable way.

8.5.3.2. Acquiescence

Acquiescence bias, “yea-saying, is the result of some respondents’ tendency to agree with the direction of a leading question” (Malhotra, 2010: 384). To avoid acquiescence, this thesis used both negatively and positively worded items, as advocated in the literature (Baumgarter and Steenkamp, 2001; Malhotra, 2010; Nunnally, 1967). Further, as the survey was to be completed by executives and managers who had higher education levels, acquiescence bias was not considered an issue (Baker, 2003).

8.5.3.3. Non Response

Non-response bias is “bias in findings caused by respondents refusing to take part in the research or answer a question” (Saunders et al., 2012:276). Non-respondents are considered similar to late respondents (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Accordingly, statistical tests (e.g., independent t-test, t<0.05) were applied to identify whether significant mean difference exists between early and late respondents scores. The reason
is that if there are differences between early and late respondents, there is a high possibility for the model to be biased (Saunders et al., 2012).

8.5.4. Pre-testing the Survey

Several pre-tests were carried out to calibrate the research instrument before the survey could be considered ready for administration (Converse and Presser, 1986; Vasquez et al., 2002). The aim was to reduce the systematic element of total measurement error resulting from respondents misunderstanding a question.

The pre-test pursued in three sequential steps. Initially, the questionnaire was distributed to seven PhD candidates at HUBS, in line with Walsh and Beatty (2007). This resulted in few typographical and presentation changes. Several participants raised concerns regarding Deshpande’s (1993) culture (four dimensions) scale items. They suggested adding four statements (before each dimension’s items) in order to reflect the focus of each dimension. This was believed to make the culture scale clear for respondents and not confusing.

Next, six MBA students from HUBS with senior marketing and CSR experience of food and beverage industry (similar to target population) filled in the questionnaire. This approach is recommended by several scholars such as Clark and Watson (1995). Suggestions for removing some items from both CI and CSR sections (due to repetition and inapplicability) were integrated. This resulted in reducing the initial list of CI and CSR to 93 and 17 items, respectively. In addition, suggestions for some item wording, and a preference for using years of experience (instead of age) were incorporated into the survey. In terms of understanding and clarity of questions, no issues materialised.

Finally, three executives (two Managers and one Sustainability Manager) also commented on the survey in addition to completion times. No further problems were raised. At this point, the questionnaire was finalised and ready for administration.

8.5.6. Final Survey

The final questionnaire was mailed to 824 named CEO/MD/GM/Brand Marketing/Communications/CSR executives in food and beverage organisations, comprising the sample frame identified using the ONESOUCe database hosted by the British Library. The following explains the rationale for choosing postal survey and the techniques used to enhance response rate.
8.5.6.1. Rationale for Postal Survey

Collecting data using mail questionnaire is a well recognised methods in marketing research (Falconer and Hodgett, 1999). It was chosen for several reasons: 1) survey is sufficient for collecting data used in hypotheses testing (Baker, 2000; Klassen and Jacobs, 2001). Furthermore, this approach facilitates access to widely dispersed samples at relatively low cost, and provides enough time for considerate answers or consulting (Hair et al., 2006). Further, mail surveys provide anonymity, a high concern issue for executive, which could overcome sensitivity associated with some questions (e.g., CSR initiatives/activities) (Falconer and Hodgett, 1999). Though, mail surveys have some limitations, which involve the possibilities of getting lost in the postal system, non-response bias and low response rate (Aaker et al., 2004). However, in order to achieve satisfactory response rates, several techniques and guidelines were followed, as explained below.

Although online questionnaires have some benefits relative to postal questionnaire, e.g., low cost and time for data entry, and achieving superior completion rates (Ilieva et al., 2002; Jobber and O’Reilly, 1998; Klassen and Jacobs, 2001; Schaefer and Dillman, 1998), however, this approach was not used for several reasons. First, acquiring a list of emails for high-level brand/communications/marketing managers requires buying them (at some cost). In addition, managers frequently treat anonymous emails as ‘spam’ (Sills and Song, 2002). Further, managers often disregard unsolicited emails owing to its personal nature (Fricker and Rand, 2002; Klassen and Jacobs, 2001; Schaefer and Dillman, 1998) which could potentially result in low response rate. Accordingly, sending a covering letter with the postal survey was thought to be means of differentiating the research.

8.5.6.2. Administering the Survey and Enhancing Response Rate

Respondents might not take part in mail surveys for different reasons, such as time restrictions, length and complexity of questionnaire (Huber and Power, 1985). In addition, organisational staff might not be allowed to release confidential information (e.g., CSR performance) for sensitivity issues (Hair et al., 2010).

To overcome these issues and motivate managers to get involved in the survey, the research stressed research confidentiality, highlighted the connection to HUB, and offered participants an executive summary of research findings, as a tangible-
benefit/non-monetary incentive (Gendall et al., 1995). Financial incentives were not used since they might result in positive (Bednar and Westphal, 2006) and negative (Larson and Poist, 2004) effects on response rate, demonstrating mixed results, particularly in executive-level studies supported by a University (Cycyota and Harrison, 2006; Schneider and Johnson, 1995).

Accordingly, the following steps were followed:

1. Organisations contact details were verified by contacting each organisation telephone. In case of no reply or the appropriate person was unavailable, the call was noted and two more trials were made. This was organised using A Call Back Log. On the third attempt, a brief message was left explaining the reason for the call, with a request to return the call.

2. For each executive (Brand/ Marketing/ Communication/ CSR/ CEO/GM/ MD), a personal request was written to take part in the research.

3. A questionnaire and associated covering letter were sent to the potential participants with full details concerning the aim of the research, deadlines, rewards for their organisations, and the researcher’s contacts. It stressed that responses would remain anonymous and the results would only be analysed at an aggregate level. Also, confidentiality was reiterated in the appropriate sections in the questionnaire.

4. The sent mail included a self-addressed, free-post return envelopes (Jobber and O’Reilly, 1998).

5. Every organisation was followed-up, 15-days later, soliciting a response in case this had not occurred. This was done through the post and through telephone calls. A pre-paid envelope was again included.

8.6. Quantitative Data Analysis

After outlining the research design, sample framework, and the process of developing the scale and administering the survey, this section demonstrates the techniques used in quantitative data analysis.

8.6.1. Reliability Analysis

According to Churchill (1979), the process of developing a scale involves initially evaluating the reliability or internal consistency subscales. Reliability concerns “the
ability of the scale to produce consistent results when the same entities are measured under different conditions” (Field, 2009:793).

Cronbach’s Alpha is considered the “most useful formula for assessing the reliability of measures in marketing research” (Peter, 1979:9). The threshold level of Cronbach’s coefficient alpha varies with the type of research. For instance, Robinson et al. (1991) consider 0.8 score for new, exploratory researches, while DeVellis (1993) regards 0.70-0.80 score as good, 0.80-0.90 score as very good, although more than 0.9 might lead to reducing the length of the scale, which could negatively affect the validity of the scale (Churchill and Peter, 1984). Several scholars, such as Clark and Watson (1995), Hair et al. (2010) and Nunnally (1978) agree that 0.70 is the minimum acceptable score, with little added value from higher scores. However, Hair et al. (2010:127) state that “a 0.60 level can be used in exploratory research”. Accordingly, given the exploratory nature of this this research, this thesis used an alpha value of 0.60 at this stage.

Also, corrected item-to-total correlations (CITC) were evaluated for each dimension of the CI/subscale (corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission statement, organisation founder) in order to purify the scale by eliminating ‘garbage’ items (Churchill, 1979). This thesis used a CITC value of 0.30 (Hair et al., 1998; Nunnally, 1978). The more strict value of 0.50 adopted by some authors (e.g., Netemeyer et al, 1996) was not used here, as it was preferred to retain items at the early stages of scale development, and eliminate them later if they negatively affect the psychometric properties of the scale.

8.6.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was used to determine the underlying dimensions of the construct by “understanding the structure of the set of variables, reducing the scale items to a manageable size” and representing them by fewer numbers of group-items (factors) (Field, 2009:628). According to Hair et al. (2010), EFA is very useful when summated scales need to be constructed for further testing in structural models. It helps to assess the proposed dimensionality and the appropriateness of the selected variables for each construct of interest.

Several issues related to EFA were considered, such as extraction method, the number of variables extracted, and factor rotation, as discussed below.
8.6.2.1. Extraction Method

The mechanism of EFA depends basically on the factor extraction process. There are various procedures for factor extraction, such as principal components, principal factors, maximum likelihood factoring, unweighted and generalised (weighted) least squares factoring, alpha factoring and image factoring (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnic and Fidell, 2007). Hair et al. (2006:118) and Tabachnic and Fidell (2007:633) reported that principal components and principal factors are the most commonly used. Principal components is used when the aim is to summarise most of the original information (variance) in the minimum number of factors for prediction purposes, whereas principal factors is used mainly to determine underlying dimensions or factors that reflect what is common and shared among the variables (Field, 2005:638; Hair et al., 2006:117; Tabachnic and Fidell, 2007:635).

A sharply debated issue among scholars is which method is preferable. Hair et al. (2006:119) support using principal components rather than principal factors because the latter analysis suffers from two basic problems. First, factor indeterminacy in which various different scores could be estimated from a single factor model result, which leads to difficulty in obtaining one single unique solution for this analysis. Second, sometimes the communalities (shared variance) are not estimable or may be invalid, requiring the deletion of the variable from analysis.

Therefore, in this thesis, the principal components method was used throughout in order to identify the minimum set of factors which accounted for the maximum variance in the data and ensure consistency in factors (Hair et al., 2006).

In order to decide on the number of factors required to represent data or when to end the extraction process and assess the final number of factors to be extracted; there were a number of criteria considered in this thesis, as discussed below.

8.6.2.2. The Selection of the Number of Factors

Three criteria were selected for this thesis; the Latent Root Criterion (the Kaiser Criterion), Scree Test Criterion, and Percentage of Variance Criterion. The Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion is the most common used technique. This technique aims to retain any factor that accounts for at least one variable, which contributes a value of one to the total eigenvalue. Accordingly, factors with eigenvalues greater than one are regarded as significant, and should be retained in the analysis, while those having eigenvalues less
than one are insignificant and should be eliminated from the analysis (Hair et al., 2006). The latent Root or Kaiser Criterion lends itself to simplicity and objectivity; however, it has been criticized as a less accurate method for selecting the number of factors (over-factoring or under-factoring) (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Eigenvalues for each factor are available in the result produced by SPSS.

The Scree Test Criterion requires the researcher to examine the graph which is produced by plotting the latent roots or eigenvalues against the number of factors in their order of extraction. The shape of the graph is utilised in evaluating the cut-off point for identifying the number of factors to retain. In particular, the maximum number of factors to extract is the point at which the curve first starts to straighten out (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, it considers the last substantial drop in the magnitude of the eigenvalues. It is claimed that this technique performs relatively well when strong common factors exist in the data. However, it suffers from subjectivity or no clear objective rule of where exactly is the cut-off point before the graph straightens out (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

The Percentage of Variance Criterion is derived by attaining the level of cumulative percentage of the total variance explained by extracted factors. It attempts to certify practical significance that the remaining factors can explain the specified level of total variance. No absolute guideline has been proposed for the required total variance. Nevertheless, at least 95% of total variance should be achieved in natural sciences, and 60% of total variance or less is regarded as satisfactory in social sciences due to less precise information (Hair et al., 2010).

It is not unusual for the researcher to combine several criteria. This thesis utilized these three criteria to identify the appropriate number of factors to extract. The Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion was initially used as a guideline for the first extraction. Then, the results from the Scree Test and Percentage of Variance Criteria were taken into account. Many results were produced as trial and error solutions before an appropriate number of factors were extracted.

8.6.2.3. Rotation of Factors

Factor rotation is the most appropriate tool in explaining the result of factor analysis. It simplifies the factor structure, and provides theoretically more meaningful factor
solutions. In most cases of factor rotation, the ambiguities from the initial unrotated factor solutions are reduced, and the factor pattern is improved (Hair et al., 2010).

The rationale of factor rotation can be explained as follows. The factors have initially been extracted in unrotated factor solution in order of their variance extracted. The first factor accounts for the largest variance while the second factor explains the highest remaining variance after the first factor has been extracted. The later factors explain consecutively smaller portion of variance. Hence, most variables tend to load significantly on the first factor, and few variables load on the latter factors. To simplify the factor solution, factor rotation redistributes the variance from earlier factors to late factors to obtain a simpler and more meaningful structure (Hair et al., 2010).

There are two kinds of factor rotation; orthogonal and oblique rotation. Orthogonal rotation is the simplest case of rotation. The term ‘orthogonal’ means unrelated; hence, correlations among the factors are not permitted. Orthogonal rotation maintains the independence among the factors while rotating the factors. Although orthogonal rotation may be preferable due to its simplicity and conceptual clarity, oblique rotation is claimed to be superior. When the factors are related, oblique rotation provides more precise and realistic demonstration of the relationship between factors than orthogonal rotation does. When the factors are actually unrelated, oblique rotation still produces result as accurate as those from orthogonal rotation by providing estimations of the correlations between factors close to zero. Also, more information is provided in oblique rotation, such as values of the correlations between factors (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Choosing one of these methods is dependent on theoretical reasoning underpinning the research questions and hypotheses. Oblique rotation, DIRECT OBLIMIN in particular, was selected and used to rotate the factor solutions given the interrelationship existing between dimensions of CI, as explained in Section 7.5.

8.6.2.4. The Significance of Factor Loadings

After a rotated factor solution is derived, it is important to consider and assess the significance of factor loadings in the Pattern Matrix in order to interpret the result. Factor loading actually is the correlation between a measured variable and its factor. It is used as a measurement to decide which variables should be incorporated into which factors (Field, 2005). To decide which levels of factor loadings are significant, practical
and statistical significance should be assessed. Concerning practical significance, the higher the factor loadings (in absolute size), the more important the factor loadings are in interpreting the result. Factor loadings of ±0.30 to ±0.40 are regarded as minimum acceptable scores, loadings ±0.50 or greater are commonly regarded as practically significant, and loadings greater than ±0.70 shows a well-defined structure (Hair et al., 2010).

When assessing statistical significance, the importance of factor loadings is based on the sample size. Hair et al. (2010) present guidelines for determining significant factor loadings depending on the size of the sample in Table 8.3.

Thus, due to the sample size of 126 responses, it was appropriate to regard the factor loadings ±0.50 or greater as significant in interpreting the results for this research.

To sum up, in order to retain individual items measuring specific variable/dimension, the items had to show: 1) communality: ±0.50 or greater; 2) factor loading: ±0.50 or greater on a single factor; and, 3) cross-loading (for EFA): less than ±0.45 on any other factor.

Table 8.3: Guidelines for Identifying Significant Factor Loadings based on Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Sample Size Needed for Significances (^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>0.50</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hair et al. (2006). "Significance is based on a 0.05 significance level (\(\alpha\)), a power level of 80 percent, and standard errors assumed to be twice those of conventional correlation coefficients.

Despite the importance of EFA, however, EFA can just suggest, not confirm, dimensions (Churchill, 1979) while unidimensionality of scale can only be assessed by applying CFA (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988).
8.6.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Churchill’s (1979) paradigm of scale development, which involves Cronbach’s alpha and EFA, was extended by Gerbing and Anderson (1988) to include CFA. CFA requires specifying the factor structure of the data set based on theory before statistical analysis (Floyd and Widaman, 1995).

8.6.3.1. Why Use SEM?

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is “a statistical technique that explains the relationships among multiple variables. In doing so, it examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations. These equations depict all the relationships among constructs (the dependent and independent variables) involved in the analysis. Constructs are unobservable or latent factors represented by multiple variables” (Hair et al., 2010: 634).

This statistical technique encourages confirmatory modelling, “allows for the simultaneous estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships, has the ability to represent unobservable concepts, and accounts for the measurement error in the estimation process” (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2004:532). Another principal distinguishing feature in SEM is that a construct plays a double role, in other words, “a construct that acts as an independent variable in one relationship can be the dependent variable in another relationship” (Hair et al., 2010:641).

This thesis employed CFA for several reasons that could not be performed using regression. For instance: 1) to verify the postulated dimensions of constructs as revealed from EFA (Floyd and Widaman, 1995); 2) to assess the unidimensionality of subscales, as a requirement for construct validity (Clark and Watson, 1995); 3) to trim redundant items (Floyd and Widaman, 1995); 4) to establish the psychometric properties (e.g., composite reliability, discriminant/convergent validity) of the scale (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Generally, a SEM includes two main components (Hair et al., 2010:692): the structural model (“which is a set of one of more dependence relationships linking the hypothesised mode’s constructs”) and the measurement model (“which specifies the indicators for each construct and enables an assessment of construct validity”). The measurement model is concerned with “the assessment of constructs validity,” while the structural model is concerned with “presenting the interrelationships of variables
between constructs”. Following a two-step SEM approach, “the measurement model fit and construct validity were first assessed using CFA, and then the structural model was tested, including an assessment of the significance of relationships”.

8.6.3.2. Why Partial Least Squares (PLS)?

PLS is a variance-based partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM) analytical approach (Wang and Chang, 2005). It is an iterative combination of principal components analysis relating measures (also known as items) to constructs, and path analysis permitting the construction of a system of constructs (Barclay et al., 1995). The primary objective of PLS is the explanation of variance in a regression sense, and therefore $R^2$ values and the significance of relationships between constructs indicate how well a particular model is performing.

Although the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM), such as LISREL and AMOS, is widely used in marketing studies, it theoretically needs rigorous requirements, such as data normality, minimum number of cases and reflective indicators, which often cannot be met by researchers. Additionally, it is regarded as poorly suited to deal with small data sets as it can provide non-unique if not inaccurate results in some instances (Chin and Newsted, 1999; Gefen et al., 2000). Therefore, PLS represents an alternative causal modelling approach which partly avoids some of the limitations inherent in SEM. In this thesis, PLS-SEM was chosen for data analysis.

PLS provides some unique advantages that make it preferred over CB-SEM. Firstly, “PLS path modelling can be used when distributions are highly skewed, because there are no distributional requirements (Fornell and Bookstein 1982). Secondly, PLS path modelling can be used to estimate relationships between latent variables with several indicators when sample size is small (Chin and Newsted 1999). As the PLS path modelling algorithm consists of OLS regressions for separate subparts of the focal path model, the complexity of the overall model hardly influences sample size requirements. Thirdly, PLS is preferred in complex models when the number of latent and manifest variables is high in relation to the number of observations, and the number of indicators per latent variable is low” (Henseler, 2010:108). Such advantages are of particular relevance to social science data which often violates the hard assumptions of CB-SEM.

Chin (2010) recommends a sample size of at least 30 cases or ten times the construct with the largest number of structural paths going into it. The model, explained in
Chapter Seven and tested in Chapters Nine and Ten, outlines that the highest number of structural paths going into the CI construct is six; thus, at least 60 cases (sample size) are needed to test the model using PLS; \((6 \times 10 = 60 < 126)\). Thus, based upon this result, the sample size of 126 completed survey instruments is acceptable for regression purposes.

The aim of “PLS is to maximize variance explained” (Chin, 1995:6) from observed or unobserved variables, while CB-SEM accounts for observed covariance and offers the most appropriate match to a theoretical covariance matrix (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Fornell and Cha, 1994). Thus, CB-SEM are more suitable for theory testing whereas PLS is more appropriate for explaining complex relations (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Fornell et al., 1990; Tobias, 1995). PLS simultaneously considers the coefficients of all paths, enabling estimation of direct and indirect relations, and calculates the individual item weightings in the model rather than in separation (Hulland, 1999). Thus, PLS is very helpful for exploratory studies with little prior established theories, multiple and complex variable interrelations, and violating normality.

PLS has been employed in marketing (e.g., Arnett et al., 2003; Ashill et al., 2005, 2006; Grégoire and Fisher, 2006), branding (e.g., Duarte et al., 2010; Hankinson, 2012; Sok and O'Cass, 2011; Wilson, 2010), and CSR studies (e.g., Heyder and Theuvsen, 2012; Lindgreen et al., 2009c; Loureiro et al., 2012; Zang, 2009), in addition to other social science disciplines such as organisational behaviour, information systems, and strategic management.

From this discussion, it was appropriate to employ PLS in this thesis for several reason: (a) the purpose of this thesis is exploring the relationship between CI and CSR with an emphasis on developing theory as opposed to testing theory; (b) the small sample size which fits CB-SEM techniques, and (c) the violation of normality assumption; tests of univariate normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) showed that none of the manifest variables in this thesis were normally distributed (all \(p < 0.0001\)) reported in the following chapter. In this situation, the computer software used to analyse data was SmartPLS version 3.0 (Ringle et al., 2005) (http://www.smartpls.de).

8.6.3.3. Formative and Reflective Indicators

In testing measurement and structural models, it is important to consider construct causality (Mackenzie et al., 2005), since model misspecification can lead to an
overestimation of structural parameters (Jarvis et al., 2003), which can negatively influence the interpretation of the relations in the structural model (Diamantopolous et al., 2008).

Informed by Jarvis et al.’s (2003) guidelines for developing models, the CI measurement and full structural model that included CSR were regarded as reflective models and evaluated using reflective indicators. This was considered appropriate for various reasons. First, CI was manifested through its postulated dimensions, and each dimension was observable through its particular indicators (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000; Jarvis et al., 2003). Thus, changes in the construct lead to changes in the indicator and not vice versa (Bollen, 1989). Additionally, the indicators for each construct shared a common theme in terms of content (Jarvis et al., 2003). Moreover, covariation in the model at the first and second order levels was expected from theory. The Theoretical Framework chapter (See Section 7.5) outlined the positive correlation among CI dimensions (second order level). Furthermore, there were theoretical basis for anticipating items at the first order level to have a positive correlation since they were sampled with the aim of measuring the same construct. The statistical analysis in Chapters Nine and Ten provided empirical support for these theoretical foundations through estimates of correlation among dimensions (See Section 9.3.1.2 and 10.2.3) and satisfactory Cronbach α results (Section 9.3.1.1). Specifying CI as a formative model could be appropriate only if there was no correlation between dimensions/indicators (Diamantopolous et al., 2008; Jarvis et al., 2003). Fourth, this approach is in line with previous empirical studies (e.g., Coleman et al., 2011; Simoes et al., 2005). Although previous studies did not explicitly nominate CI as a reflective construct, however, by depicting the analysis, it was obvious that researchers used loadings (rather than weights) and average variance extracted (AVE) to assess the construct. Together, these reasons provide justification for modelling CI as a reflective construct, rather than formative construct.

Similarly, CSR was conceptualised as a reflective model for three reasons. Firstly, a high (low) CSR score was made manifest or reflected by a strong (weak) engagement in CSR activities (which consisted of seventeen items) (Poolthong and Mandhachitara, 2009). Additionally, this is in line with prior SEM applications (e.g., Einwiller et al., 2010; Mandhachitara and Poolthong, 2009; Wagner et al., 2009). Finally, CSR construct consists of the four correlated behavioural components which are economic,
legal, ethical, and discretionary citizenship, as noted by Maignan et al. (1999) (See Section 10.3.2 which supports this view).

8.6.3.4. Assessing the Reflective Measurement Model

The measurement model within a PLS model is tested by examining its reliability and validity. Reliability is a necessary pre-condition for validity (Nunnally, 1978). Various criteria have been presented for testing the psychometric properties of measurements including internal consistency and convergent and discriminate validity (construct validity) (Henseler et al., 2009). Internal consistency refers to “the homogeneity of the items in the measure or the extent to which item responses correlate with the total test score while construct validity is concerned with the relationship of the measure to the underlying attributes it is attempting to assess” (Hinkin, 1995:968). The important statistics of the measurement model are item reliability, internal consistency, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), square-root of AVE and cross loadings (Barclay et al., 1995). AVE test is known as convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and the last two tests are known as discriminant validity (Barclay et al., 1995).

Convergent validity measures “the similarity or convergence between the individual items measuring the same construct while discriminant validity measures the extent to which the individual items of a construct are unique and do not measure any other constructs” (Henseler et al., 2009).

8.6.3.4.1. Item Reliability

Within the PLS context, the measurement model is firstly assessed by investigating individual item reliability. Individual item reliabilities are assessed by inspecting the factor loadings, or “simple correlations of the indicators (items) on their respective latent variable. A rule of thumb is to accept items with loadings of 0.70 or more, which implies more shared variance between the construct and its measures than error variance” (Barroso et al., 2010:433). If all of the loadings are above 0.70, it means that more than one-half of the variance is accounted for by the loading on a single factor.

8.6.3.4.2. Internal Consistency / Composite Reliability

A reliability analysis was conducted for all the measured items in the questionnaire: the CI and CSR constructs. Traditionally, the internal consistency of the items comprising each dimension was assessed by Cronbach’s alpha, however, the composite reliability
ρc (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) is preferred since Cronbach’s alpha may under or overestimate scale reliability. Both composite reliability and Cronbach’s alpha perform similar tasks and are interpreted similarly (Barroso et al., 2010). Composite reliability measures the correlation among the multiple indicators for a particular variable. An internal consistency reliability score of 0.70 or greater is regarded as sufficient for an adequate model (Nunnally, 1978).

8.6.3.4.3. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Square-Root of AVE

Reliability alone simply does not assure validity (Nunnally, 1978); therefore the demonstration of construct validity (convergent and discriminant validity) of a measure is an important objective of the scale development. Convergent and discriminant validity are assessed by checking that the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct is larger than its correlation with the other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE is the average variance shared between a construct and its items. “It attempts to measure the amount of variance that a variable captures from its indicators relative to the amount due to measurement error. Ideally, AVE should be greater than 0.50, meaning that 50% or more variance of the indicators should be accounted for” (Chin, 2010:670). Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Barclay et al. (1995) have also argued, “for a construct to possess convergent validity, the majority of the variance in its items (more than 50%) should be accounted for by the underlying construct rather than by measurement error” (Mackenzie et al., 2005:728).

The AVE measures for any two constructs that are related in the model exceed their squared correlations indicating discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). As demonstrated by Hulland (1999:200), “this can be shown in a correlation matrix, which includes the correlations between different constructs in the lower left off-diagonal elements of the matrix (and the square roots of the average variance extracted values calculated for each of the constructs along the diagonal). For adequate discriminant validity, the diagonal elements should be significantly greater than the off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns”. In other words, the diagonal values that indicate the square-root of AVE should be larger than the off-diagonal values in the corresponding correlation matrix columns and rows (Hulland, 1999; Henseler and Fassott, 2010).
Mackenzie et al. (2005:728) note, “if the construct-level validity and reliability are good, it is not a worry if a few of the individual-item reliabilities or validities do not meet the desired standards. Only items with unacceptably low validity or reliability should be eliminated” (Spector, 1992; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Hinkin, 1995). AVE reflects the average communality for each latent factor. In an adequate model, AVE should be higher than 0.50 (Chin, 1998a) which implies that factors should explain at least half the variance of their respective indicators.

8.6.3.4.4. Cross-Loadings

Besides the Fornell and Larcker criterion, discriminant validity can also be assessed using cross-loadings. Cross loading measures the correlation of the individual items with all constructs within the model including the construct they are required to reflect. The criterion is that an item should load more highly to the construct it is required to reflect than to the other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Chin 1998b). In other words, the loading of each indicator is expected to be greater than all of its cross-loadings. An item that loads more highly to the other constructs can be considered to be excluded from the PLS model. The cross-loadings enable the estimation of discriminant validity on the indicator level whilst the Fornell-Larcker criterion evaluates it on the construct level.

Thus, a valid and reliable reflective measurement of latent variables should fulfil all the criteria discussed before.

8.6.3.5. Assessment of Structural Model

At the structural level, PLS analysis mainly concerns the explained variance and ensuring significant estimates of all paths in the structural model. Particularly, “predictive power of the structural model is assessed by the $R^2$ values of the endogenous constructs” (Chin, 2010: 674).

8.6.3.5.1. R-Square

As in multiple regression analysis, PLS procedures also estimate $R^2$ to determine the “variance in the construct that is explained by the model” (Chin, 2010:674). Therefore, $R^2$ values will determine the explanatory power of the model. The interpretation of the value of $R^2$ in PLS is the same as the $R^2$ produced by regression analysis (Henseler et al., 2009). This is the overall measure of effect size, similar to regression.
8.6.3.5.2. Resampling and Bootstrapping Technique

Good model fit is developed with acceptably high $R^2$, significant path coefficients and construct reliability (internal consistency) being above 0.70 for each construct (Barclay et al., 1995). As the distribution of PLS is unknown, conventional significance testing is impossible. Resampling procedures are therefore used to assess the significance of PLS parameter estimates. This could be done using resampling methods, e.g., bootstrapping, jack-knifing or blind-folding. This thesis used the 500 bootstrapping option which is considered more efficient than the jack-knifing method. Based on a trade-off between computational time and efficiency Chin (1998a:320) states:

“Jack-knife estimation tends to take less time for standard error estimation under the joint assumptions that the bootstrap procedure utilizes a confidence estimation procedure than those of the Jack-knife. Conversely, the Jack-knife is viewed as less efficient than the bootstrap because it can be considered as an approximation to the bootstrap”.

Also, to evaluate the statistical significance of the loadings and the structural path coefficients, using bootstrapping (a non-parametric approach) is common since the data are not supposed to be multivariate normal in PLS (Barclay et al., 1995). Accordingly, the bootstrapping method was followed. With regard to blindfolding method, it was inapplicable to be used with high-order constructs, since CI and CSR were conceptualised as third-order and second-order constructs, respectively (See Sections 10.2.1 and 10.3.1).

In SmartPLS, the bootstrap procedure samples with replacement from the original sample set, continuously, until it reaches the number of cases specified (e.g., 500). T-values of both paths and loadings are then calculated using the bootstrap method. If the model fits the data adequately, the beta ($\beta$) coefficient and t-values will be evaluated to test the significance of the hypotheses. Using the two-tailed test, a t-value greater than 2.58 is significant at the level of 0.01; a t-value greater than 1.96 is significant at the level of 0.05; and a t-value greater than 1.64 is significant at the level of 0.10.

8.7. Summary

This chapter has demonstrated in detail the methodology employed in collecting data in order to establish the CI domain and investigate the relationship between CI and CSR. The chapter first overviewed of the quantitative research design used, then outlined the population and sampling frame considered here. Next, the process of developing CI
scale, informed mainly by Churchill (1979), was outlined in addition to the procedures followed in developing and finalising the survey. This entailed considering several issues, e.g., structure of the survey, format of questions, bias, conducting several pre-tests, in addition to the way of administering the survey explaining the rationale for choosing a postal approach. Then, the quantitative techniques applied in data analysis were explained including Cronbach’s α and EFA to cleanse the measurements while CFA was applied to confirm the factor structure, evaluate unidimensionality and verify the reliability and validity of the scale. The outcomes of these procedures are reported in Chapters Nine and Ten.
CHAPTER NINE: QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS
DESCRIPTIVE AND EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Table 9.1: The Research Stages

| PART 1 | Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis  
Research Background, Research Problem, Statement and Questions, Research Objectives, Research Contribution, Thesis Structure |
| --- | --- |
| PART 2 | Chapter 2: CI Literature Review  
Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct |
| PART 3 | Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review  
Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI & CSR |
| PART 4 | Chapter 4: Research Methodology  
Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy |
| PART 2 | Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach  
| PART 3 | Chapter 6: Qualitative Research Findings  
Findings of Semi-Structured Interviews and Discussion of Qualitative Findings |
| PART 3 | Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework  
Postulating the Domain of CI, Theorizing CI, Hypothesizing the Relationship between CI & CSR |
| PART 4 | Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach  
Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods |
| PART 4 | Chapter 9: Quantitative Research Findings  
Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SPSS |
| PART 4 | Chapter 10: Quantitative Research Findings  
Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypothesis Testing Using Smart PLS |
| PART 4 | Chapter 11: Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings |
| PART 4 | Chapter 12: Research Contributions and Limitations  
Theoretical, Managerial and Methodological Implications, Limitations and Future Research |
9.1. Introduction

Building on the literature review and exploratory findings from semi-structured interviews, and the Theoretical Framework chapter postulated a corporate identity (CI) construct comprising of six dimensions: corporate communications, corporate visual identity (CVI), behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder. Additionally, a hypothesis outlining the positive influence of CI on corporate social responsibility (CSR) was presented. The Quantitative Research Design chapter then described the data collection procedures followed to test the CI framework and relationship between CI and CSR. This chapter analyses the quantitative data collected using surveys, allowing this thesis to achieve the research objectives, in particular, to identify the key dimensions of CI, establish clear theoretical grounds for the construct and understand the influence this construct had on CSR.

The thesis adopted a two-stage approach for model building, as suggested in the SEM and related literature (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2006). The first stage was to establish constructs using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) utilising the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS19). The results from EFA were sequentially used in the second stage to evaluate the reliability and validity of these scales, variables and resultant constructs using PLS analysis (SmartPLS version2). Once confidence had been gained in relation to the validity and reliability of the items and constructs used in the research, the structural dimension of the PLS approach can be attempted.

This chapter focuses on the first stage by firstly presenting preliminary analysis including exploring the response rate of the research sample, describing the characteristics of the research sample and assessment of missing values, outliers and data normality. Next, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is reported for the independent variables (dimensions of CI construct): corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder as well as the dependent variable, CSR, to reduce the data and explore the structure of the research factors.

9.2. Exploring the Data

Frequency distributions and descriptive statistics were used in exploring the data and understanding the characteristic of the research sample. This step also helped in providing indicators about normality, missing values, outliers, and others.
9.2.1. Description Statistics

The focus of this section is to provide general information on respondents and participant companies. It represents sample characteristics in terms of respondents (job title/function and number of years worked in the organisation), and companies (geographical territory in UK, main activity within the food and beverage industry, organisational age and size, type of business sector and finally scope of operations). Frequency analysis was used to provide a brief account of these sample characteristics. (See Appendix 9A for details).

Regarding the Profile of respondents, it was found that more than half of the respondents (50.8%) were marketing managers/or directors of a business unit, representing the largest category, followed by general managers/or directors (18.3%). Also, almost half (46.8%) of respondents had been in their current post in the food and beverage industry for more than five years. This reflects respondents' level of experience in the industry, suggesting they would have considerable knowledge of the industry and its activities.

From an organisational perspective, most companies operated in the England (78.6%). The sample was dominated by food companies since the ratio of food to beverage companies was 78.6% to 21.4%. Food companies were predominantly involved in manufacture of other food products (bread, biscuits, cakes, cocoa, sugar, etc) (38.1%), while beverage companies were predominantly involved in manufacturing of alcoholic beverages (15.1%); representing the two largest categories. The majority of companies were more than 20 years old (78.6%); whilst approximately 57% of the organisations were small and medium enterprises (SMEs), e.g., 249 or less employees (European Commission, 2005). Also, approximately half of the companies were operating both nationally and internationally (55.6%); while 46% operate in both business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-consumer (B2C).

Hence, overall, the sample tended to consist largely of marketing executives in the food industry operating in England for more than 20 years, although organisations were approximately equally distributed among large companies and SMEs operating both nationally and internationally.
9.2.1.1. Missing Data

Most researchers are concerned with missing data which can affect empirical research (Malhotra et al., 2006). Ten returned surveys had missing data. Respondents who returned surveys with missing data were contacted by telephone and offered the opportunity to complete the survey over the telephone or via email. In all cases the participant either had not understood the original question requirement and needed clarification, or had simply overlooked that portion of the survey. In all situations the requirements were appropriately clarified and the surveys completed over the phone (or email). This follow-up process resulted in no missing data for the 126 surveys.

9.2.1.2. Outliers

Outliers are “observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as definitely different from the other observations” (Hair et al., 2010:72). Outliers can have a substantial impact on the analysis. They can be beneficial or problematic depending on the context of the analysis. The outliers may be beneficial when they indicate the characteristics of the population while they may be problematic when they do not represent the population, and that distorts the analysis. It is recommended to check for outliers and mitigate their effect prior to the main analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

Based on Hair et al. (2010), there are four classes of outliers based on their source of uniqueness:

1. Outliers from a procedural error which is derived from a data entry error or a mistake in coding; these should be removed or recoded as missing values.

2. Outliers from an extraordinary event which explains the uniqueness of the observation. The choice to retain or delete the outliers depends on whether the extraordinary event matches with the research objectives.

3. Outliers from extraordinary observations which are unexplainable by the researcher. The alternatives to handle the outliers (retention or deletion) are dependent upon the researcher’s judgement.

4. Outliers from the ordinary values which vary within the normal range of values on all variables. They are not exceptionally high or low values on the variable, but their combinations of values are unique across variables. This type of outliers should be retained in the analysis unless there is certain evidence degrading their valid membership of the population (Hair et al., 2010).
In this research, outliers were examined for all variables through using the standard scores (z-scores), which have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. Cases with standard scores of 2.5 or greater are regarded as the outliers in a small sample size (80 or fewer cases). However, the rule of standard scores can be increased up to 4 for a larger sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Due to the sample size of 126 observations, this research used the standard value of less than 3.29 at p<0.001 as recommended by Tinsely and Brown (2000).

Apart from the use of standard scores, the Boxplot and 5% Trimmed Mean were also used to identify outliers. The Boxplot results showed that there were few (less than 3%) outliers among the variables and they were randomly distributed. The 5% Trimmed Mean technique within SPSS aimed to remove the top and bottom 5% of research cases and recalculate a new mean value. If the original mean value was very similar to the new trimmed mean value, these cases could be retained in the data file.

The results from all analyses indicated similarity. It was found that there were few variables containing outliers and extreme values. Particularly, no outliers appeared for mission statement and organisation founder. There were three items from 18 items of communications activities, which contained outliers. Besides, four items from 23 items of CVI; eight items from 17 items of Behaviour; and two items from 17 items of Culture, revealed outliers. Last, six items from 17 items of CSR contained outliers.

After the outliers had been identified they were classified in the fourth class of the outliers, which were unique in their combinations of values across variables, where there was no error from the data entry or miscoding. Hence, all of the outliers were retained in the analysis due to the belief that they represented a valid element of the population (Hair et al., 2010) and deleting them would risk the loss of generalisability. It was considered that this step would not interfere with any findings of the research to any major extent.

**9.2.1.3. Response and Non-response Bias Analysis**

Response and non-response bias analysis was performed by comparing the responses from the first mail (76 replies) and those from phone call reminders (50 replies). In particular, an independent sample t-test was conducted to test the significant differences in the mean scores of all variables. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the mean scores between earlier and later responses (P>0.05).
Additionally, characteristics such as industry sector, organisation size and respondents’ position were compared using one-way between groups analysis of variance: ANOVA. The result showed that there was no statistical significance, indicating that the patterns of industry in sample and population were not significantly different (P>0.05). Similarly, for other categorical variables (organisation size and respondents’ position), the results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between groups (P>0.05). These provided evidence that non-response bias did not present a problem.

9.2.1.4. Assessing Common Method Bias

Common method variance (CMV) refers to the amount of spurious covariance shared among variables due to the common method used in data collection (Boyar et al., 2008; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Data are likely to be susceptible to CMV in research studies which use self-reported surveys in data collection and adopt cross-sectional research design (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). CMV causes systematic measurement error and accordingly provides biased estimates of the true relation between examined constructs.

Recognising the issue of common method bias (CMB) and its serious consequences on final findings, a statistical technique, Harman’s single factor test, was employed to assess whether common variance is a significant problem in the data and as a result on research findings (Sharma et al., 2009). Harman’s single factor test was used to assess the effect of CMV through EFA technique (Burton-Jones, 2009; Malhotra et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Sharma et al., 2009). According to Harman’s single factor test with EFA, a factor analysis is conducted including all variables of concern. In case of a serious CMV problem, the outcomes of the factor analysis should show: “(1) emergence of a single or very small number of factors from the factor analysis; and/or (2) one general factor accounting for the majority of covariance in the predictor and criterion variables” (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986:536).

A single EFA was conducting including 110 variables, employing the principal components method and unrotated solution to find out the number of factors required to account for the variance in the variables. The EFA did not show a single factor, however, the results indicated the presence of 27 different factors (with eigenvalues > 1.0). The 27 factors together accounted for 74.9% of the total variance; the first (largest) factor did not account for a majority of the variance (27.79%). Therefore, the general factor is not evident, which shows that common variance has not a serious problem in the data and as a result in the research findings.
9.2.2. Testing Assumptions

Three tests (normality, linearity and homoscedasticity) were performed to check the assumptions of the data for CI and CSR items, which is a prerequisite for EFA and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Field, 2005).

9.2.2.1. Normally Distributed Data

To test the normality assumption of data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests were conducted. The results from both tests (See Appendix 9B) were significant, e.g., p<0.000, indicating violation of the assumption of normality. (Note: Sig value > 0.05 indicates normality). Further, this result was supported by inspecting the histogram, Q-Q plots for the data. In Q-Q plots, the actual (observed) values did not follow a straight line when plotted against the expected (normal) values.

Even though the data did not support the normality assumption, the following points need to be considered. First, several scholars (e.g., Clason and Dormody, 1994; Malthouse, 2001; Nunnally, 1978) explain that it is not uncommon for Likert scales to violate the normality assumption. In support, Bentler and Yuan (1999:184) state, “Real data sets in practice seldom follow normal distributions”, while Cudeck (2001:80) notes, “Virtually no variable follows a normal distribution”. Importantly, the thesis utilises PLS, which is not restricted by violating the normality assumptions of the data (Wold, 1985). Chin (2010:659) noted that, “PLS avoids the assumptions that observations follow a specific distributional pattern and that they must be independently distributed”, also Fornell and Bookstein (1982:443) asserted, “There are no distributional requirements”.

9.2.2.2. Linearity

The linearity of the relationship between dependent and independent variables represents the degree to which the change in the dependent variable is associated with the change in the independent variable (Hair et al., 2010). Linearity can be assessed by examining scatterplots of the variables (or by running simple regression to examine the residuals). A straight line from the scatterplot represents a linear relationship. If any non-linear relationship exists, it will affect the relationship between the two variables.

Scatterplots of any two variables and the residual plots from simple regressions were examined, with CSR as the dependent variable and corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder were used as
independent variables. The results showed that relationships between any two variables appeared to be linear; no non-linear relationships were identified.

9.2.2.3. Homoscedasticity

According to Hair et al. (2010), homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that the dependent variable exhibits equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variables. In case of homoscedasticity, the variance of the dependent variable being accounted for in the dependent relationship should be equally dispersed among the number of the independent values to allow a fair test of the relationship across all values (the pints around the regression line show no pattern). However, when the variance of the dependent variable is not relatively equal at each value of the independent variable (e.g., takes the shape of cones or diamonds), a heteroscedasticity problem exists.

To assess heteroscedasticity, scatterplots of any two variables were examined. In plotting the graphs, CSR was used as a dependent variable while corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder were used as independent variables. It was found that scatter plots produced by the regression models in this research did not reveal any of these tendencies.

9.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

9.3.1. CI Construct

As the primary focus of this thesis is the development of CI Scale (as well as to explore the relationship between CI and CSR) in UK based firms operating in food and beverage industry, the development of the CI construct was imperative, although some items have been validated and tested in the CI literature, e.g., mission statement in Simoes et al. (2005); CVI in Van den Bosch et al. (2004, 2005, 2006a, 2006b).

The CI construct was initially represented by six dimensions/subscales including 93 items; corporate communications (18 items), CVI (23 items), behaviour (17 items), culture (17 items), mission statement (9 items) organisation founder (9 items). Appendix 9C lists all the CI items used in the EFA.

9.3.1. 1. Reliability Analysis

Coefficient Alpha was used as a measure of internal reliability with 0.60 as a minimum figure of acceptability. In addition, corrected item to total correlations (CITC) was calculated with 0.3 as a minimum acceptable level. This examination was performed for
each dimension of CI: Corporate Communications, CVI, Behaviour, Culture, Mission, and Organisation Founder. The CITC for each item, its corresponding code name and Cronbach’s alpha value for each of CI subscale/dimension are shown respectively in Appendix 9D. This resulted in removing six items from CI dimensions: COM_BR6, COM_BR9, COM_BR10, COM_WOM2, CVI_DG8, and ORG_FND1.

9.3.1.2. EFA for CI construct

Based on the premise that CI is a multi-dimensional construct, Factor Analyses were separately performed for the perceived benefit obtained from each dimension (Field, 2005). The construct of CI was tested in five separate groups due to the high number of variables/constructs to be tested, thus, investigating fewer measurement models allows for reliable outcomes (Menon et al., 1996).

The categorisation was based on the literature review. From the literature, the CI construct was divided into the six dimensions. Also, each dimension encompassed sub-dimensions (See Appendix 9C). The dimensions/or sub-dimensions which were considered theoretically related were joined together. For example, Controlled and Uncontrolled Communication were joined under the Corporate Communications dimension; CVIS, applications of CVIS and Consistency of CVI were joined under the CVI dimension; Management, Employee and Corporate Behaviour were joined under the Behaviour dimension; Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market culture were joined under the Culture dimension; and the remaining constructs, Mission Statement and Organisation Founder, were each analysed on its own. Thus, six factor analyses were separately conducted for these CI dimensions.

EFA was conducted using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin was used as a method of rotation as justified previously (See Section 7.5). For each item to be retained, it should show: 1) communality: ±0.50 or greater; 2) factor loading: ±0.50 or greater on a single factor; and, 3) cross-loading: less than ±0.45 on any other factor

New variables emerged from the EFA, and these were then used in CFA, reported in the next chapter. The results and interpretation for CI-EFA are discussed as follows.
9.3.1.2.1. EFA for Corporate Communications

EFA was performed for 14 items of the Corporate Communications dimension/subscale, related to Controlled and Uncontrolled Communications (See Appendix 9D, Table 1). Principal Component Analysis was applied as the factor extraction method and Direct Oblimin was used as factor rotation due to expected correlations among factors. The factor loading ± 0.50 or above was regarded as significant according to the sample size.

Before conducting EFA, the suitability of the data was investigated. Both the Bartlett test of sphericity (significant at p=.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = .722, exceeding the recommended value of 0.50) verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis (Field, 2009). KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.2. There were also sufficient inter-item correlations within the data for performing factor analysis; the correlation matrix showed many correlations of $r = 0.30$ or greater among matrix items which indicated fit of data for factor analysis (Pallant, 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 9.2: Initial KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on Corporate Communications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the items which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed. These items were identified by assessing their communalities, which represent the amount of variance accounted for by the factor solution for each variable (Hair et al., 2010). Accordingly, three items were removed for low communalities: COM_BR3, COM_CNS1 and COM_WOM4. (Note: the table for this result is not provided in order to avoid duplication of tables). The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50; resulting in no more items being removed from the list at this stage.

PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the remaining 11 items. Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion revealed three factors which had an eigenvalue greater than one and should be retained. Scree Test was examined, but was slightly ambiguous showing 3 or 4 components should be retained. Figure 9.1 illustrates the Scree Test for 11 items of Communication. Cumulative percentage of the total variance was also examined.
At least three factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60% of the total variance. The results from the 2, 3, and 4 factor solutions were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with three factors accounted for 59.36% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 28.59% of the pooled variance.

**Figure 9.1: Scree Test for Corporate Communications**

![Scree Test Graph](image)

The measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), also called the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, was assessed. The overall MSA was 0.703 which was regarded as excellent (Field, 2009). Additionally, the Bartlett test of sphericity indicated statistical significance (sig value ≤ 0.001). It meant that enough correlations existed among the variables to proceed (Hair et al., 2010). All the results supported the factorability of the correlation matrix, and that factor analysis was appropriate for the data. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.3.

**Table 9.3: Final KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on Corporate Communications**

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | .703 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 352.690 |
| | Df | 55 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

Pattern Matrix or the rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure presented in Table 9.4. Most of variables were loading substantially on only one factor. There were no cross-loadings in the rotated solution.
Table 9.4: Pattern Matrix of EFA on Corporate Communications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>COM_BR7</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td>.624</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Com.</td>
<td>COM_BR8</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_CNS2</td>
<td>.666</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR5</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOM</td>
<td>COM_WOM6</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Com.</td>
<td>COM_WOM3</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WOM5</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WOM1</td>
<td>-.654</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>COM_BR2</td>
<td>-.839</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Com.</td>
<td>COM_BR1</td>
<td>-.735</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR4</td>
<td>-.680</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalues | 3.146 | 2.031 | 1.354 |
% of variance | 28.598 | 18.465 | 12.306 |
Cumulative % of variance | 28.598 | 47.063 | 59.369 |

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.703; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p=0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings. Mean Communality=0.604

Three factors were named based on the nature of the constituent items. Factor one consisted of four items which were COM_BR8, COM_BR7, COM_CNS2, and COM_BR5, and mainly concerning internal communication tools. Thus the first factor was named ‘Internal Communication’ and was coded as ‘COM_INT’. Factor two contained four items concerning uncontrolled Word-of-Mouth communication items, including COM_WOM1, COM_WOM3, COM_WOM5 and COM_WOM6. Thus, the second factor was named ‘Word-of-Mouth Communication’ and was coded as ‘COM_WOM’. Factor three incorporated three items COM_BR1, COM_BR2 and COM_BR4, all concerning external communication tools. The third factor was called ‘External Communication’ and was coded as ‘COM_EXT’.

The reliability of each factor was tested. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.698, 0.762 and 0.697 for the three factors respectively; which all exceed the minimum criterion of 0.60 for EFA (Hair et al., 2010). These three factors and related items were used in CFA and hypotheses testing using PLS.

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for the Corporate Communications dimension, 11 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.
EFA was performed for 22 items of the CVI dimension which were related to CVIS, applications of CVIS, Consistency of CVI (See Appendix 9D, Table 2). Principal Component Analysis was applied as the factor extraction method and Direct Oblimin was used as factor rotation due to expected correlations among factors. The factor loadings ± 0.50 or above were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010).

Before performing factor analysis, the suitability of the data was checked. Both the Bartlett test of sphericity (significant at p=.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = .895, exceeding the recommended value of 0.50) supported the factorability of the correlation matrix. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.5. There were also sufficient inter-item correlations within the data for performing factor analysis.

Table 9.5: Initial KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on CVI

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .895 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1302.942 |
| | Df | 231 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

Furthermore, the items which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed. These items were identified by assessing their communalities (Hair et al., 2010). Two items were deleted from the analysis due to low communalities. These are CVI_DG6 and CVI_OP7.

The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50, resulting in one more item (CVI DG7, communality = .491) being removed from the list at this stage. PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the remaining 19 items. (Note: the table for this result is not provided in order to avoid duplication of tables). From the factor analysis, the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), also called the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, was assessed. The overall MSA was 0.901 which is regarded as excellent. Additionally, the Bartlett test of sphericity indicated statistical significance (sig value ≤ 0.001). It means that enough correlations exist among the variables to proceed (Hair et al., 2010). All the results supported the factorability of the correlation matrix, and that factor analysis is appropriate for the data. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.6.
Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion (only components that had an eigenvalue of 1 or more) was used to determine how many components (factors) to extract. Four factors emerged from the factor analysis, of which the last factor had no loadings above 0.5 and was then dropped. The initial factor results are shown in Table 9.7. For simplicity, only loadings above 0.5 are displayed.

From examining item loadings, as shown in Table 9.7, items that did not meet the loading cut-off or loaded significantly on more than one factor were eliminated. Items CVI_DG1, CVI_OP2, CVI_CNS1 and CVI_CNS3 all had loadings below 0.50 on
single factors. After removing these four items, the remaining 15 items were submitted to the final round of factor analysis to research a meaningful final structure. The factor analysis revealed three factors with eigenvalue more than one, in combination explaining 59.61% of the variance. The results are shown in Table 9.8.

Table 9.8: Final Pattern Matrix of EFA on CVI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CVI Management and Development</td>
<td>CVI_OP5</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP4</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP6</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS8</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP3</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS4</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS7</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS5</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP1</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI Design</td>
<td>CVI_DG2</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG5</td>
<td>.657</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG3</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>.690</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI Consistency</td>
<td>CVI_CNS2</td>
<td>.812</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS6</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG4</td>
<td>.673</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.879; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p=0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings. Mean Communality=0.600

The final factor analysis showed three components with eigenvalues > 1. All the items loaded significantly on a single factor, with loadings above 0.50. Scree Test was examined but was slightly ambiguous showing 1 or 4 components should be retained. Figure 9.2 illustrates the Scree Test for 15 items of CVI. Cumulative percentage of the total variance was also examined. At least three factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60% of the total variance. The results from 2, 3, and 4 factor solutions were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with three factors accounted for 59.61% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 42.35% of the pooled variance.
Three factors were named based on the nature of the constituent items. Factor one contains nine items, of which the majority concern knowledge of VI strategy, tools and support items, including CVI_OP1, CVI_OP3, CVI_OP4, CVI_OP5, CVI_OP6, CVI_CNS4, CVI_CNS5, CVI_CNS7, CVI_CNS8. Thus, the first factor was named ‘CVI Development and Management’ and was coded as ‘CVI_DM’. Factor two consists of three items: CVI_DG2, CVI_DG3 and CVI_DG5, concerning the design of CVI. Thus the second factor was named ‘CVI Design’ and was coded as ‘CVI_DG’. Factor three incorporates three items: CVI_CNS2, CVI_CNS6 and CVI_DG4 which concern mainly consistency of CVI. The third factor was called ‘CVI Consistency’ and was coded as ‘CVI_CNS’. The reliability of each factor was tested. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.889, 0.740, and 0.683 respectively which were acceptable, being over 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010). These three factors and related items were used in further CFA and hypothesis testing using PLS.

The interrelationships among these three factors were also examined. The Factor Correlation Matrix, which is shown in Table 9.9, contains the correlation coefficients among factors (Field, 2005). It is revealed that all of the factors are interrelated with one another. Hence, it is reasonable to use oblique rotation due to the correlation among factors. This confirms the right decision in using oblique rotation, and expected correlation. The result provided by oblique rotation is more meaningful than that provided by orthogonal rotation for this data.
At the end of the factor analysis procedure for CVI dimension, 15 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.3.1.2.3. EFA for Behaviour

The initial Behaviour conceptualisation consisted of three potential sub-dimensions (Management, Employee and Corporate Behaviour) with a total of 17 questionnaire items. EFA was conducted using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin was used as a method of rotation due to expected correlations among factors. The factor loadings ≥ 0.50 were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Appendix 9D, Table 3 lists the items for Behaviour dimension included in the EFA.

Prior to conducting factor analysis, the suitability of data was assessed. The correlations among variables were expected to be fairly, but not perfectly related (the problem of extreme multicollinearity or singularity). In other words, it is expected to have correlation coefficients above 0.30, but not greater than 0.90. This was examined by exploring the Correlation Matrix (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2001). The correlation matrix for Behaviour dimension indicated appropriate factor analysis, through (a) a number of correlations exceeded 0.30, (b) Significant Bartlett test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 1495.211$, $p<.000$), (c) Adequate MSA = 0.911. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.10.

### Table 9.10: KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.911</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>1495.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variables which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed. These variables were identified by assessing their communalities (Hair et al., 2010). Three items were deleted from the analysis due to low communalities.
These were BEH-EMP7, BEH_CRP1 and BEH_CRP4, resulting in 14 remaining items with the average communality of 0.720. The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50; resulting in no more items being removed from the list at this stage. PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the remaining 14 items.

EFA revealed three different factors, depending on the scree plot and eigenvalues supporting the original Behaviour Dimension conceptualisation. Figure 9.3 illustrates the Scree Test for 14 items of Behaviour scale. In addition, cumulative percentage of the total variance revealed three factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60% of the total variance. The results from 2, 3 and 4 factor solutions were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with three factors accounting for 72.50% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 52.08% of the pooled variance.

**Figure 9.3: Scree Test for Behaviour**

The pattern matrix or rotated solution is presented in Table 9.11. Item loadings were examined; all items loaded significantly on a single factor (no cross loading), with all loadings above 0.50.
As shown in Table 9.11, the pattern matrix revealed the presence of a simple structure. Items for three sub-dimensions (Employee, Management and Corporate) loaded on their respective factors. However, one item BEH_CRP5: ‘Our company treats its employees well’ which focuses on the way organisations treat employees loaded on Employee Behaviour factor. The reliability of each factor was tested using Cronbach’s alpha. Cronbach’s alphas for each factor were 0.708, 0.893 and 0.903 respectively, which were greater than the minimum limit of 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010). These three factors and related items were used in further CMF and hypothesis testing using PLS.

The three factors were given names based on the nature of the constituent items. Factor one contained seven items: BEH_EMP1, BEH_EMP2, BEH_EMP3, BEH_EMP4, BEH_EMP5, BEH_EMP6, and BEH_CRP5. Most of the items concerned employee identification, thus the factor was named ‘Employee Identification’ and was coded as ‘BEH_EID’. Factor two encompasses five items which represent management representation role: BEH_MGT1, BEH_MGT2, BEH_MGT3, BEH_MGT4 and BEH_MGT5. Thus the factor was named ‘Management Representation’ and was coded

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1   2   3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Identification</td>
<td>BEH_EMP5</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td></td>
<td>.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP2</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td></td>
<td>.833</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP1</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td></td>
<td>.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>.720</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP5</td>
<td>.794</td>
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<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP4</td>
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<td>.542</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management Representation</td>
<td>BEH_MGT4</td>
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<td>.774</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT3</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td></td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Behaviour</td>
<td>BEH_CRP2</td>
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<td>.750</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP3</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td></td>
<td>.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalues</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.812</td>
<td>1.759 1.305</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of variance</td>
<td></td>
<td>52.077</td>
<td>11.724 8.699</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative % of variance</td>
<td></td>
<td>52.077</td>
<td>63.801 72.500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.905; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p=0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings. Mean Communality=0.725
as ‘BEH_MRP’. Finally, factor three contains two items which represent corporate behaviour: BEH_CRP2 and BEH_CRP3. The factor was named ‘Corporate Social Behaviour’ and was coded as ‘BEH_CRS’.

The interrelationships among these factors were also examined. The Factor Correlation Matrix, which is shown in Table 9.12, contained the correlation coefficients among factors (Field, 2005). It was revealed that all of the factors are interrelated to one another. Hence, it was reasonable to use oblique rotation due to the correlation among factors. This confirms the right decision in using oblique rotation, and expected correlation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for Behaviour dimension, 14 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.3.1.2.4. EFA for Culture

There were 17 questionnaire items used to measure the Culture Dimension based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF) developed by Deshpande et al. (1993) adapted from Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Quinn (1988) (See Theoretical Framework Chapter, Section 7.4.3). The items were related to the four types of organisational cultures: Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market culture. EFA was conducted using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin was used as a method of rotation due to expected correlations among factors. The factor loadings $\pm \geq 0.50$ were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Appendix 9D, Table 4 lists the items for Culture dimension included in the EFA.

Before performing factor analysis, the suitability of data was checked. The correlation matrix for Culture Dimension showed that the Bartlett test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 818.117$, $p < .000$) and the MSA = 0.820 were adequate. In addition, a number of correlations exceeded 0.30 were presented. Accordingly, it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.13.
Table 9.13: KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on Culture

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .820 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 818.117 |
| | Df | 136 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

Variables which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed. These variables were identified by assessing their communalities. Three items were deleted from the analysis due to low communalities below 0.50; these were CLT_KD4, CLT_GL2, and CLT_EM1, resulting in 14 remaining items.

The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50; resulting in items CLT_HD1 and CLT_HD4 being removed from the list at this stage (these items’ communalities were 0.414 and .498 respectively). (Note: the table for this result is not provided in order to avoid duplication of tables).

PCA with Direct Oblimin was conducted on the remaining 12 items. Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion revealed three factors which had an eigenvalue greater than one, which should be retained. Scree Test was examined; a clear cut-off point was shown which supported three factors. Figure 9.4 illustrates the Scree Test for 12 items of Culture scale.

Figure 9.4: Scree Test for Culture

Cumulative percentage of the total variance was also examined. Three factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of cumulative percentage of 60 cumulative percentage of the total variance. The results from the 2, 3, 4 and 5 factors solutions were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with three factors,
accounting for 62.97% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 33.89% of the pooled variance.

The pattern matrix or rotated solution is presented in Table 9.14. Item loadings were examined; all items loaded significantly on a single factor (no cross loading), with all loadings above 0.50.

Although the conceptualisation of Culture Dimension consisted of four potential sub-dimensions, as indicated from the EFA, only three strong factors emerged from the exploratory factor analysis. The reliability of each factor was using Cronbach’s alpha. Cronbach’s alphas of each factor were 0.786, 0.748 and 0.765 respectively which were greater than the minimum limit of 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010).

The three factors were given names based on the nature of the constituent items. Factor one contained five items: CLT_EM4, CLT_EM2, CLT_GL4, CLT_HD2 and CLT_KD2. These items represented Adhocracy and Market culture type; the EFA resulted in a new situation where items of Adhocracy and Market culture loaded on a single construct. As a result, it was decided to merge them into one component. This factor was then renamed ‘Adhocracy Culture’ and coded as ‘CLT_ADC’. Factor two
contained three items: CLT_GL3, CLT_HD3 and CLT_KD3 that represented Hierarchy culture. Thus the factor was named ‘Hierarchy Culture’ and coded as ‘CLT_HIR’. Finally, factor three contained four items CLT_KD1, CLT_GL1, CLT_0 and CLT_EM3. Most of the items were concerned with characteristics of the Clan culture. Thus, the factor was named ‘Clan Culture’ and was coded as ‘CLT_CLN’.

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for the Culture dimension, 12 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.3.1.2.5. EFA for Mission Statement

EFA was conducted on 9 items using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin was used as a method of rotation due to expected correlations among factors. Factor loadings ± ≥ 0.50 were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Appendix 9D, Table 5 lists all Mission Statement items used in the EFA.

Prior to conducting factor analysis, the suitability of data was assessed. The correlations among variables were expected to be fairly, but not perfectly related (the problem of extreme multicollinearity or singularity). In other words, it was expected to have correlation coefficients above 0.30, but not greater than 0.90. This was examined by exploring the Correlation Matrix (Pallant, 2001). The correlation matrix for Mission Statement dimension revealed that the Bartlett test of sphericity (χ² = 574.258, p < .000) and the MSA = 0.906 were adequate. Additionally, a number of correlations exceeded 0.30 were presented. Accordingly, it was considered appropriate to conduct the factor analysis. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.15.

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .906 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 574.258 |
| Df | 36 |
| Sig. | .000 |

Variables which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed. These variables were identified by assessing their communalities. Three items were deleted from the analysis due to low communalities (below 0.50). These were MSN_ST1, MSN_ST6 and MSN_ST9, resulting in 6 remaining items.
The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50; resulting in no more items being removed from the list at this stage. PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the remaining 6 items.

EFA identified one factor, based on the scree plot and eigenvalues supporting the original scale/dimension conceptualisation. Figure 9.5 illustrates the Scree Test for 6 items of the Mission Statement scale. Also, cumulative percentage of the total variance revealed one factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60% of the total variance. The results from 1, 2 and 3 factor solutions were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with one factor accounting for 67.05% of the variance.

**Figure 9.5: Scree Test for Mission Statement**

The pattern matrix or rotated solution is presented in Table 9.16. Item loadings were examined; all items loaded significantly on a single factor (no cross loading), with all loadings above 0.50.

As shown in Table 9.16, the pattern matrix revealed the presence of a simple structure; all items loaded on one factor. The reliability of the factor was tested using Cronbach’s alpha; the value was 0.896, exceeding the minimum criterion of 0.60 for exploratory analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

This factor representing Mission Statement (with its related items) was used in further CFA and hypothesis testing using PLS. The factor encompassed six items which represented mission statement dissemination: MSN_ST2, MSN_ST3, MSN_ST4, MSN_ST5, MSN_ST7 and MSN_ST8. Thus it was named ‘Mission Dissemination’ and was coded as ‘MSN_DIS’.
Table 9.16: Pattern Matrix of EFA on Mission Statement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission Dissemination</td>
<td>MSN_ST5</td>
<td>.902</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST4</td>
<td>.797</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST3*</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST2</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST7</td>
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<td>.730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST8</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalues           | 4.023     |
% of variance          | 67.054    |
Cumulative % of variance| 67054     |

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.881; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p=0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings. Mean Communality=0.831

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for Mission Dissemination, 6 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.3.1.2.6. EFA for Organisation Founder

EFA was conducted on 8 items using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin. Factor loadings ± ≥ 0.50 were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Appendix 9D, Table 6 lists all organisation founder items used in the EFA.

Before performing factor analysis, the suitability of data was checked. The correlations among variables were expected to be fairly, but not perfectly related (the problem of extreme multicollinearity or singularity). In other words, it was expected to have correlation coefficients above 0.30, but not greater than 0.90. This was examined by exploring the Correlation Matrix (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2010). The correlation matrix showed that the Bartlett test of sphericity (χ2 = 803.762, p < .000) and the MSA = 0.940 were adequate. Accordingly, it was considered appropriate to conduct factor analysis. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.17.

Table 9.17: KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Factor Analysis on Organisation Founder

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .940 |
| Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity                   |     |
| Approx. Chi-Square                             | 803.762 |
| Df                                              | 28   |
| Sig.                                            | .000 |
No items were deleted from the analysis at this stage due to low communalities. Therefore, PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the 8 items.

EFA identified one factor, based on the scree plot and eigenvalues supporting the original scale/dimension conceptualisation. Figure 9.6 illustrates the Scree Test for 8 items of the Organisation Founder scale. Also, cumulative percentage of the total variance revealed one factor should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60% of the total variance. The results from the 1, 2 and 3 factor solution were compared and contrasted. The best representation was found with one factor accounting for 71.46% of the variance.

**Figure 9.6: Scree Test for Organisation Founder**

![Scree Test for Organisation Founder](image)

The pattern matrix or rotated solution is presented in Table 9.18. Item loadings were examined; all items loaded significantly on a single factor (no cross loading), with all loadings above 0.50.

As shown in Table 9.18, the pattern matrix revealed the presence of a simple structure; all items loaded on one factor. The reliability of factor was tested using Cronbach’s alpha, which was 0.942, exceeding the minimum criterion of 0.60 for exploratory analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

This factor representing Organisation Founder (with its related items) was used in further CFA and hypothesis testing using PLS. The factor encompassed eight items which represented transformational leadership role or organisation founder: ORG_FND2, ORG_FND3, ORG_FND4, ORG_FND5, ORG_FND6, ORG_FND7, FND8 and FND9. Thus it was named ‘Founder Leadership’ and was coded ‘FND_LDR’.
Table 9.18: Pattern Matrix of EFA on Organisation Founder

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Founder Leadership</td>
<td>ORG_FND2</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>.581</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND3</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND4</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND5</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND6</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND7</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND8</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND9</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.942</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalues: 5.517

% of variance: 71.453

Cumulative % of variance: 71.459

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.940; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p=0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings. Mean Communality=0.715

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for Organisation Founder Leadership, 8 items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.3.2. CSR Construct

9.3.2.1. Reliability Analysis for CSR

Similar to the CI construct, the CSR scale was subjected internal consistency or reliability assessment. Coefficient Alpha and CITC were used to measure of internal reliability, with 0.6 and 0.3 as minimum acceptable scores, respectively. The CITC for each item, its corresponding code name and Cronbach’s alpha value for CSR construct is shown in Appendix 9D, Table 7. Based on the above decision rule, no items were removed from CSR scale at this stage.

9.3.2.2. EFA for CSR construct

There were 17 questionnaire items used to measure CSR based on Maignan et al. (1999), and Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 2001). They were related to the economic, legal, ethical and philanthropy responsibilities of the organisation. EFA was conducted using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Direct Oblimin was used as a method of rotation due to expected correlations among factors. Factor loadings ≥ 0.50 were regarded as significant according to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010).
Before performing factor analysis, the suitability of the data was checked. The correlations among variables presented in the correlation matrix were examined. It was found that many correlation coefficients exceeded 0.30, but were not higher than 0.90. This means that there were some interrelationships among variables required for factor analysis, but no extreme multicollinearity or singularity (Field, 2005).

The measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), also called the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, was 0.851 for the whole data set, which was regarded as excellent. Additionally, the Bartlett test of sphericity indicated statistical significance ($\chi^2 = 883.410$, $p<.000$). This means that enough correlations existed among the variables to proceed with the analysis (Hair et al., 2010). All the results supported the factorability of the correlation matrix, and that factor analysis was appropriate for the data. KMO and Bartlett’s test are provided in Table 9.19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</th>
<th>.851</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>883.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items which were not sufficiently explained by the factor solution were removed, based on their communalities (Hair et al., 2010). Two items were deleted from the analysis due to low communalities below 0.50. These were CSR_ETH4 and CSR_PHL2; resulting in 15 remaining items with the average communality of 0.694, which is considered well above the recommended cut-off point of 0.60.

The process of examining communalities was repeated until the communalities of all variables were above 0.50; resulting in items no more items being removed from the list at this stage.

PCA with Direct Oblimin was then conducted on the remaining 15 items. Latent Root or Kaiser Criterion revealed five factors which had an eigenvalue greater than one, and thus should be retained. Scree Test was examined; however was ambiguous, showing no clear cut-off pint. Figure 9.7 illustrates the Scree Test for 15 items of CSR. Cumulative percentage of the total variance was also examined. At least four factors should be extracted to meet the acceptable level of 60 cumulative percentage of the total variance. The results for 3, 4, 5, and 6 factors were compared and contrasted.
The best representation was found with five factors, accounting for 70.49% of the variance. Factor 1 explained 36.56% of the pooled variance.

Figure 9.7: Scree Test for CSR

The pattern matrix or rotated solution was examined (See Table 9.20).

Table 9.20: Pattern Matrix of EFA on CSR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL4</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH2</td>
<td>.751</td>
<td>.685</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO2</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH3</td>
<td>.674</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL1</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL1</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*CSR_ETH1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL2</td>
<td>.889</td>
<td></td>
<td>.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL3</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td></td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO1</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td></td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL3</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td></td>
<td>.769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL5</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td></td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.623</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigen values</td>
<td>5.485</td>
<td>1.683</td>
<td>1.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of variance</td>
<td>36.564</td>
<td>11.22</td>
<td>8.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative % of variance</td>
<td>36.56</td>
<td>47.78</td>
<td>55.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
The extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis; the rotation method was Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.829; Bartlett Test of Sphericity is significant at p<0.000. Only loadings ≥ ± 0.50 are displayed and variables are sorted by highest loadings.
*CSR_ETH1 was dropped due to cross loading.
**The fifth factor displays only none item and will be dropped
***New factor emerged and named, as explained below
In Table 9.20, items that did not meet the loading cut-off or loaded significantly on more than one factor were eliminated. This resulted in deleting one item CSR_ETH1. Five factors were extracted from the rotated solution; however, the one factor was dropped from the analysis because there was only one item loading on the factor. Further, two factors did not meet the acceptable reliability level of 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010), and thus they were dropped. The resulting two factors were given names based on the nature of the constituent items.

Factor one contained six items concerning CSR activities towards different stakeholder groups (employees, community, shareholders, community), including CSR_LGL4: ‘Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce’, CSR_ETH2: ‘In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community’, CSR_ECO2: ‘Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance’, CSR_ETH3: ‘In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process’, CSR_LGL1: ‘In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws’, an CSR_PHL1: ‘Our organisation supports employees who require additional education’. Thus, the factor was named ‘Social Responsibility’ and was coded ‘SOC_RSP’.

Factor two included three items which were mainly concerned with legal responsibility. These items are: CSR_LGL2: ‘Our organisational products meet legal standards’, CSR_LGL3: ‘Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits’, and CSR_ECO1: ‘Our organisation continually improves the quality of products’. Thus, this factor was named ‘Legal Responsibility’ and was coded ‘LGL_RSP’.

At the end of the factor analysis procedure for CSR, nine items remained for subsequent reliability and validity testing.

9.4. Summary

This chapter explored the data using descriptive statistics, missing value analysis and normality tests. In addition, EFA with principal components factor extraction methods was applied, resulting in six dimensions for CI construct constituting 66 items. These represented Corporate Communications (11 items); CVI (15 items); Behaviour (14 items); Culture (12 items); Mission Dissemination (6 items), and Founder Leadership
Likewise, EFA for CSR construct resulted in two dimensions comprising 9 items; Social Responsibility (6 items) and Legal Responsibility (3 items).

Although EFA may be satisfactory during the early stages of research on a construct, Churchill (1979:69) suggests the use of factor analysis in a confirmatory fashion at later stages. Therefore, in the next chapter, CFA will be performed in order to assess the validity of the constructs in a stricter manner. In addition, path analysis through the structural model will be applied to demonstrate the influence of CI on CSR.
CHAPTER TEN: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS:
CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS
AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

Table 10.1: The Research Stages

| PART 1 | Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis  
| Research Background, Research Problem, Statement and Questions, Research Objectives, Research Contribution, Thesis Structure |
| Chapter 2: CI Literature Review  
| Definitions of CI, Domain of CI, Theoretical Perspectives on CI, Models of CI, CI Construct |
| Chapter 3: CSR Literature Review  
| Definitions of CSR, Stakeholder Theory of CSR, Models of CSR, CSR Dimensions, Relationship between CI & CSR |
| Chapter 4: Research Methodology  
| Research Paradigm (Ontological, Epistemological, Axiological Stance), Research Approach, Mixed Methods Research Design, Research Strategy |

| PART 2 | Chapter 5: Qualitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach  
| Chapter 6: Qualitative Research Findings  
| Findings of Semi-Structured Interviews and Discussion of Qualitative Findings |

| PART 3 | Chapter 7: Theoretical Framework  
| Postulating the Domain of CI, Theorizing CI, Hypothesizing the Relationship between CI & CSR |
| Chapter 8: Quantitative Research Design: Data Collection and Analysis Approach  
| Sampling, Data Collection Method, Questionnaire and Scale Development Process, Finalising the Questionnaire, Quantitative Data Analysis Methods |
| Chapter 9: Quantitative Research Findings  
| Descriptive and Exploratory Factor Analysis using SPSS |

| PART 4 | Chapter 10: Quantitative Research Findings  
| Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Hypotheses Testing Using Smart PLS |
| Chapter 11: Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings  
|  |
| Chapter 12: Research Contributions and Limitations  
| Theoretical, Managerial and Methodological Implications, Limitations and Future Research |
10.1. Introduction

After the data purification and data reduction were completed, as described in Chapter Nine, the dimensions and psychometric properties of CI scale were verified using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The remaining 66-item corporate identity (CI) scale was subject to a series of further statistical validation testing using the Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach (SmartPLS Version 2).

According to Chin (1998a), a two-step approach was followed to assess partial model structures, this involved the assessment of the outer model, followed by the inner mode (See Figure 10.1).

Figure 10.1: A Two-Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment

Source: Henseler et al. (2010: 298)

Initially, the two-step approach focuses on the assessment of the measurement models (CI Model and CSR Model) to reveal the measurement’s internal consistency reliability and convergent and discriminant validity (Barclay et al., 1995; Chin 1998a), according to criteria associated with reflective outer measurement models. For example, item loading, internal consistency (also known as composite reliability, $\rho_c$) and average variance extracted (AVE) were computed from the formulas shown in Table 10.2. After the calculated scores of latent variable scores indicated adequate validity and reliability, the assessment model focused on evaluating the inner path model estimates. Then, the scale was applied to assess the influence of CI on corporate social responsibility (CSR).

Thus, this chapter seeks to describe the process by which the measurement model validation requirements of the Partial Least Squares (PLS) statistical approach were satisfied for each of the items used in the thesis. In order to do so, the full research model was cascaded down into three sub-models:
Model 1 investigated the CI construct and confirmed the importance of its dimensions and sub-dimensions, Model 2 investigated the CSR construct and its dimensions, while Model 3 investigated the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR. Finally, a summary of key points indicates the multi-dimensional nature of CI and the positive influence of CI on CSR.

10.2. Corporate Identity (CI) Model 1

10.2.1. Construction of CI Hierarchical Model

PLS path modelling allows for the conceptualisation of a hierarchical model through the repeated use of manifest variables (Chin, 2010; Guinot et al., 2001; Lohmöller, 1989; Noonan and Wold, 1983; Tenenhaus et al., 2005; Wold 1985). Thus, a higher-order latent variable can be developed by specifying a latent variable that represents all the manifest variables of the underlying lower-order latent variables. Latent Variables (LVs) are unobservable and cannot be directly measured, so observable and empirically measurable indicator variables (sometimes called Manifest Variables or MVs) are used to estimate the LVs in the model.

The CI model is specified as the third-order reflective hierarchical model (See Figure 10.2), where indicators are a manifestation of the construct (Jarvis et al., 2003; Petter et al., 2007). Accordingly, the manifest variables are used three times: for the first-order latent variables (e.g., external communication), for the second-order latent variables (e.g., corporate communications) and for the third-order latent variable (CI). Since latent variable scores are determinate in PLS path modelling, manifest variables for lower order latent variables (e.g., external communications) are repeatedly used for higher order latent variables (corporate communications or CI) (Akter et al., 2010; Chin, 1998a, b, 2010; Tenenhaus et al., 2005; Wetzels et al., 2009).

Wetzels et al. (2009:179) state, “This approach also allows to derive the (indirect) effects of lower-order constructs, or dimensions, on outcomes of the higher-order

---

10 This thesis uses the definition provided by Bacharach (1989:500) for constructs and variables: “A construct may be viewed as a broad mental configuration of a given phenomenon, while a variable may be viewed as an operational configuration derived from a construct.” Hence, this thesis uses the general term hierarchical construct model, while referring to manifest variables and latent variables for the operational configuration.
construct”. Thus, the measurement model enables the estimation of the effect of each dimension of CI - second order constructs, e.g., corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission dissemination and founder leadership - on CSR.

**Figure 10.2: Hierarchical Third-Order CI Constructs – Using Repeated Indicators**

Source: Adapted from Wettzels *et al.* (2009:186).
Thus, the reflective hierarchical construct model was constructed in PLS path modelling in three steps. A graphic representation of the procedure is provided in Figure 10.3 (adapted from Akter et al., 2010:215; Wetzels et al., 2009:181).

1. The first-order latent variables (COM_EXT, COM_INT, COM_WOM, CVI_DG, CVI_DM, CVI_CNS, BEH_MRP, BEH_EID, BEH_CRS, CLT_ADC, CLT_HIR, CLT_CLN, MSN_DIS, FND_LDR) were constructed and related to their respective block of manifest variables using mode A (reflective) in their outer model.

2. The second-order latent variables (COM, CVI, BEH, CLT) were then constructed by relating them to the blocks of the underlying first-order latent variables using Mode A (reflective) in their outer model. For COM (communication) this means the blocks of LVs: COM_EXT, COM_INT, COM_WOM), for CVI (corporate visual identity) the blocks of LVs: CVI_DG, CVI_DM, CVI_CNS; for BEH (behaviour) this means the blocks of LVs: BEH_MRP, BEH_EID, BEH_CRS; for CLT (culture) this means the blocks of LVs: CLT_ADC, CLT_HIR, CLT_CLN. The inner model between the second order latent variables (COM, CVI, BEH, CLT) and the first-order latent variables (COM_EXT … CLT_CLN) represented the second-order loadings.

3. The third-order latent variable was then constructed by setting up an outer model consisting of the blocks of manifest variables of the second-order latent variables. For CI (corporate identity), this means the blocks of LVs: (COM; COM_EXT, COM_INT and COM_WOM at the first-order level); (CVI; CVI_DG, CVI_DM and CVI_CNS at the first-order level); (BEH: BEH_MRP BEH_EID and BEH_CRS at the first-order level); (CLT; CLT_ADC, CLT_CLN and CLT_HIR at the first-order level), in addition to the blocks of manifest variables of the first-order latent variables for MSN_ST and ORG_FND. All these were used to set up the outer model using Mode A. The inner model between the second-order and third-order latent variables (COM, CVI, BEH, CLT) as well as first-order and third-order latent variables (MSN_DIS, FND_LDR) represented the third-order loadings.
Figure 10.3: Steps for Developing CI as a Hierarchical Third-Order Reflective Construct

First Order Latent Variables of Communication

- **External**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3

- **Internal**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3
  - MV 4

- **WOM**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3
  - MV 4

**Step 1:** First order latent variables (LVs) (External, Internal and WOM) of Communications are related to their block of manifest variables (MVs).

Communications as Second-Order Latent Construct

- **Communications**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10
  - MV 11

**Step 2:** Communications as second-order reflective construct is constructed by relating it to the block of underlying first-order LVs. For example, communications is constructed by using 12 MVs (3+4+4) of 3 first LVs. Likewise, VI, Behaviour, and Culture as constructed as second-order reflective LVs.

Corporate Identity as Third-Order Hierarchical Reflective

- **COM**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

- **CVI**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

- **BEH**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

- **CLT**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

- **MSN**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

- **FND**
  - MV 3
  - MV 4
  - MV 5
  - MV 6
  - MV 7
  - MV 8
  - MV 9
  - MV 10

**Step 3:** CI, a third-order reflective variable, is constructed by all 66 MVs of 4 second-order LVs: COM (11MVs), VI (15MVs), BEH (14MVs) and CULT (12MVs); and 2 first-order LVs: MSN (6MVs) and FND (8MVs). Thus, CI is reflected by 66 MVs.

Finally, the hierarchical model was estimated using PLS path modelling. Estimates for the first-order loadings, second-order loadings and third-order loadings were obtained, as were structural parameters. A non-parametric bootstrapping procedure was used to obtain standard error and calculate t-statistics for inferential purposes. The psychometric properties of the latent variables and the structural relationships were assessed.

10.2.2. Assessment of CI Measurement Model

CI, as a reflective measurement model, was assessed with regard to reliability and validity. The reliability of each indicator was assessed by examining item standardised outer loading. Generally, items with loadings less than 0.60 are deleted (Chin, 1998a; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010), though this thesis employs a loading cut-off point of 0.70, a level of retention commonly acknowledged (Henseler et al., 2009:299). The composite reliability ($\rho_c$), a measure of internal consistency, was also checked; a value below 0.60 indicates a lack of reliability, though, this study employs a cut-off point of 0.70 to ensure a high level of reliability (Henseler et al., 2009:299).

In respect to validity, two validity subtypes were examined: the convergent validity and the discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2009). First, convergent validity was examined using the average variance extracted (AVE); an AVE of at least 0.5 indicates sufficient convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Next, the discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the square roots of AVEs to the correlation between constructs, providing an assessment of the extent to which a construct shares more variance with its measures than with other constructs (Chin 1998, 2010; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 10.2 lists the criteria which should be all meet in order to achieve a valid and reliable reflective measurement (Henseler et al., 2009). If this was not the case, single items were excluded (from CI or CSR measurement models) and the path model was eventually revised.
Table 10.2: Assessing Reflective Measurement Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Composite reliability ($\rho_c$)</td>
<td>$\rho_c = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \text{Var}(\varepsilon_i)}$, where $\lambda_i$ is the outer (component) loading to an indicator, and $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = 1 - \lambda_i^2$ in case of standardized indicators. The composite reliability is a measure of internal consistency and must not be lower than 0.6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicator reliability</td>
<td>Absolute standardized outer (component) loadings should be higher than 0.7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average variance extracted (AVE)</td>
<td>$\text{AVE} = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i^2)}{(\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum \text{Var}(\varepsilon_i))}$, where $\lambda_i$ is the component loading to an indicator and $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = 1 - \lambda_i^2$ in case of standardized indicators. The average variance extracted should be higher than 0.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fornell–Larcker criterion</td>
<td>In order to ensure discriminant validity, the AVE of each latent variable should be higher than the squared correlations with all other latent variables. Thereby, each latent variable shares more variance with its own block of indicators than with another latent variable representing a different block of indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-loadings</td>
<td>Cross-loadings offer another check for discriminant validity. If an indicator has a higher correlation with another latent variable than with its respective latent variable, the appropriateness of the model should be reconsidered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Henseler et al. (2009:300).

Table 10.3 shows that all remaining items (first-order LVs) exhibited high loadings (>0.6), however, four items (COM_CNS2, CVI_OP4, CVI_CNS8, BEH_EMP4) were deleted due to low loadings below 0.70, indicating that the measures share more variance with their respective constructs than with error variance. Although the loadings of COM_BR4, COM_BR5 and CLT_KD2 are a slightly lower than 0.70 (0.697, 0.696, and 0.696) respectively, such items were considered near misses and the decision was made to retain them. The $\rho_c$ and AVE of all scales were higher than 0.70 and 0.50 cut off values, respectively (Chin, 2010; Henseler et al., 2009; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Here, the lowest AVE was 0.524 and the lowest $\rho_c$ was 0.814 for Internal Communication; all values exceeded their respective cut off value.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Order Constructs</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Item Loading</th>
<th>$\rho_c$</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>External Communication</strong> COM_EXT (3 items)</td>
<td>COM_BR1</td>
<td>Advertising</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td>.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR2</td>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR4</td>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Communication</strong> COM_INT (4 items)</td>
<td>COM_BR5</td>
<td>Public Relations activities (e.g. press and media relations)</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR7</td>
<td>Internal marketing</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR8</td>
<td>The internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_CNS2</td>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word-of-Mouth</strong> COM_WOM (4 items)</td>
<td>COM_WOM1</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps attract customers.</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WOM3</td>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WOM5</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WOM6</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the most effective forms of our corporate communication.</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CVI Design</strong> CVI_DG (3 items)</td>
<td>CVI_DG3</td>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td></td>
<td>.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG5</td>
<td>The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG2</td>
<td>The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CVI Development and Management</strong> CVI_DM (9 items)</td>
<td>CVI_OP1</td>
<td>Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual identity.</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td></td>
<td>.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP3</td>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply our CVI rules.</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP4</td>
<td>Our organization has formal guidelines for corporate visual elements.</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP5</td>
<td>The guidelines for our CVI are updated regularly.</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_OP6</td>
<td>In our organisation there are standard technical tools (e.g. templates) developed centrally.</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS4</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS5</td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS7</td>
<td>CVI is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS8</td>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of CVI.</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CVI Consistency</strong> CVI_CNS (3 items)</td>
<td>*CVI_CNS2</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td></td>
<td>.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*CVI_CNS6</td>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
<td>.776</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG2</td>
<td>The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognisable</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.3: Psychometric Properties for the First-Order Constructs – CI Model
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Order Constructs</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Item Loading</th>
<th>( \rho_c )</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management Representation BEH_MRP</td>
<td>BEH_MGT1</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT2</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT3</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT4</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT5</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Identification BEH_EID</td>
<td>BEH_EMP1</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td>.946</td>
<td>.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP2</td>
<td>I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
<td>.913</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP3</td>
<td>I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP4</td>
<td>My sense of pride toward the corporate brand is reinforced by brand-related messages.</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP5</td>
<td>I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP6</td>
<td>I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRPs</td>
<td>Our company treats its employees well.</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Social Behaviour BEH_CRS</td>
<td>BEH_CRP2</td>
<td>Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates.</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP3</td>
<td>Our company supports philanthropy (for instance, works with local disadvantaged groups, etc.).</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy Culture CLT_ADC</td>
<td>CLT_KD2</td>
<td>Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas)</td>
<td>.860</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_HD2</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur (an innovator, or a risk-taker)</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_EM2</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasizes growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams)</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_GL4</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_EM4</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises competitive actions/ achievement (measurable goals are important)</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy Culture CLT_HIR</td>
<td>CLT_HD3</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-coordinator (an organiser, or an administrator)</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_KD3</td>
<td>Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_GL3</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is formal rules and policies</td>
<td>.847</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan Culture CLT_CLN</td>
<td>CLT0</td>
<td>Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>.584</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_KD1</td>
<td>Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family)</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_GL1</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_EM3</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations)</td>
<td>.724</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continued Table 10.3: Psychometric Properties for First-Order Constructs – CI Model
## Continued Table 10.3: Psychometric Properties for the First-Order Constructs—CI Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Order Constructs</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Item Loadings</th>
<th>ρc</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission Statement</td>
<td>MSN_ST2</td>
<td>There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>.6704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*MSN_ST3</td>
<td>We don’t have a well-defined mission.</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST4</td>
<td>Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST5</td>
<td>The organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST7</td>
<td>There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units.</td>
<td>.858</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSN_ST8</td>
<td>The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND2</td>
<td>The founding principles continue to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.768</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND3</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to help employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.877</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND4</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND5</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND6</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to encourage employees to rethink their ideas continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND7</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND8</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORG_FND9</td>
<td>The approach our organisational founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ρc: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted, *inverse items coded.

The testing process was repeated and the results exhibited improvement in constructs loading, t-value, composite reliability and AVE. Table 10.4 reports the discriminant validity; this is demonstrated in the correlation of latent variables which includes correlations among constructs in the off-diagonal and the square root of AVE in the diagonal. The diagonal elements were all greater than their respective off-diagonal elements. In addition, discriminant validity was ensured as all the indicators loaded much higher on their hypothesised factor than on other factors (own loadings were higher than cross loadings) (Chin 1998a, 2010) (See Table 10.5). Please note, the new Psychometric Properties for the First-Order Constructs—CI Model was not included to reduce replication.
### Table 10.4: Square Root AVE and Correlations of First-Order Latent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BEH_CRP</th>
<th>BEH_EMP</th>
<th>BEH_MGT</th>
<th>COM_EXT</th>
<th>COM_INT</th>
<th>COM_WOM</th>
<th>CLT_ADC</th>
<th>CLT_CLN</th>
<th>CLT_HIR</th>
<th>MSN_DIS</th>
<th>FND_LDR</th>
<th>CVL_CNS</th>
<th>CVL_DG</th>
<th>CVL_DM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AVE</td>
<td>0.7889</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>0.839</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.791</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_INT</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.3471</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.428</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.2493</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.434</td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.0787</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.742</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.743</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.0871</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_DIS</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.3299</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.369</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.818</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.2349</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.460</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.547</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVL_CNS</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.2008</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVL_DG</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.3277</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.340</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVL_DM</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.4031</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>0.594</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Square Root AVE is shown along the diagonal.
Table 10.5: Measurement Items Loading and Cross-Loading – First Order Constructs
57

BEH_
CRP
BEH_CRP2
BEH_CRP3
BEH_CRP5
BEH_EMP1
BEH_EMP2
BEH_EMP3
BEH_EMP5
BEH_EMP6
BEH_MGT1
BEH_MGT2
BEH_MGT3
BEH_MGT4
BEH_MGT5
COM_BR1
COM_BR2
COM_BR4
COM_BR5
COM_BR7
COM_BR8
COM_WOM1
COM_WOM3
COM_WOM5
COM_WOM6
CLT_0
CLT_KD1
CLT_GL1
CLT_EM3

0.885
0.891
0.22
0.288
0.300
0.166
0.249
0.288
0.360
0.349
0.329
0.280
0.347
0.196
0.052
0.253
0.244
0.217
0.396
0.203
0.183
0.091
0.200
0.275
0.281
0.121
0.241

BEH_
EMP
0.246
0.266
0.836
0.872
0.923
0.833
0.869
0.925
0.533
0.509
0.456
0.466
0.572
0.127
0.034
0.079
0.085
0.138
0.274
0.385
0.300
0.330
0.293
0.680
0.6013
0.391
0.427

BEH_
MGT
0.355
0.350
0.501
0.492
0.551
0.560
0.495
0.570
0.847
0.864
0.779
0.865
0.842
0.152
0.117
0.140
0.218
0.124
0.407
0.196
0.139
0.144
0.090
0.549
0.384
0.194
0.378

COM_
EXT

COM_
INT

COM_
WOM

0.184
0.188
0.096
0.085
0.043
0.170
0.072
0.090
0.084
0.170
0.096
0.189
0.182
0.901
0.7638
0.694
0.3625
0.260
0.251
0.259
0.176
0.233
0.080
0.143
0.271
0.268
0.068

0.351
0.316
0.153
0.235
0.181
0.166
0.212
0.215
0.303
0.250
0.316
0.264
0.273
0.315
0.198
0.312
0.751
0.800
0.815
0.145
0.146
0.018
0.118
0.254
0.067
0.005
0.060

0.277
0.119
0.362
0.372
0.351
0.395
0.408
0.369
0.192
0.242
0.107
0.102
0.135
0.245
0.232
0.100
0.004
0.077
0.225
0.744
0.792
0.777
0.745
0.198
0.430
0.357
0.155

CLT_
CLN
0.265
0.283
0.627
0.577
0.671
0.549
0.559
0.673
0.442
0.401
0.335
0.378
0.574
0.230
0.217
0.085
0.050
0.034
0.213
0.312
0.265
0.272
0.239
0.742
0.818
0.724
0.770

308

CLT_
ADC
0.242
0.264
0.323
0.390
0.355
0.400
0.408
0.426
0.317
0.293
0.544
0.385
0.452
0.123
0.062
0.047
0.121
0.076
0.376
0.089
0.118
0.014
0.087
0.479
0.221
0.071
0.357

CLT_
HIR
0.050
0.125
0.270
0.249
0.240
0.243
0.271
0.294
0.293
0.270
0.341
0.183
0.169
0.020
0.016
0.119
0.078
0.025
0.226
0.074
0.203
0.107
0.158
0.208
0.203
0.344
0.427

MSN_
DIS
0.263
0.376
0.409
0.379
0.359
0.418
0.400
0.387
0.355
0.364
0.487
0.370
0.375
0.173
0.056
0.036
0.187
0.210
0.357
0.117
0.249
0.104
0.117
0.476
0.217
0.086
0.284

FND_
LDR
0.202
0.312
0.301
0.379
0.390
0.320
0.477
0.403
0.229
0.285
0.274
0.225
0.271
0.113
0.007
0.017
0.037
0.227
0.271
0.207
0.290
0.203
0.266
0.407
0.368
0.260
0.299

CVI_
CNS
0.218
0.148
0.253
0.380
0.284
0.174
0.319
0.319
0.058
0.052
0.213
0.0380
0.0919
0.127
0.0247
0.081
0.021
0.231
0.211
0.189
0.351
0.197
0.193
0.328
0.297
0.113
0.128

CVI_
DG
0.353
0.341
0.336
0.429
0.377
0.298
0.345
0.401
0.261
0.319
0.273
0.226
0.34
0.312
0.269
0.186
0.199
0.243
0.315
0.301
0.343
0.291
0.284
0.442
0.458
0.163
0.213

CVI_
DM
0.4012
0.352
0.300
0.367
0.328
0.248
0.405
0.285
0.331
0.289
0.399
0.306
0.308
0.248
0.159
0.208
0.218
0.306
0.405
0.099
0.255
0.143
0.199
0.351
0.306
0.147
0.217


Continued Table 10.5: Measurement items Loading and Cross-Loading – First Order Constructs
BEH_
CRP

CLT_EM2
CLT_EM4
CLT_GL4
CLT_HD2
CLT_KD2
CLT_GL3
CLT_HD3
CLT_KD3
MSN_ST2
MSN_ST4
MSN_ST5
MSN_ST7
MSN_ST8
*MSN_ST3
ORG_FND2
ORG_FND3
ORG_FND4
ORG_FND5
ORG_FND6
ORG_FND7
ORG_FND8
ORG_FND9
*CVI_CNS2
*CVI_CNS6
CVI_DG2
CVI_DG5
CVI_DG6
CVI_DG7
CVI_OP1
CVI_OP3
CVI_OP5
CVI_OP6
CVI_CNS4
CVI_CNS5
CVI_CNS7

0.139
0.248
0.154
0.192
0.321
0.003
0.085
0.141
0.207
0.224
0.355
0.328
0.271
0.384
0.197
0.294
0.290
0.231
0.232
0.192
0.220
0.294
0.259
0.112
0.118
0.371
0.329
0.231
0.407
0.268
0.162
0.425
0.235
0.396
0.351

BEH_
EMP

0.210
0.300
0.239
0.346
0.512
0.185
0.244
0.287
0.370
0.357
0.365
0.427
0.384
0.280
0.418
0.394
0.404
0.353
0.366
0.332
0.297
0.356
0.327
0.175
0.286
0.383
0.281
0.368
0.304
0.268
0.187
0.234
0.308
0.314
0.309

BEH_
MGT

0.278
0.360
0.261
0.426
0.379
0.193
0.240
0.282
0.293
0.388
0.409
0.340
0.436
0.407
0.228
0.313
0.287
0.268
0.202
0.196
0.288
0.278
0.087
0.046
0.078
0.324
0.258
0.235
0.317
0.232
0.218
0.333
0.339
0.320
0.285

COM_
EXT

COM_
INT

0.115
0.069
0.026
0.009
0.130

0.1819
0.1245
0.1756
0.2387
0.2539

0.0731

0.0261
0.0283

0.010
0.024
0.063
0.112
0.007
0.166
0.083
0.165
0.039
0.078
0.167
0.015
0.019
0.028
0.002
0.081
0.025
0.082
0.084
0.312
0.274
0.199
0.209
0.189
0.199
0.243
0.090
0.239
0.217

0.2139
0.232
0.2442
0.2442
0.2744
0.3183
0.3107
0.3103
0.2563
0.1803
0.1329
0.116
0.2211
0.1691
0.2
0.214
0.1356
0.1254
0.2391
0.297
0.271
0.2441
0.3605
0.2807
0.3979
0.2277
0.4396
0.1902

COM_
WOM

0.009
0.036
0.049
0.110
0.168
0.123
0.215
0.110
0.045
0.231
0.159
0.257
0.143
0.106
0.271
0.308
0.309
0.286
0.259
0.231
0.221
0.242
0.238
0.224
0.261
0.384
0.285
0.306
0.265
0.122
0.157
0.112
0.186
0.071
0.280

CLT_
CLN

0.219
0.289
0.287
0.286
0.374
0.233
0.283
0.403
0.272
0.271
0.335
0.341
0.279
0.308
0.402
0.400
0.465
0.378
0.394
0.317
0.247
0.366
0.259
0.144
0.287
0.413
0.318
0.298
0.277
0.244
0.196
0.288
0.227
0.267
0.310

* Reverse items coded.

309

CLT_
ADC

0.748
0.772
0.766
0.728
0.695
0.211
0.136
0.343
0.487
0.466
0.445
0.363
0.376
0.362
0.249
0.451
0.302
0.354
0.434
0.413
0.442
0.445
0.213
0.173
0.393
0.214
0.360
0.254
0.378
0.379
0.258
0.328
0.331
0.348
0.221

CLT_
HIR

0.199
0.252
0.310
0.173
0.163
0.831
0.761
0.847
0.158
0.214
0.318
0.252
0.259
0.247
0.282
0.444
0.255
0.365
0.338
0.204
0.339
0.300
0.175
0.146
0.224
0.158
0.134
0.007
0.145
0.144
0.302
0.232
0.192
0.073
0.259

MSN_
DIS

0.343
0.451
0.342
0.293
0.445
0.149
0.200
0.343
0.813
0.793
0.900
0.857
0.806
0.733
0.410
0.473
0.373
0.410
0.484
0.460
0.535
0.536
0.331
0.260
0.215
0.339
0.336
0.379
0.336
0.291
0.269
0.366
0.417
0.340
0.334

FND_
LDR

0.326
0.211
0.384
0.387
0.399
0.282
0.304
0.330
0.448
0.363
0.49
0.513
0.557
0.280
0.767
0.876
0.780
0.852
0.884
0.852
0.840
0.898
0.242
0.148
0.290
0.276
0.213
0.304
0.302
0.222
0.156
0.272
0.311
0.271
0.293

CVI_
CNS

0.235
0.214
0.281
0.163
0.304
0.157
0.079
0.286
0.303
0.254
0.250
0.324
0.274
0.278
0.297
0.187
0.190
0.213
0.262
0.204
0.249
0.305
0.778
0.838
0.726
0.423
0.378
0.274
0.411
0.373
0.416
0.33
0.416
0.405
0.358

CVI_
DG

0.228
0.204
0.086
0.292
0.459
0.010
0.117
0.172
0.339
0.304
0.341
0.375
0.371
0.351
0.340
0.296
0.272
0.194
0.315
0.169
0.204
0.332
0.332
0.332
0.398
0.853
0.826
0.761
0.485
0.456
0.334
0.343
0.463
0.538
0.497

CVI_
DM

0.265
0.235
0.242
0.369
0.470
0.120
0.156
0.300
0.302
0.335
0.411
0.389
0.379
0.364
0.357
0.305
0.211
0.250
0.309
0.242
0.297
0.356
0.371
0.485
0.335
0.545
0.569
0.278
0.757
0.761
0.744
0.714
0.796
0.768
0.745


The factor structure matrix (Table 10.5) indicated adequate discriminant validity, since all CI items showed evidence of high loadings on their respective constructs (figures shown in bold) and no items loaded higher on constructs they were not intended to measure. In addition, Table 10.5 shows there is no common factor loading on all measures (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). This is considered a factor analysis (ex-post one-factor test), the same as Harmon’s one factor test which was estimated for all items used in EFA (See Section 9.2.1.4 in Chapter Nine). Therefore, common method bias was not considered to be a problem with this dataset. “Common method bias could be exacerbated as higher order constructs for the main measurement models are represented by components measured in a similar format. Each question is obviously different, as are the constructs and all measurement models” (Wilson, 2010:634).

**10.2.3. Assessment of CI Higher-Order Model**

The composite scores for each of the fourteen first order constructs of CI shown in Table 10.3 became the input for the following analysis; that is, the validation of the second-order and third-order constructs.

The reliability of the second order constructs was assessed using the relative path weights (loadings) of the first order constructs; and for the third order construct (CI), using the relative path weights of the second order constructs. For this purpose, the requirement is that (1) AVE should be greater than or equal to 0.50; (2) Composite Reliability ($\rho_c$) should be larger than or equal to 0.70. It should be noted that both AVE and $\rho_c$ take into consideration, implicitly, loadings values. (3) Convergent validity in the second order construct is also shown when t-values of the outer mode loadings are above 1.96 (sig. at least p>0.05).

Table 10.6 shows loadings, standard errors and t-values of the second order constructs. All the loadings and t-values are significant at the 0.01 level (t-values were all higher than 2.58). A two-tail test is used as it is considered more conservative, e.g., it is more rigorous than a one-tail test because a two-tail test takes more extreme test statistics to reject a null hypothesis. Since all the standardised coefficients (loadings) for all dimensions of CI were statistically significant, the second order constructs were all considered valid and reliable and used in assessing the third-order construct.
### Table 10.6: Initial Validation of CI-Second Order Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second-order Constructs</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Communications</strong>: AVE= 0.520; ρc = 0.745</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>10.787</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>7.073</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>6.167</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Visual Identity</strong>: AVE= 0.663; CR=0.853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>13.109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>21.206</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; VI_DM</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>78.652</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behaviour</strong>: AVE= 0.605; ρc =0.814</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_CRS</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>5.606</td>
<td>Removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>17.676</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>16.069</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Culture</strong>: AVE= 0.567; ρc =0.803</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>13.155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>12.891</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>7.739</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ρc: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Table 10.6 shows that BEH_CRS has low loading (0.491) indicating that BEH_CRS might not be a strong indicator of BEH compared to the other two dimensions of behaviour. As a consequence, BEH_CRS, a first-order construct, was removed from subsequent analysis.

The testing process was repeated and the results (Table 10.7) exhibit improvement in constructs loading, t-value, composite reliability and AVE.

Table 10.7 includes the AVE and ρc of the measures in the CI second-order constructs; these also show AVE greater than 0.50 and ρc equal to or greater than 0.70, which indicates reliability of measurement.
Table 10.7: Final Validation of CI-Second Order Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second-order Constructs</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Communications: AVE = 0.520; $\rho_c$ = 0.750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>10.507</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>7.073</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>6.593</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Visual Identity: AVE = 0.663; $\rho_c$ = 0.850</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>13.418</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>20.553</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>83.079</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour: AVE = 0.798; $\rho_c$ = 0.890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>51.109</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>24.975</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture: AVE = 0.567; $\rho_c$ = 0.803</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_AD</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>18.518</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>17.321</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.660</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>8.287</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: $\rho_c$: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Since all the standardised coefficients (loadings) for all dimensions of CI were statistically significant, the second order constructs were all considered valid and reliable and used in assessing the third-order construct.

Finally, for the third-order construct (CI), the loadings of four second-order constructs (COM, CVI, BEH, CLT) and two first-order constructs (MSN_DIS and FND_LDR) were used to calculate the AVE and $\rho_c$ for CI.

Table 10.8: Validation of CI Third-Order Construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third order-construct</th>
<th>loading</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CI: AVE = 0.550, $\rho_c$ = 0.879</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>7.929</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>6.528</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>25.046</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CULTURE</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>27.807</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; MSN_ST</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>21.138</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; ORG_FND</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>12.816</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: $\rho_c$: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Figure 10.4 shows the parameters of CI construct as a third-order reflective hierarchical construct model. The degree of explained variance of third-order CI construct is reflected in its four second-order components, that is, Culture (68%), Behaviour (67%), CVI (55%), and Corporate Communications (30%) as well as two first-order components: Mission Dissemination (56%) and Founder Leadership (53%). Therefore, variance of second order constructs is reflected in their corresponding first order
constructs. All the path coefficients from CI to first order and second-order components are significant at P<0.01 (See Table 10.9). In addition, in Tables 10.7 and 10.8, the results indicate that the AVEs and $\rho_c$ of the second or third order model are equal to or greater than 0.50 and 0.70, respectively, which provides evidence of reliable higher order measures.

**Figure 10.4: CI as High-Order Reflective Construct**
Figure 10.4 shows Conceptual Model 1, where CI construct is a manifestation of Communication, CVI, Behaviour, Culture, Mission Dissemination and Founder Leadership. A summary of the path coefficients and their associated t-values are presented in Table 10.9.

Table 10.9: Conceptual Model 1: Path Coefficients, Standard Errors and T-values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hierarchical Model</th>
<th>Beta Value</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-Statistics</th>
<th>Sig. P&lt;.001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>51.109</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>24.978</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>25.046</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>20.526</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>15.570</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>6.592</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>6.128</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>4.548</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>4.251</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>27.807</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>14.600</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>13.594</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>7.571</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>12.820</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>14.368</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>9.191</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>11.294</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>13.991</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>10.507</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>7.308</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>6.593</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>18.518</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>17.321</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>8.288</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>13.418</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>20.554</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>83.079</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the measurement instruments exhibited sufficiently strong psychometric properties to support valid testing of the proposed structural model. The higher-order factor model exhibits adequate fit. They predict conceptually-related constructs adequately and as expected. They also exhibit equal (if not better) predictive validity. Therefore, the higher-order measurement theory is supported (Chin, 1998a; Hair et al., 2010). The minimum conditions for identification and good measurement practice present in both the first-order and higher-order layers (of the measurement theory) are satisfied.
After validating the measurement items and constructs in Conceptual Model 1, the CI Model was used in testing the hypothesised relationship between CI and CSR constructs as shown in Figures 10.7 and 10.8.

10.3. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Model 2

10.3.1. Construction of CSR Hierarchical Model

The CSR construct was considered to be a reflective second-order construct model. Similar to the CI construct, the CSR construct was developed in PLS path modelling using the repeated indicators approach. Two steps were followed in developing the CSR construct:

1. The first-order latent variables (SOC_RSP and LGL_RSP) were constructed and related to their respective block of manifest variables using mode A (reflective) in their outer model.

2. The second-order latent variable, CSR, was constructed by relating it to the blocks of the underlying first-order latent variables using Mode A (reflective) in its outer model. This means, for CSR, the blocks of LVs: SOC_RSP and LGL_RSP. The inner model between the second order latent variable (CSR) and the first-order latent variables (SOC_RSP and LGL_RSP) represented the second-order loadings. A graphic representation of the procedure is provided in Figure 10.5.

Finally, the hierarchical model was estimated using PLS path modelling. Estimates for the first-order loadings and second-order loadings were obtained, as were the structural parameters. A non-parametric bootstrapping procedure was used to obtain standard error and calculate t-statistics for inferential purposes. The psychometric properties of the latent variables and the structural relationships were assessed.
**Figure 10.5: Steps for Developing CSR as a Hierarchical Second-Order Reflective Construct**

**First order latent variables of CSR**

- **Legal**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3

- **Social**
  - MV 1
  - MV 2
  - MV 3

**CSR as second-order reflective construct**

- MV 1
- MV 2
- MV 3
- MV 4
- MV 5
- MV 6
- MV 7
- MV 8
- MV 9

**Step 1:** First order latent variables (LVs) (Legal Responsibility and Social Responsibility are related to their block of manifest variables (MVs).

**Step 2:** CSR as second-order reflective construct is constructed by relating it to the block of underlying first-order LVs. For example, CSR is constructed by using 9 MVs (3+6) of 2 first LVs.

10.3.2. Assessment of CSR Measurement Model

CSR, as a reflective measurement model, was assessed with regard to reliability and validity (See Table 10.2). The reliability of each indicator was assessed by examining item standardised outer loading; a *cut-off point of 0.70 was used*. The composite reliability ($\rho_c$) was also checked; a *cut-off point of 0.70 was used to ensure a high level of reliability* (Henseler et al., 2009:299).

With respect to validity, first, convergent validity was examined using the AVE; an AVE of at least 0.50 indicates sufficient convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Next, the discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the square roots of AVEs to the correlation between (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).
Table 10.10 shows that all remaining items (first-order LVs) exhibited high loadings, except for CSR_LG1 with loading 0.631, thus was deleted from further analysis. Item CSR_PHL1 was treated as a ‘near miss’ with loading 0.691.

Table 10.10: Psychometric Properties for the First-Order Constructs – CSR Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Order Constructs</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Item Loadings</th>
<th>ρc</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal Responsibility</td>
<td>LGL_RSP</td>
<td>CSR_LGL2: Our organisational products meet legal standards.</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td>.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_LGL3: Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_ECO1: Our organisation continually improves the quality of products</td>
<td>.791</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
<td>SOC_RSP</td>
<td>CSR_ECO2: Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance.</td>
<td>.773</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_ETH2: In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community.</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_ETH3: In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process.</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_LGL1: In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws.</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_LGL4: Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce.</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR_PHL1: Our organisation supports employees who require additional education.</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ρc: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted

The testing process was repeated and the results exhibit improvement in constructs loading, t-value, composite reliability and AVE. Table 10.11 reports the discriminant validity; this is demonstrated in the correlation of latent variables which includes correlations among constructs in the off-diagonal and the square root of AVE in the diagonal. The diagonal elements were all greater than their respective off-diagonal elements. In addition, discriminant validity was ensured as all the indicators loaded much higher on their hypothesised factor than on other factors (own loadings were higher than cross loadings) (Chin 1998, 2010) (See Table 10.12). Please note, the new psychometric properties for the First-Order Constructs – CSR Model was not included to reduce replication.
### Table 10.11: Square Root AVE and Correlations of First-Order Latent Variables - CSR Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BEH_EMP</th>
<th>BEH_MGT</th>
<th>COM_EXT</th>
<th>COM_INT</th>
<th>COM_WOM</th>
<th>CLT_ADC</th>
<th>CLT_CLN</th>
<th>CLT_HIR</th>
<th>LGL_RSP</th>
<th>MSN_DIS</th>
<th>FND_LDR</th>
<th>SOC_RSP</th>
<th>CVI_CNS</th>
<th>CVI_DG</th>
<th>CVI_DM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AVE</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.876</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>0.839</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.790</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_INT</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.428</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_ADC</td>
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<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.710</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_CLN</td>
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<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.231</td>
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<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.760</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.813</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGL_RSP</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.282</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.355</td>
<td>0.391</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_DIS</td>
<td>0.448</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.297</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.460</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.547</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.282</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.340</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.365</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.468</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>0.750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Square Root AVE is shown along the diagonal.

### Table 10.12: Measurement Items Loading and Cross-Loading – First Order Constructs – CSR Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BEH_EMP</th>
<th>BEH_MGT</th>
<th>COM_EXT</th>
<th>COM_INT</th>
<th>COM_WOM</th>
<th>CLT_ADC</th>
<th>CLT_CLN</th>
<th>CLT_HIR</th>
<th>LGL_RSP</th>
<th>MSN_DIS</th>
<th>FND_LDR</th>
<th>SOC_RSP</th>
<th>CVI_CNS</th>
<th>CVI_DG</th>
<th>CVI_DM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL1</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>0.233</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>0.258</td>
<td>0.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL1</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO1</td>
<td>0.384</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.434</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH1</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH3</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.427</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL2</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL3</td>
<td>0.340</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.869</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO1</td>
<td>0.474</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>0.296</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.319</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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10.3.3. Assessment of CSR Higher-Order Model

The composite scores for each of the two first order constructs of CSR shown in Table 10.10 became the input for the validation of the second-order CSR construct.

The relative path weights (loadings) of the first order constructs (LGL_RSP, SOC_RSP) were used to evaluate the reliability of the second order construct-CSR. Thus, AVE and CR should be greater than 0.50 and 0.70, respectively. Convergent validity in the second order construct was shown when t-values of the outer mode loadings were above 1.96 (sig. at least p<0.05).

Table 10.13 shows loadings/path coefficients, standard errors and t-values of the first order constructs. For the CSR construct, the loading of SOC_RSP on CSR was 0.924, and the loading of LGL_RSP on CSR was 0.757, which was in support of the second-order model of CSR. The results indicated that all loadings were significant at p< .001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second-order Construct</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR: AVE= .712 ; ρc = .830</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR -&gt; SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>76.433</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR -&gt; LGL_RSP</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>15.784</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ρc: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Figure 10.6 presents the parameters of CSR as a second-order reflective hierarchical construct model. The degree of explained variance of second-order CSR construct is reflected in its two first-order components, that is, Social Responsibility (85%), and Legal Responsibility (57%).
Figure 10.6: CSR as High-Order Reflective Construct

Figure 10.6 shows Conceptual Model 2, where the CSR construct is a manifestation of Social and Legal Responsibilities. After ensuring the reliability and validity of Measurement Model 2, the CSR Model, the next stage in PLS modelling was to assess the structural model (Barclay et al., 1995; Hulland, 1999); the relationship between CI and CSR.

10.4. Assessment of the Structural Model 3 and Hypothesis Testing

After developing the CI scale and verifying its psychometric properties, the next step is to assess the nomological validity of the CI hierarchical construct model. Thus, CI was embedded in a nomological model in which it was modelled as an exogenous latent variable influencing CSR (See Figures 10.7 and 10.8).

Table 10.14 provides the criteria used in the evaluation of the inner path model estimates, as suggested by Henseler et al. (2009:303).
This research applied *estimates for path coefficients* and *$R^2$ of endogenous latent variables* which are considered essential criteria (Henseler *et al.*, 2009) in assessing the structural model: the relationship between CI and CSR. PLS provided information indicating how well the structural model predicted the hypothesised relationships by examining the path coefficients (standardised betas) which indicated the strengths of the relationships between constructs (the dependent and independent variables). Moreover, PLS also provided a measure of the predictive power of this research model, or the squared multiple correlation ($R^2$) value for each endogenous variable (Chin, 1998a) based on a bootstrapping procedure that used 500 samples with replacement (Bollen and Stine, 1992; Chin, 1998a). The $R^2$ value found in PLS is comparable to the $R^2$ value in a multiple regression model, which represents the amount of variance explained by the independent variables contained within the model (Barclay *et al.*, 1995).

Thus, the $R^2$ value was used to measure each construct’s percentage variation explained by the model. Chin (1998a:323) describes “$R^2$ values of 0.67, 0.33 and 0.19 in PLS
models as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively”. “If certain inner model path model structures explain an endogenous latent variable by only a few (e.g., one or two) exogenous latent variables, ‘moderate’ $R^2$ is acceptable. However, if the endogenous latent variable relies on several exogenous latent variables, the $R^2$ value should exhibit at least a substantial level” (Henseler, 2009:303).

If the model fitted the data adequately, the beta ($\beta$) coefficients and t-values were evaluated to the test of significance of the hypothesis. Using a two-tailed test, a t-value greater than 2.58 is significant at the level of 0.01; a t-value greater than 1.96 is significant at the level of 0.05, and; a t-value greater than 1.64 is significant at the level of 0.10.

Thus, the significance of the $R^2$, for all endogenous constructs, was evaluated using an F-test (Falk and Miller, 1992) (See Table 10.15):

$$ F = \frac{R^2/m}{(1-R^2) / (N-m-1)} $$

Where,
N = the total number of the sample size,
m = the number of items in the construct, and
F is distributed as an F distribution with m and (N – m – 1) degrees of freedom.

The results of the F-test (Table 10.15), demonstrated that all the $R^2$ values were significant at $p<0.001$. In addition, $R^2$ values were ‘significant’ and ‘moderate’ which was acceptable according to Chin (1998b).
Table 10.15: F-Test for $R^2$ in all Endogenous Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$p(F)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>35.26</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_INT</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>31.70</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>42.58</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>58.03</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>151.44</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>36.81</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>62.22</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>123.85</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td>44.18</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.4245</td>
<td>30.052</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.6311</td>
<td>51.955</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_DIS</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>16.62</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORPORATE COMMUNICATIONS</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>10.654</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>20.364</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURE</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>28.544</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.853</td>
<td>138.695</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGL_RSP</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>54.577</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>10.645</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to path coefficient, the results in Figure 10.7 show a standardised beta of 0.651 from CI to CSR. The path coefficient was significant at $p<.001$ (see Table 10.16). Thus it was evident that CI had a significant positive direct impact on CSR 42%, supporting the research hypothesis (H$_1$).

Figure 10.7: Hierarchical CI and its Impact on CSR

Table 10.16: Path Coefficient, Standard Error and T-values for Hypothesised Relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Beta Value</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H$_1$: CI-&gt; CSR</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>12.989</td>
<td>.0501</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Therefore, it was evident that CI was a third-order reflective construct. CI was manifested through four second-order constructs: COM [COM_EXT, COM_INT, COM_WOM]; CVI [CVI_DG, CVI_DM, CVI_CNS]; BEH [BEH_MRP, BEH_EID]; CLT [CLT_ADC, CLT_CLN, CLT_HIR], and two first-order constructs: MSN_DIS and FND_LDR. All $R^2$ were significant and moderate, and all path coefficients were significant $p<.001$. It was also evident that CSR was a second-order reflective construct manifested through 2 first-order reflective constructs: LGL_RSP and SOC_RSP. All $R^2$ were significant and moderate and all path coefficients were significant $p<.001$. Finally, it was proved that CI has a positive significant impact on CSR [$\beta = .651$, $t = 12.989$], $p<.001$. Table 10.17 and Figure 10.8 summarise all path coefficients and T-values involved in the research model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hierarchical Model</th>
<th>Path Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Sig p&lt;.001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>50.259</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>23.362</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>24.010</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>19.337</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>14.500</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>5.998</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>5.865</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>4.364</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>4.065</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CSR</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>12.985</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>25.448</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>13.032</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>12.117</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>7.6019</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; LGL_CSR</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>10.172</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; MSN_DIS</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>21.287</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>13.727</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>12.603</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>15.080</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>9.528</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>11.864</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>14.640</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>10.781</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_INT</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>7.695</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM -&gt; COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>7.280</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR -&gt; LGL_RSP</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>14.838</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR -&gt; SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>79.425</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>17.072</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>15.788</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT -&gt; CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>8.429</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>13.388</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>21.172</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI -&gt; CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>79.076</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 10.8: CI-CSR Path Coefficients and Calculated R2 from the Bootstrap Re-Sampling
10.5. Mediating Effects

“Mediation is said to occur when a causal effect of some variable X on an outcome Y is explained by some intervening variable M” (Shrout and Bolger, 2002:422). In this case, CI was assumed to intervene in the relationship between each of COM, CVI, BEH, CLT, MSN_DIS and FND_LDR on the one hand and CSR on the other hand.

While the bootstrap results from both CI-COM and CI-CSR were shown to be significant, this did not necessarily guarantee that the indirect effect from COM to CSR = 0.357 (e.g., 0.549*0.651) would be significant. The same applied to the other dimensions of CI (VI, BEH, CLT, MSN_DIS and FND_LDR).

Chin (2010:678) recommends two steps “to assess the significance of indirect paths in a PLS structural model:

1. Apply the same bootstrapping procedure performed elsewhere with path analysis/perform N bootstrap resampling (e.g., 1,000 resamples) and calculate the product of direct paths that form the indirect path being assessed.
2. Estimate the significance using either percentile bootstrap or bias corrected bootstrap”.

This research applied percentile bootstrap, as noted by Shrout and Bolger (2002:446). To compute the percentile confidence interval, the following steps were followed:

1. “Using the original data set of 126, a bootstrap sample was created by randomly sampling observations with replacement from the data set.
2. For each bootstrap sample, the product of the indirect effect (e.g., CI-COM × CI-CSR) was estimated and the result was saved to a file.
3. Steps 1 and 2 were repeated a total of 1000 times.
4. The distribution of the estimates was examined in order to determine the \((\alpha/2) \times 100\%\) and \((1 - \alpha/2) \times 100\%\) percentiles of the distribution”.

Mediation was said to occur if this confidence interval did not contain zero. Shrout and Bolger (2002:446) argue that “the percentile confidence interval in this method is virtually identical to a more sophisticated interval procedure that adjusts for possible bias (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993:178-199)”.
In this case, “a percentile estimate of the 95% confidence interval was computed by ordering the 1,000 bootstrap sample means from lowest to highest and marking the 25th out of 1,000 as the lower bound and the 975th out of 1,000 as the upper bound. According to Shrout and Bolger, the $i$th-ordered estimate is called $\theta(i)$, and the confidence bounds are $\theta^{(a)}$ and $\theta^{(1-a)}$, where $a$ is chosen so that total coverage is $1 - 2a$. For the 95% confidence interval, $a$ is .025” (Shrout and Bolger, 2002:446). Table 10.18 shows the significance of indirect relations using percentile bootstrap.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indirect Effect</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>95% CI Bootstrap Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CI - COM*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.549*0.651=0.357</td>
<td>[0.256-0.435]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI - CVI*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.745*0.651=0.501</td>
<td>[0.402-0.610]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI - BEH*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.819*0.651=0.533</td>
<td>[0.431-0.611]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI - CLT*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.827*0.651=0.538</td>
<td>[0.425-0.616]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI - MSN*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.750*0.651=0.488</td>
<td>[0.399-0.573]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI - FND*CI - CSR</td>
<td>0.729*0.651=0.474</td>
<td>[0.357-0.560]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentile 95% CI for bootstrap is defined using the values that mark the upper and lower 2.5% of the bootstrap distribution. CI = confidence interval.

From the bootstrap percentile confidence interval shown in table 10.18, it was clear that 95% of the bootstrap estimates were between the values 0.256 and 0.616. According to this confidence interval, it was concluded that the indirect effect of COM on CSR (36%) was significantly different from zero.

Similarly, the indirect effect of each of CVI (50%), BEH (53%), CLT (54%), MSN_DIS (49%) and FND _ LDR (47%) on CSR was significantly different from zero.

### 10.6. Moderating Effects

After reporting the findings for the main effects model of CI and CSR, this section considers the role of organisational size (ORG_SIZE) in the relationship between CI and CSR. A conceptualised structural model demonstrating the moderating role of ORG_SIZE is represented diagrammatically in Figure 10.9.

Figure 10.9 shows the dependent variable (CSR) with the predictor variable (CI) and moderator variable ORG_SIZE. The need to assess the relationships at the higher level of abstraction is to ensure the relevant contribution at the macro/global level. This is recommended by Wilson (2010:627) “in order to remain consistent with theory derivations. It maintains a level of continuity with each original individual
conceptualisation” as third order (CI) and second order (CSR) representations. This was not possible to explore previously owing to the methods available; thus, this provides an initial exploration and original contribution to the CI and CSR literature employing PLS.

**Figure 10.9: Structural Model to be tested**

![Diagram](source: Adopted from Henseler and Fassott (2010:727).)

### 10.6.1. PLS Interactions Approach

To determine the moderating effect of ORG_SIZE on the relationship between CI and CSR, PLS product-indicator approach was employed (Chin *et al.*, 2003). To assess this effect, each item representing the independent/predictor construct (CI) was multiplied with each item representing the moderating construct (ORG_SIZE), creating interaction terms (CI×ORG_SIZE), in order to predict CSR (Chin *et al.*, 2003; Henseler and Fassott, 2010) (See Figure 10.10).

In this case, CI was a hierarchical construct comprising 60 items, and ORG_SIZE was a categorical construct comprising one indicator/item; thus, the interaction construct represented 60 items ($60 \times 1$). This can be easily executed using PLS (Chin, 1998a:332) since PLS is able to explain complex relations. Before developing all the interactions effects, the predictive and moderator variables (CI and ORG_SIZE, respectively) were standardised (Chin *et al.*, 1996; Low and Mohr, 2001; Ping, 1996a, b). This helped to minimise the multicollinearity that developed when creating the product terms (Wilson, 2010). The AVE and $\rho_c$ of this interaction variable were 0.678 and 0.993, respectively, which exceeded the minimum cut-off value.
10.6.2. Interpreting Moderating Effects

Organisational Size (ORG_SIZE) is hypothesised to moderate the relationship between CI and CSR.

To analyse moderating effects, the direct relations of CI (exogenous/independent variable) and ORG_SIZE (moderator variable) (effects b and c in Figure 10.10), in addition to the relation of CI×ORG_SIZE (interaction term) (effect d in Figure 10.10) with CSR (endogenous/predicted variable) were assessed. In this case, ORG_SIZE was a categorical variable described by one indicator; which was considered acceptable as the latent variables just equal to its representative manifest variable (Henseler and Fassott, 2010:725).

Henseler and Fassott (2010:730) note, “The hypothesis on the moderating effect is supported if the path coefficient d is significant regardless of the values of b and c (Baron and Kenny, 1986:1174). This is observed by firstly, testing whether the path coefficient capturing the moderating effect differs significantly from zero, and secondly, assessing the strength of the identified moderating effect”.

In this case, a standardised path coefficient of 0.713 was estimated for the interaction construct (path d), which was not significant at p<0.05 (t =1.96). the significance of the interaction effect is evaluated using a two-tailed test since there is a lack of theoretical support for ORG_SIZE enhancing or diminishing the association between CI and CSR (See Fig 10.11).
Further, “the moderating effect was assessed by comparing the proportion of variance explained (as expressed by the determination coefficient $R^2$) of the main effect model (e.g., the model without moderating effect) with the $R^2$ of the full model (e.g., the model including the moderating effect). This idea also underlies the effect size” (Henseler and Fassott, 2010:730). Drawing on Cohen (1988:410-414), the effect size, $f^2$, was calculated with the following formula:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{model with moderator}} - R^2_{\text{model without moderator}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{model with moderator}}} = \frac{0.462 - 0.424}{1 - 0.462} = 0.0706$$

The effect size ($f^2$) when an interaction is 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 refers to small, moderate, and large respectively (Cohen, 1988), though a small $f^2$ does not essentially mean an irrelevant effect (Henseler and Fassott, 2010). “If there is a likelihood of occurrence for the extreme moderating conditions and the resulting beta changes are meaningful, then it is important to take these situations into account (Limayem et al., 2001:281)”.

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Thus, both the “effect size and significance of interaction terms determine the utility of the interaction model over the main effects model” (Wilson, 2010:638).

The results showed that the size of the moderating effect was small ($f^2 = 0.07 < 0.15$; Cohen 1988) and that the resulting beta changes were insignificant ($\beta = 0.713, t = 1.507$). Consequently, it was concluded that ORG_SIZE did not moderate the relationship between CI and CSR, and thus the hypothesis was rejected (See Figure 10.11). As recommended by Chin (1998a:320), 500 Bootstrapping was employed to estimate the critical ratios used to assess the significance of structural parameter (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993).

10.7. An Evaluation of the PLS model

10.7.1. Power analysis (1-$\beta$)

In order to validate the empirical findings of the PLS analysis, power analysis (1-$\beta$) was conducted. A power test is defined as “the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis ($H_0$), that is, the probability of obtaining a valid result” (Cohen, 1988). Thus, Power (1 - $\beta$) refers to the probability of successfully rejecting a null hypothesis (Baroudi and Orlikowski, 1989; Cohen, 1992). G*Power 3.1.3 (Faul et al., 2009) was used to conduct the power test (post hoc) and to estimate the validity of statistical parameters.

Akter et al. (2010:221) note, “As a convention for behavioural research, a value of 0.80 was used for power (Baroudi and Orlikowski, 1989; Cohen, 1988, 1992). The results showed that the power for all the endogenous constructs/variables in the research model exceeded 0.97, which compellingly exceeds the cut-off value of 0.80 (Baroudi and Orlikowski, 1989; Cohen, 1992)”. [The Power Analysis (1-$\beta$) involved: one tail, Effect Size $f^2 = 0.15$, $\alpha$-error probability=.01, Total Sample Size=126].

10.7.2. Global fit measure (GoF)

A global fit measure for PLS path modelling has been suggested (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). GoF ($0 < GoF < 1$) is defined as “the geometric mean of the average communality and average $R^2$” (for endogenous constructs) (Chin, 2010:681). Wetzels et al. (2010:187) demonstrate that, “Because communality equals AVE in the PLS path modelling approach; a cut-off value of 0.50 for communality was followed, as
suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Moreover, in line with the effect sizes for $R^2$ (small: 0.02; medium: 0.13; large: 0.26) proposed by Cohen (1988), Wetzels et al. (2010) derive the following GoF criteria for small, medium, and large effect sizes of $R^2$ by substituting the minimum average AVE of 0.50 and the effect sizes for $R^2$ in the equation defining GoF:

$$GoF = \sqrt{AVE \times R^2} = \sqrt{0.644 \times 0.599} = 0.62$$

$GoF_{small}=0.1$, $GoF_{medium}=0.25$, and $GoF_{large}=0.36$. These may serve as baseline values for validating the PLS model globally”.

For the complete model (See Table 10.19), the research obtained a GoF value of 0.62, which exceeded the cut-off value of 0.36 for large effect sizes of $R^2$ and allowed the conclusion to be drawn that the model performed well compared to the baseline values defined above (Wetzels et al., 2010).

**Table 10.19: Full Model AVE and R² for Calculating GoF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COM_EXT</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_INT</td>
<td>0.6112</td>
<td>0.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>0.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DM</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MRP</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EID</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_ADC</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_CLN</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HIR</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_DIS</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FND_LDR</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGL_RSP</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC_RSP</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH</td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td>0.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>0.567</td>
<td>0.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.644</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.599</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$GoF = \sqrt{0.644 \times 0.599} = 0.621$
10.8. Summary

Utilising PLS, data analysis-part 2 developed the scale using confirmatory CFA. The analysis (Model 1) revealed a parsimonious CI scale which constitutes six dimensions comprising 60 items. These represented Corporate Communications (10 items); CVI (13 items); Behaviour (11 items); Culture (12 items); Mission Dissemination (6 items), and Founder Leadership (8 items). The composite reliability and construct validity of the scale were verified, thus providing evidence for the psychometric properties of the scale. Likewise, CFA for CSR (Model 2) revealed a two-dimensional construct comprising 8 items; Social Responsibility (5 items) and Legal Responsibility (3 items).

The scale was also applied in a structural model (Model 3) which demonstrated the significant, positive influence of CI on CSR. The analysis also revealed the significant, positive indirect effect of individual CI dimensions on CSR. Further, the moderating effect of organisation size on CI-CSR was insignificant, and consequently, it was concluded that organisation size did not moderate the relationship between CI and CSR.

After analysing the data, the following chapter discusses these findings in the context of the literature and this thesis’ research objectives and questions.
### Table 11.1: The Research Stages

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11.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the quantitative research findings (Chapters 9 and 10) in the context of the literature (Chapters 2 and 3), interviews conducted in first phase (Chapters 5 and 6) and theoretical framework (Chapter Seven) in order to address the research objectives and questions (Chapter One).

As introduced in Chapter One, this thesis is guided by four research questions:

- What is the meaning of CI?
- What are the key dimensions of CI?
- How is CI measured?
- What is the relationship between CI and CSR?

Accordingly, the thesis, through two empirical phases of research, seeks to achieve the following interrelated objectives:

- Provide a clear understanding and a definition of CI.
- Identify the key elements of CI, develop and empirically test a framework and taxonomy of the key elements of CI construct.
- Establish and empirically verify a theoretical framework underpinning CI elements.
- Develop and validate a scale for the CI construct including measures for each of the key elements.
- Gain insights into nature and meaning of CSR and determine its current activities in practice.
- Explore, hypothesise and empirically test the relationship between CI and CSR.

With this in mind, this chapter is structured around this thesis research questions and objectives. Consequently, the first section presents CI definition. This verifies the definition adapted from the literature review (Section 2.2) via empirically validating CI dimensionality (Chapter Ten). Based on the CI definition, the chapter then discusses the key dimensions of CI in the context of relevant literature. The discussion on CI dimensions also involves the dimensions that were assumed to be relevant to the construct but did not validate from the quantitative analysis. Further, discussing the CI domain and dimensions implicitly addresses the CI measurement, given that the measure reveals dimensionality and so is the means to the end. Next, the chapter discusses the relationship between CI and CSR; originally, by demonstrating the nature
of CSR in practice, followed by discussing the influence CI has on CSR. The effect of organisation size is also outlined in the penultimate section of the chapter. Finally, a summary of the main points covered in the chapter are presented. Importantly, this is the first empirical study to ascertain that CI is a multi-dimensional construct including internal and external/ controlled and uncontrolled dimensions, which significantly influences CSR.

11.2. The Meaning of CI

The literature review (Section 2.2) presented the justification for, preliminarily, defining CI. Guided predominantly by the work of Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006), this definition was regarded as providing a platform for developing CI construct. The exploratory phase of research supported Melewar and Karaosmanoglu’s definition and revealed that CI is a multi-dimensional construct encompassing both internal and external aspects of the organisation, which manifest CI and impact the way it is perceived by different stakeholders. Subsequently, the statistical analysis uncovered the construct’s dimensionality. Thus, by incorporating the findings of the quantitative research, CI could be defined as

*The presentation of an organisation to every stakeholder. It is what makes an organisation unique and it incorporates the organisation’s corporate communications, corporate visual identity, behaviour, culture, mission dissemination and founder leadership. It is thus intrinsically related to corporate image.*

11.3. The Dimensions of CI:

This thesis seeks to identify the key dimensions of CI construct. To achieve this research objective, the Literature Review, Chapter Two (Section 2.6), provided an initial CI framework based on Melewar (2003), which comprised five dimensions. The findings from the first phase of research supported the relevance of corporate communications, corporate visual identity (CVI), behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder. Although there were mixed results regarding the importance of the organisation founder element, the decision was taken to retain it for further investigations (See Section 6.6.2). Further, the findings revealed mixed results concerning organisational structure, corporate history and country of origin, while denied sub-cultures as key elements of CI; hence, these elements were not included in the second phase of research.
Notably, the findings revealed a different categorisation of CI dimensions and subdimensions. For example, controlled corporate communications consisted of internal and external communication instead of marketing, management and organisational communication; uncontrolled communication consisted only of WOM; CVI included consistency, as a new emergent dimension, in addition to the established dimensions of corporate visual identity system (CVIS) and applications of CVIS; culture consisted of values as a sole component; and mission statement and organisation founder were considered dimensions in their own right, rather than sub-dimensions of culture.

This resulted in a revised CI framework and taxonomy (See Figure 6.4b), which was investigated in the second phase of the research. The statistical analysis in Chapters 9 and 10 outlined how CI is a multi-dimensional construct made manifest via six dimensions (See Figure 11.1). These dimensions will now be discussed in the context of the literature.

**Figure 11.1: Validated CI Taxonomy and Key Elements**
Note: The dimensions in Figure 11.1 are not displayed according to their relative importance to the CI construct in order to maintain consistency throughout the thesis. The importance of the dimensions is as follows: culture (adhocracy, clan, hierarchy); behaviour (employee identification, management representation), mission dissemination; CVI (development and management, design, consistency); founder leadership and corporate communications (external, WOM, internal) (See Section 10.2.3).

11.3.1. Corporate Communications

The corporate communications dimension emerged from the data, which included three sub-dimensions representing external, internal and WOM communication (Sections 9.3.1.2.2 and 10.2.3). The content of this dimension supports the label of ‘corporate communications’, which comprises controlled and uncontrolled communication.

The theoretical origin of the corporate communications dimension was grounded in the corporate communications literature (Van Riel, 1995) and CI (Melewar, 2003; Melewar et al., 2005a, 2005b). Notable, the interdisciplinary perspective that encompassed three elements; symbolism, communication and behaviour (Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) provided the foundation for this thesis. Accordingly, the communication related dimension materialised from the findings supports the multidisciplinary perspective adopted in this thesis and provides interdisciplinary direction for subsequent CI research.

The emergence of the corporate communications dimension supports the view that communication is important in manifesting CI (Hawabhay et al., 2009; Melewar et al., 2006; Simoes et al., 2005, Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). It also reinforces the view that the communication dimension of CI encompasses both controlled and uncontrolled communication (Balmer, 1995; Comelissen, 2000; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karapsmanoglu, 2006; Stuart, 1999b).

From a broad perspective, this finding appears to challenge the view that corporate communications is divided into marketing, management and organisational communication (Melewar et al., 2005a, 2005b; Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007). Conversely, it adds credence to the body of literature which outlines communication in terms of internal versus external communication (Dowling 1986; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997; Stuart 1998). Consequently, this finding provides support for the
qualitative findings and a revised CI taxonomy regarding the structure of the corporate communications dimension of CI.

With respect to the internal communication sub-dimension, various research studies noted the importance of internal communication directed to organisation staff while developing CI. For instance, Zinkhan and colleagues (2001) indicate that strategic management of corporate image involves organisational planned dimensions, while Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) also point to these controllable aspects and view internal and external communication as able to conveyed CI. They outlined how internal communication can be more controllable than external communication, e.g., the media. Simoes et al. (2005) explain how internal communication facilitates employees’ adherence with corporate goals and fosters consistent behaviours among employees which in turn helps ensure that a strong and positive CI is communicated to external audiences. Consequently, the emergence of an internal communication sub-dimension in the final scale was expected due to the importance of considering various stakeholder groups (internal and external) in order to maintain a balanced approach to CI (De Chernatony et al., 2003; Harris and De Chernatony, 2001; Melewar et al., 2005b; Simoes et al., 2005).

A WOM sub-dimension materialised from the data, which confirms the view that uncontrolled communication is an important aspect of the CI construct (Cornelissen, 2000; Dacin and Brown, 2002; Duhan et al., 1997). In CI literature, WOM was only addressed from an external perspective; studies were oriented towards demonstrating the influence WOM has on the receiver, particularly consumers, and image formation (e.g., De Matos and Rosi, 2008; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Mazzarol et al., 2007; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Selnes, 1993).

In a different manner, this thesis examined WOM from an internal perspective proposing WOM activity as part of CI. This was based on Ennew et al.’s (2000) and Haywood’s (1989) work, which it was assumed could be pertinent to the CI construct (Section 7.4.1). Consequently, the emergence of this sub-dimension indicates that managers consider WOM an important communication element in shaping CI. Hence, this finding provides support for this thesis view which contributes to CI domain.
Further, this finding reinforces Abrat and Kelyn’s (2012) view that managing corporate and brand identity is a double-sided process which does not only entail managing and shaping the presentation of the brand, but also reacting to the images developed from such presentation in stakeholders’ minds. This places an emphasis on managing WOM and virtual communication channels, which facilitate sharing consumers’ feelings and experiences and is crucial in corporate image creation. This also could be consistent with the development of a customer focused approach to market.

Thus, the materialization of a corporate communications dimension corroborates the view that communications (controlled and uncontrolled) is a key dimension and crucial for CI. Accordingly, while developing CI, it is important that senior management responsible for corporate communications realise the points of strength and weakness associated with different communication tools, including new virtual communication channels. Effective coordination of advertising, sales promotion, public relations, internal publications, online communication, etc, will enable the company to convey a consistent message about its identity to its internal and external stakeholders and diffuse the desired CI more effectively.

11.3.2. Corporate Visual Identity

A dimension that contained three CVI sub-dimensions emerged from the analysis (Sections 9.3.1.2.2 and 10.2.2).

Similar to the corporate communications dimension, the theoretical origin of the CVI dimension was grounded in corporate communications theory. In addition, the visual-oriented dimension revealed from the findings supports the multidisciplinary perspective adopted in the thesis and provides an interdisciplinary direction for subsequent CI research.

The first sub-dimension consisted of Corporate Visual Identity items and was labelled CVI_DG. The revealed importance of this sub-dimension of CI agrees with the opinion that corporate visual expressions, e.g., name, typeface etc, have a crucial function in creating CI. This finding corroborates the view of various scholars. For instance, Olins (1989) states that an organisation's symbolism conveys cues about its goals whilst Schmitt et al. (1995) note how organisations use symbols to identify themselves to their stakeholders to increase their recognition in the market place and to distinguish
themselves from their competitors. Similarly, this finding substantiates the work of several CI scholars which empirically demonstrates symbolism as a key element of the CI construct (e.g., Melewar and Jenkins, 2002; Simoes et al., 2005).

The second sub-dimension, which was termed CVI Development and Management, pertains to the operational level of CVI (Van den Bosch et al., 2006b). This factor keeps the initial features which relates to the development and management of CVI, albeit with a reduced number of items. CVI Development and Management represent a ‘hard’ aspect of identity (Morison, 1997) and is likely to be the most practical dimension of the CI construct. For example, ‘Our organisation has formal guidelines for the brand/visual elements’ and ‘The guidelines for our corporate visual identity are updated regularly’ represent specific actions which maintain consistency for CI. This factor supports the idea that visual identity is an essential dimension of CI (Carter, 1982; Melewar and Saunders, 1998; Olins, 1991) and its implementation is thus crucial. The emergence of a CVI implementation oriented sub-dimension supports CI scholars (Simoes et al., 2005; Van den Bosch et al., 2004) who outlined the important of having CVI guidelines that are up to date and accessible for all employees.

The third sub-dimension, CVI consistency, also pertains to the operational level of visual identity by Van den Bosch et al. (2006b). The materialisation of this sub-dimension supports the prevailing view that consistency constitutes an integral part of CI. For example, Schmitt et al. (1995), and Schmitt and Simonson (1997) point out that when symbolic manifestations of an organisation are well-designed and consistently applied, they may enhance the appeal of a company as well as its products and services, and hence customer loyalty. Melewar and Saunders (1999) emphasise that standardised visual identification also plays a role in a company's success in the global context. This finding is also consistent with the few empirical studies which are found to offer some insights on this level, highlighting the importance of consistency in CI expression (e.g., Melewar et al., 2000; Melewar and Saunders, 2000; Simoes et al., 2005; Van den Bosch et al., 2006b).

Therefore, the results confirm that CVI is crucial dimension for developing CI. The results are also in line with CI literature which outlines the importance that senior management give considerable attention to corporate visual expressions (e.g., name, slogan, font) in order to attain a visible and distinguishable CI. Moreover, it is important
for organisational managers to take decisions which urge and motivate employees to follow the CVI guidelines of an organisation. This results in a consistent set of visual presentations that conveys the essence of a company.

11.3.3. Behaviour

The previous chapters (Sections 9.3.1.2.3 and 10.2.2) empirically demonstrate the significance of behaviour as a key dimension of CI. The behaviour dimension encompassed two sub-dimensions related to management and employee behaviour, namely: Management Representation and Employee Identification, which were both relevant to CI construct.

Similar to the corporate communications and CVI dimensions, the materialization of the behaviour dimension supports the multidisciplinary perspective adopted in the thesis and provides interdisciplinary direction for subsequent CI research.

In respect of management behaviour, empirically, this sub-dimension included representational leadership items that validated from the analysis, and involved managers’ activities with visitors and outside meetings, notably a public relations role; to act as spokesperson and publicise the activities of the organisation. From a theoretical perspective, this dimension was grounded in leadership literature; where the Theoretical Framework, Chapter Seven (Section 7.4.4.), outlined the logic for employing Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) guided by the behavioural leadership theory to measure management behaviour. The main reason is that top managers are leaders responsible for representing and promoting attractive organisational images to different stakeholders (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Hill and Jones, 1992; Pfeffer, 1981; Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2006). Therefore, the validation of this leadership related dimension supports the theoretical framework proposed in this thesis and the multidisciplinary perspective adopted, which could be extended to include leadership, and provides interdisciplinary direction for subsequent CI research.

Although the relevant literature did not highlight representational leadership initiatives as a dimension of CI construct, the operationalisation of this sub-dimension emphasises and ensures the fundamental role managers play in developing CI, as explained in the Theoretical Framework chapter (e.g., Argenti, 1998; Hunt and Grunig, 1994; Melewar,
Thus, the validation of this sub-dimension presents empirical evidence for these scholars’ views, which is considered a novel contribution presented by this thesis.

The finding also revealed the significance of employee behaviour, representing employee identification with their organisation, to the CI construct. This sub-dimension consisted of five organisational identification items constituting both cognitive and affective components, and one corporate behaviour item related to treating employees well, which was not anticipated.

From a broader perspective, the emergence of the employee behaviour sub-dimension confirms the fundamental role employees play in conveying CI (Harris and De Chernatony, 2001; Kennedy, 1977; Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006).

The theoretical origin of the employee behaviour sub-dimension was grounded in social identity and organisational identification theory and not CI literature. The emergence of cognitive and affective components reaffirms the importance of both components in the measurement of organisational identification (Brown et al., 1986, 2011; Doosje et al., 1995; Smidts et al., 2001). Importantly, the affective component included agrees with the view of several authors who highlighted the importance of emotional binding with the organisation in the construction of a positive self-identity (Ellemers et al., 1999; Johnson and Chang, 2008; Smidts et al., 2001; Swan et al., 2009).

Of particular note was how this thesis, given its marketing orientation, drew on the organisational identification scale to measure employee behaviour. Therefore, validating employee behaviour sub-dimension with its organisational identification related content reinforces the view that organisational identification could be applicable to the context of CI, as argued by Van Riel and Fombrun (2007). This is based on the premise that the behaviour of personnel has a direct effect on an organisation's CI and image (Kennedy, 1977). The increasing importance of human resource initiatives in building CI drives the need to establish strong cross functional linkages between marketing and human resources departments.

Importantly, this finding provides empirical support for the theoretical framework proposed in this thesis, and more importantly, for the assumed relationship between CI
and organisational identity (OI), whereby CI is supposed to constitute OI (Section 2.3). Nevertheless, this position contests the views that OI and CI overlap and/or are not related at all, which were presented by Balmer (2001a) as possible alternatives for explaining the relationship between CI and OI.

Therefore, the findings provide credibility to the CI literature, which outlined the importance of top managers and employees when building CI. The validation of the behaviour dimension emphasises the importance of considering managers’ distinctive representational and leadership skills in shaping CI in order to develop the desired image, particularly for UK food and beverage companies. In addition, the emergence of employee behaviour with organisational identification highlights the need for organisational managers to consider employee pride, loyalty and commitment, be aware of internal corporate image which all have an impact on employees’ organisational identification, and also understand the importance of organisation personnel in manifesting their CI.

**11.3.4. Culture**

A dimension that contained only three culture types emerged from the analysis (Sections 9.3.1.2.4 and 10.2.2). Thus, the findings did not support the four-factor structure of the competing value framework (CVF). This was first indicated by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmed using SEM. This finding is consistent with Helfrich et al. (2007) who outlines (using data from 71,776 non-supervisory employees in USA) how EFA revealed two factors, comprising the ten items from the entrepreneurial, team, and rational subscales loading on the first factor, and two items from the hierarchical subscale loading on the second factor, along with one item from the rational subscale that cross-loaded on both factors. In the same study, this finding was further supported by outcomes from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) suggesting that the two-subscale solution provided a more parsimonious fit to the data in comparison with the original model with its four-subscales.

In this thesis, based on the analysis, a marketing-type sub-dimension did not dominate from the findings. While this might indicate that a marketing-type culture is not a sub-dimension of CI, it is important to note that from the final twelve-item scale of culture, two items represented the market-type culture. In particular, the adhocracy sub-
dimension encompassed the glue and emphasis items of the marketing-type culture subscale.

Empirically, the three sub-dimensions of culture constituted two incongruent cultures (indicated by culture attributes inconsistent with a single type of culture) and one congruent culture (indicated by dominant characteristics consistent with one another) (Cameron and Freeman, 1991). This proves the underpinning assumption of the CVF which is that the four quadrants are ideals (Henri, 2006; McDermott and Stock, 1999). Organisations never show just one kind of culture; however, every organisation will manifest a mix of various kinds of cultures, even though one kind will dominate over the others (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991; Zu et al., 2010).

The cultural profile of food and beverage companies in UK indicated three dominant types of culture: adhocracy, hierarchy and clan. The adhocracy sub-dimension included three items of dynamic culture, e.g., entrepreneurial workplace, visionary innovative and risk-oriented management, and emphasis on achieving a leading position in new knowledge. In addition, this sub-dimension included two items of results-oriented workplace, e.g., emphasis on winning and long-term concern with achieving stretch goals and targets. On this point, two issues need to be considered. First, the finding shows empirical evidence of organisations simultaneously emphasising multiple effectiveness criteria. This is considered possible given the paradox inherent in the CVF, which is considered a great strength of the framework, as argued by several authors (Quinn, 1988; Quinn and Kimberly, 1984; Quinn and McGrath, 1985). Similar to these results, Kalliath et al. (1999) proved a positive correlation between the sub-dimensions open systems (adhocracy) and rational goal (market) values, based on a sample of 300 hospital executives in the USA.

Second, the findings reveal that adhocracy culture is the strongest culture type in UK companies operating in the food and beverage sector. There are a number of explanations for this finding. For example, Cameron and Quinn (2006) specify that the earliest stages of a company’s life cycle tend to be dominated by adhocracy culture, because they are without formal structure and characterised by entrepreneurship and led by a single, powerful, visionary leader. This could be the reason why adhocracy culture has emerged in this data set; given that almost 50% of companies involved in this survey are small and medium-sized companies (SMEs).
Furthermore, the UK environment is characterised by low power distance and small uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), which make the demands of the situation the main drivers. In other words, dependence on powerful supervisors and rules are supposed to be unnecessary for managers to act. This is consistent with adhocracy and market cultures which focus on flexibility, discretion, and dynamism. In turn, this helps some organisations to operate effectively by changing and adapting to the external environment.

Nevertheless, clan and hierarchy cultures are considered important for UK food and beverage companies, which mean that some companies within this industry are focused on smooth running organisation with a formalised and structured workplace, teamwork and employee development.

The emergence of the clan culture sub-dimension could be explained by the fact that all respondents in this survey were managers, and such individuals usually rate clan culture higher than other employees (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). The hierarchy sub-dimension is represented by an organiser manager, formalised structural place with established procedures, together with formal rules and policies. Indeed, formal rules and polices help organisational managers to ‘stay within the laws’, which is considered one of the most important perceived goals of successful business leaders in the UK, as argued by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:263). Hierarchy culture also has some resemblance to the historic individualism and related capitalism and human rights ideology inherited in UK culture. This leads to utilitarian organisations with corporate governance based on enlightened self-interest, where the distribution of power is formalised in a hierarchy (Hofstede, 1980).

Although only three factors of CVF were supported in this thesis, this part of the research gives a strong indication that organisational culture does shape CI. Accordingly, considering organisational culture as a dimension of its respective construct is in agreement with the identity literature (e.g., De Chernatony, 2006; Kapferer, 2008; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997). The findings also reveal insights into the culture profile of UK companies operating in food and beverage industry, where adhocracy, clan and hierarchy are the dominant types. Of particular concern is the importance of shared values of national culture and their impact on shared practices in organisational cultures.
As this is the first research that uses the CVF by Cameron and Quinn (1999) for organisational culture assessment in the context of CI, it is difficult to find similar studies. Therefore, these findings may augment the literature on CI and the UK food and beverage industry.

11.3.5. Mission Dissemination

The mission statement dimension emerged from the data which expresses the importance of mission and values dissemination and embodies the presents the strategic perspective advocated in the literature. This supports several scholars’ view who emphasise the importance of considering strategy when developing CI (e.g., Balmer 1994; Olins 1991; Simoes et al., 2005), as highlighted in the Theoretical Framework, Chapter Seven (Section 7.4.5).

The mission statement dimension involves the internal diffusion of the sense of purpose of the corporation, that is, it cascades the company’s philosophy down to employees so that they can become committed to organisational goals. Items such as ‘There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units’, ‘The company’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees’ and ‘Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees’ convey the cohesiveness of a business unit (Simoes et al., 2005). Cohesiveness leads to the development of consistent behaviours among employees. Moreover, the item, ‘Company’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees’, emphasises the reinforcement of consistent behaviour. The specific mention of managers sharing a corporate mission underscores the key role they play in living and personifying their company’s mission. This dimension also highlights employees ‘embodiment’ within the organisation, which shows how employees are core to CI, and employee involvement should thus be part of the CI construct, as argued by Simoes et al. (2005).

By embracing the diffusion of mission and values and involving employees in the process, this dimension establishes a point of contact with the organisational studies and organisational identification perspective. This point of view maintains that CI may be manifested through shared organisational values and principles, mission and organisational climates (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Similar to the findings of employee behaviour (Section 11.3.3), this supports the position adopted in this thesis regarding the relationship between CI and OI, where the latter is part of the former.
Thus, dissemination of mission and values, albeit conveyed via a simplified number of items, represents a solid facet of the CI construct. Importantly, the findings replicate and extend the applicability of the scale ‘mission and value dissemination’ presented by Simoes et al. (2005) to the manufacturing sector, particularly the UK food and beverage industry.

**11.3.6. Founder Leadership**

The previous chapters (Sections 9.3.1.2.6 and 10.2.3) highlighted how the transformational leadership of organisation founder is a key dimension of the CI construct.

Although the findings from the first phase of research revealed mixed results regarding the importance of the organisation founder for developing CI, a decision was taken to include this dimension as a key element in the revised CI framework, as justified previously (Section 6.6.2). Accordingly, the second phase was formulated in order to assess the importance of value-based organisation founder to the CI construct and investigate the founder’s impact on CSR.

Interestingly, the findings of the second phase confirmed the significance of the transformational leadership role of founder for the CI construct. This might be due to the fact that almost 50% of companies involved in the survey were SMEs, as corporate brands are closely associated with their founders (Brexendorf and Kernstock, 2007). This is consistent with the view of several organisational behaviour scholars, such as Pettigrew who explains that, in new organisations, founders greatly influence corporate culture, whilst Schein (1985) notes different ways in which founder leaders can influence organisational culture, e.g., through their attention; reactions and responses to crises and critical events; behaviour as role models; formal and informal rewards and recognitions; formal statements of organisational philosophy and values.

The empirical analysis validated the leader founder dimension which formed of transformational leadership items. The Theoretical Framework, Chapter Seven (Section 7.4.4) explained the reasons for utilising Bass’s (1990, 1996) instrument of transformational leadership to measure organisation founder. The items were adapted to measure the continuing role of founders, taking into consideration that due to merger and acquisition (M&A), time, founders’ stepping down or death, etc, the founders might
no longer exist, even though their principles could still be prevailing. The scale also included two more items to measure whether the founder ‘used to be’ or ‘continues to be’ an important part of CI.

The appearance of a leadership founder dimension is consistent with a number of CI researchers who recurrently allude to founders in discussions of the definition and expression of CI (Balmer, 2001a; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Olins, 1978). According to Balmer (2001a), founders play an important part in determining the identity wished for by the company as they express the organisational vision. Olins (1978) contends that new firms reflect their founder’s characteristics. In a similar vein, Kimberly and Bouchikhi (1995) assert that the founding phase is crucial in the identification of identity formation, due to founders transferring their own values and beliefs to the company. According to Hall et al. (2004), the founders’ values become the essence of the company’s identity and could persist until long after their demise.

Importantly, the finding seems to be in line with Burmann and Zeplin (2005) who argue that transformational leadership tends to be important to development of corporate brand. This is because transformational leaders influence employees’ value-system and identification which is assumed to promote brand commitment.

Although the literature on CI did not identify transformational leadership as a dimension of CI, the measuring scale of this dimension confirms the relevance of value based leaders in shaping CI, as recently reported by Hillestad et al. (2010). Consequently, there is a great need for aligning marketing and leadership literatures, which reinforces the multidisciplinary approach adopted in this thesis and the view of several scholars (Balmer, 2008; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Simoes et al., 2005).

Therefore, this finding confirms the literature on CI that outlined the importance of founders, through transformational leadership, when building CI. In addition, the validation of this dimension emphasises that organisational managers in the UK food and beverage manufacturing industry need to develop an emotional connection with employees while building their CI. This could be achieved through the creation of a value-based culture in order to influence employees’ belief and behaviour.
11.4. Discarded Elements of CI

The previous discussion identified six dimensions, which constitute the domain of CI construct. However, one sub-dimension, particularly, ‘corporate behaviour’, did not emerge from the quantitative data analysis.

11.4.1. Corporate Behaviour

The findings from CFA conducted (Section 10.2.3) indicated that corporate behaviour, a sub-dimension of the behaviour dimension, unexpectedly did not materialise from the data. This position contradicts the findings from the qualitative phase of research, and is also inconsistent with the view of various scholars that corporate behaviour is important in manifesting CI (Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Davis et al., 2005). Thus, this finding was not anticipated, given the importance of corporate behaviour towards social issues in creating favourable stakeholder attributions about the corporation’s activities and its impact on perceived identity, corporate image (e.g., Brown and Dacin, 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

However, to consider corporate behaviour as irrelevant to CI seems to be a superficial understanding of the findings. A more enlightened explanation may view corporate behaviour as a consequence of CI, rather than a key element of CI construct.

Previous research on CI conceptualises corporate behaviour in terms of corporate responsibility towards social issues and considers it as a sub-dimension of its respective construct (Melewar et al., 2005b; Melewar and Jenkins, 2000; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006). This position contradicts with other literature where corporate social obligation or behaviour is regarded as a consequence, in contrast to a dimension of CI construct. For instance, several authors (e.g., Einwiller et al., 2010; Einwiller and Will, 2002; Walsh et al., 2009) outlined how corporate social and environmental responsibility is a cognitive dimension of the corporate reputation construct, with the latter being considered a consequence of CI (Walker, 2010). Moreover, Barnett et al. (2006:34) included corporate social impact as a constituent of corporate reputation, which the authors defined as “observer collective judgements of a corporation based on assessments of the financial, social, and environmental impacts attributed to the corporate over time”.

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Accordingly, the main explanation for this apparently contradictory finding could be due to confusion between CI and corporate reputation, which is explicitly noted by several authors (e.g., Barnett et al., 2006; Walker, 2010) and addressed in the literature review (Section 2.3). This could be doubled by the lack of empirical studies and nonexistence of comprehensive scale for CI construct.

Another point to be noted is that one of the items of the corporate behaviour sub-dimension ‘Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates’ was referred to, although indirectly, in the scale of CSR construct, where CSR is based on Maignan and Ferrell’s (1999) corporate citizenship measure. This could serve to reinforce the idea that CI does not constitute social behaviour sub-dimension.

Thus, it was suitable to consider corporate behaviour towards social issues as a consequence of CI and therefore is possibly included in the nomological network of CI construct (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955).

Although the corporate behaviour sub-dimension did not materialise as a dimension of CI, the notion of stakeholder management is still relevant to CI. CI is formed in the mirror of different stakeholders’ perceptions. Accordingly, CI, based on the concept of stakeholder management, takes a pragmatic stand that focuses on the interests of various stakeholders who are considered contributors to the firm (Balmer et al., 2007). Therefore, executives have an ethical responsibility (and an enlightened self-interest) in managing corporate activities to achieve an appropriate balance among the demands of different audiences (Balmer et al. 2007; Hay and Gray, 1974).

11.5. The Nature of CSR

This thesis sought to gain insights into the nature of CSR; understand its meaning and determine its practices, which helps in explaining the relationship between CI and CSR.

To achieve this research objective, the literature review (Section 3.2) initially considered CSR as “the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time”, adopted from Carroll’s (1991), which was further investigated. The exploratory findings in the first phase of research supported the four-part definition. Subsequently, the quantitative analysis chapters
outlined how CSR was a multi-dimensional construct made manifest via two dimensions. These were legal and social responsibilities.

Figure 11.2: Validated CSR Dimensions

While the findings did not support the four-part structure of the definition, two points should be noted. First, CSR items emerging from the analysis represent the four types of responsibilities, although they are not allocated among four dimensions. Second, the resulting CSR scale constitutes responsibilities towards the three stakeholder groups specified by the original scale (Maignan et al., 1999; Maignan & Ferrel, 2000; 2001). Accordingly, it could still be appropriate to define CSR as the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities of organisations towards the society (e.g., corporate customers, employees and public) at a given point in time.

The first dimension that emerged from the analysis, legal responsibility, consisted of three items mainly concerning legal issues. This factor refers to organisational commitment to meet legal standards in product quality and to conform to rules controlling employment and personnel benefits. The analysis also revealed a new dimension, social responsibility, consisted of four items concerning the four types of responsibilities. As the title indicates, this factor refers to initiatives toward multiple stakeholders, notably to 1) customers, by considering their satisfaction as an indicator of business performance; 2) employees, by supporting their additional education and integrating fairness towards co-workers in employee evaluation process; 3) the community, by monitoring the negative effects of business activities on its community, and finally 4) the environment, by being aware of important environmental rules. The validated measure of this dimension reaffirms the fundamental value of customers, personnel, community and environment as primary stakeholders of organisations (Bazin and Ballet, 2004; Berman et al., 1999; Clarkson, 1995), particularly in the UK food and beverage industry. This indicates the validity of stakeholder management theory in
explaining CSR (Dahlsrud, 2008; Donaldson and Preston 1995; Ferrell et al., 2010; Maignan et al., 1999).

The finding is also consistent with Carroll’s (1991) argument that maximising shareholder value and CSR reinforce each other rather than conflicting with each other. Thus, the creation of shareholder wealth is necessary for CSR. This corresponds to the view of several scholars (e.g., Barnett, 2007; Fassin, 2010; Maignan et al., 1999) which indicates that shareholder wealth is vital for CSR, and that CSR in turn results in shareholder value.

Consequently, the structure of the CSR construct highlights how senior managers responsible for developing CSR programs need to have a broad understanding of the nature of CSR which encompasses economic, legal, ethical and philanthropy responsibilities. Also, organisation managers would be wise to employ a pragmatic perspective, and appreciate the significance of achieving profit as a prerequisite for CSR. At the same time, managers need to develop a stakeholder management approach which considers the relevance of different corporate audiences in CSR programs and decision making process.

11.6. The Relationship between CI and CSR

This thesis seeks to explore the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR; how CI elements affect business commitment to CSR practices/how elements of CI interact with and contribute to CSR. The findings of the first phase of research revealed that CI was a determinant of CSR. CI dimensions (controlled communications, behaviour, culture, mission statement and organisation founder) were highly related to CSR and derived its adoption and implementation. Based on the exploratory findings and supported by the literature, the Theoretical Framework Chapter (Section 7.6) hypothesised:

**H1: CI has a positive and significant influence on CSR**

As the Data Analysis Chapter (Section 10.4) indicated, CI holistically, through the bundling effect of its key dimensions, positively and significantly influences CSR initiatives in UK food and beverage companies. Consequently, the CI-CSR hypothesis was supported. No prior literature has detailed the positive effect of that CI on CSR. Hence, the thesis, through this finding, makes a novel contribution to knowledge.
Basically, the findings are consistent with expectations of the sensemaking process (Basu and Palazzo, 2008) which argues that organisational character (e.g., the way it goes about making sense of its world) and identity orientation (e.g., individualistic, rational or collectivistic) influences the way organisations interact with its audiences and the public at large (Brickson, 2007). The framework of this interaction and relationship, in turn, is argued to define the kind of organisational actions comprising CSR related initiatives.

Consequently, analysing CSR should entail a deeper examination of organisational character rather than concentrating mainly on the content of CSR actions. Moreover, the CSR actions organisations engage in, appreciating organisational character and identity could help predict an organisation’s future CSR course of action, particularly in the case of external or internal environmental change.

Following on from this, the focus shifts to examining a series of indirect relationships between dimensions of CI; corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission dissemination and founder leadership and CSR, which all showed positive and significant indirect effects on CSR.

However, it is not feasible to discuss the findings of this section entirely in terms of a prior body of knowledge, as was done in the earlier sections of this chapter regarding the dimensions of CI construct. The only peripherally associated literature concerns culture, mission statement and founder, where the positive influence each dimension individually has on CSR has already been established. Hence, it is hoped these findings will represent both a starting-point and a reference for later research on CI-CSR.

The following sub-section discusses the findings of the indirect relationship between CI dimensions (corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, mission dissemination and founder leadership) and CSR (See Figure 11.3).
11.6.1. Corporate Communications and CSR

The findings show that the corporate communications dimension, encompassing external, internal and WOM communication, has a significant and positive influence on CSR practices. As explained previously (Section 11.3.3), this dimension captures items of controlled and uncontrolled communication.

The emergence of this indirect relationship reinforces the idea that communication is considered a fundamental issue in addressing CSR and stakeholder relationships in organisations (Ligeti and Oravec, 2009; Uusi-Rauva and Nurkka, 2010), and indicates the importance of communication in determining CSR practices. Despite the fact that communication is not frequently regarded as a vital link in the adoption of CSR (Clark, 2000; Dawkins, 2005; Juholin, 2004), this finding elucidates the role communications play in influencing CSR. This finding also provides support for this
thesis argument regarding the importance of companies maintaining symmetric two-way communication based on stakeholder involvement strategy, as companies should continuously inform and respond to stakeholder needs. This view is in line with various scholars who outline the need to move away from the one-way communication strategy where the company has the sole intention of convincing its stakeholders of its attractiveness (Mazzie 2010; Morsing et al., 2008; Morsing and Schultz, 2006; Nielsen and Thomsen, 2009; Uusi-Rauva and Nurkka, 2010).

Of particular note is how the two-way communication mechanism is considered a method of supporting corporate actions and identity, as argued by Morsing and Schultz (2006:328). Effective two-way communication increases both stakeholders’ awareness of corporate activities and organisational knowledge of stakeholders’ needs. Subsequently, the way an organisation responds to these needs conveys corporate motives and identity, which in turn reduces/increases stakeholders’ scepticism and influences corporate image and reputation. This reinforces the view that CI is strategic resource and valuable tool for addressing the needs and demands of firms’ stakeholders (Balmer et al., 2007; Fukukawa et al., 2007; Van Riel, 1995). Accordingly, this finding reflects the salience of corporate communications which spans the CI and CSR literature streams.

In respect to internal communication, this finding is consistent with this thesis’ expectation that communication directed to employees influences CSR initiatives. This was based on the premise that effective internal communication enhances employees’ awareness of organisational values and objectives. In addition, engaging employees’ in a dialogue (through two-way communication using a push and pull communication strategy) increases their sense of belonging and identification, which in turn influences corporate CSR. This reinforces the view that internal communication is needed to promote awareness of organisational goals, commitment and sense of belonging to the organisation in order to develop and maintain employee engagement (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009; Shuck et al., 2011; Welch, 2011; Welch and Jackson, 2007). This is believed to have a positive impact on extra-role behaviour, e.g., corporate citizenship and CSR (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003).

By considering internal communication, the view of the CI-CSR relationship taken in this thesis answers the call from the literature for viewing employee communication through a
stakeholder lens (Collier and Esteban, 2007; Dawkins, 2005; Uusi-Rauva and Nurkka, 2010).

With different stakeholder (external and internal) initiatives playing an important part in building the CI-CSR relationship, it is increasingly important to develop cross-functional ties across corporate communications or public affairs, marketing, human resources and investor relations. This is consistent with the view of generating cross-functional involvement in managing corporate responsibility (Dawkins, 2004).

Interestingly, the findings highlight the importance of uncontrolled communication influencing CSR practices. This relationship has not been addressed in the theoretical framework (which was based on the qualitative findings) since interviewees did not refer to the relationship between WOM and CSR. However, it does make sense, since companies can proactively use social media to engage with consumers and other stakeholder groups in a dialogue which is seen central in order for the company to understand and adapt to stakeholder concerns and get their positive support. The link between uncontrolled communication and CSR has been highlighted in the literature, for example, Du et al. (2010) note that consumer WOM can act as an informal though very truthful channel of CSR communication due to the popularity and diffusion of online media communication, e.g., chat rooms, social media sites, and blogs. In this sense, a corporation can effectively disseminate information about its CSR activities, but also engage consumers in spreading the message about these activities and, essentially, corporate engagement in these activities.

Thus, the emergence of an indirect relationship between communication and CSR reaffirms the strategic role communication plays in CSR. Therefore, it can be argued that when implementing communication strategies in the UK food and beverage industry, companies should consider different external and internal controlled and uncontrolled communication channels in order to reach various stakeholder groups. Additionally, it is essential to assure that organisation staff are one of the targeted stakeholder groups in corporate communications about CSR initiatives (whilst ensuring the overall consistency of corporate message). Organisational managers would be wise to adopt two-way communication which becomes increasingly important for ensuring that a company stays in tune with changing stakeholder expectations. Managers should also focus on using uncontrolled information sources (Facebook, Twitter, blogs, etc) to
trigger information flow among the company and different stakeholder groups as a communication strategy which can influence CSR activities.

11.6.2. Corporate Visual Identity and CSR

In a similar manner to WOM initiatives, the indirect relationship between visual identity and CSR was an original link to reveal from the analysis that was not considered in the theoretical framework, or anticipated. As this is the first research outlining the positive influence visual identity has on CSR in the context of CI, it is difficult to find similar studies. Therefore, these findings may augment the literature on CI and the UK food and beverage industry.

11.6.3. Behaviour and CSR

The finding shows that the behaviour dimension, encompassing management representational role and employee identification with the organisation, has a significant and positive influence on CSR practices. As explained (Section 11.3.3), this dimension encapsulates items of representational leadership and organisational identification.

This finding indicates the importance of representational leadership of senior managers for shaping CI and determining CSR practices. It has been argued that top management could be a driver of CSR, for example, Trevino et al. (2003) argue that top managers define a company’s ethical tone, while Ramus (2001) claims that management commitment is crucial for CSR implementation. Although the literature did not identify representational leadership behaviour as a determinant of CSR, this sub-dimension elucidates the representational role senior managers play, as part of CI, in influencing CSR. This provides support for Basu and Palazzos’ (2008) work, which suggests that the linguistic and posture styles of representative managers reveal how they think, discuss and prepare to act out their perceived role towards others. This in turn, based on the sensemaking process, influences the type of CSR activities managers and organisations actually engage in over time. Consequently, the salience of this representational leadership sub-dimension spans CI and CSR literature streams.

With respect to employee behaviour, this finding is consistent with this thesis’s expectation that employee organisation identification influences CSR initiatives. This was based on the premise that, generally, employees’ involvement in corporate social and environmental activities is voluntary, and not included in formal job descriptions or
incentive structures (Boiral, 2009; Macey and Schneider, 2008). Employee engagement in voluntary actions is stimulated when they recognize areas of similarity in objectives and beliefs (Van Knippenberg and Ellemers, 2003; Haslam, 2004; Johnson and Ashforth, 2008) and become more identified with their organisation.

This position reinforces the view that CSR initiatives can be largely understood from employees’ perspective (Kim et al., 2010; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008). However, unlike recent studies which examine the influence of CSR on organisation staff, e.g., performance of sales personnel (Larson et al., 2008), employees’ commitment to the organisation (Brammer et al., 2007; Rupp et al., 2006), employees’ identification with the organisation (Berger et al., 2006; Rodrigo and Arenas, 2008), this thesis addresses the influence employees, an important internal stakeholder, have on CSR initiatives. Interestingly, the findings from both perspectives are similar, which makes sense since employee identification can be seen as a circular process, as argued by Miller et al. (2000).

Consequently, the emergence of this indirect relationship sheds the light on the importance of representational leadership and employee organisational identification as internal institutional determinants of CSR. This highlights how managers, who are responsible for building CI, need to follow a more considered approach in representing their organisations in respect to their involvement with stakeholders and the public. In particular, this relates to determining the appropriate linguistic style and conative style to adopt. Managers should also motivate employees to involve in CSR programmes by e.g., offering release time, incorporating contributions to these activities in job appraisal (De Gilder et al., 2005; Peterson, 2004b) and giving awards (Kim et al., 2010).

11.6.4. Culture and CSR

The finding indicates that organisation culture has a significant and positive indirect impact on CSR. This provides novel empirical evidence for CI literature where culture, a key element of CI, has been conceptualised as a factor contributing to the success of CSR implementation, in the first of its attempts. This finding corroborates the position numerous scholars adopt in studies of CSR and organisational culture (e.g., Crittenden et al., 2011; Galbreath, 2010; Kusku and Zarkada-Fraser, 2004; Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010; Maignan and Ferrell, 2000, 2001; Maon et al., 2010; Ubius and Alas, 2009).
Of particular note is how specific culture types influence organisations enactment of CSR. The findings suggest that adhocracy, clan and hierarchy culture are the fundamental types for UK food and beverage companies to fulfil their CSR initiatives.

Although not directly related, the relationship between adhocracy culture and CSR reinforces the view that organisations with prevailing open systems culture give emphasis to innovation for attaining environmental and social sustainability when implementing CSR. The major assumption underpinning this understanding of CSR is that organisations are positioned and function in the environment, not in isolation from it (Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010; Linnenluecke et al., 2009; Sharma, 2000).

While the emergence of a clan culture in relationship to CSR supports Linnenluecke and Griffiths’ (2010) proposition that organisations with prevailing human relations culture gives emphasis to the development of employees in their pursuit of CSR, this could be translated into CSR practices. In other words, such organisations become accountable for developing and enhancing human skills, and are strong promoters of equal opportunity, diversity of workplace, etc. (Dunphy et al., 2003). They employ an apparently determined corporate ethical stance in respect to aspects such as unfairness, business ethics, and deception.

This supports the view of several scholars outlining that the focus on internal staff development drives organisations to invest in employees capabilities, knowledge and training, environmental health and safety, employees welfare, in addition to fair and socially just practices, in order to obtain a highly skilled, satisfied, committed, and efficient workforce (Daily and Huang, 2001; Dunphy et al., 2003; Wilkinson et al., 2001). Consequently, this finding adds credence to CSR and organisational culture literature which highlights the salient role culture and values play in adopting and implementing CSR initiatives.

By considering and developing organisational culture as part of CI, companies are able to better integrate and manage CSR related initiatives into daily business activities (Baumgartner, 2009). Fitting CSR strategies and activities to the organisational culture also reduces the risk of the company misrepresenting its environmental performance and being perceived as inauthentic; that is, the risk of “greenwashing” is reduced (Baumgartner, 2009).
11.6.5. Mission Dissemination and CSR

The finding demonstrates that the mission dissemination significantly and positively impact CSR practices.

This finding supports this thesis’s view that a mission statement is an auto-communication tool which could be used to guide corporate behaviour towards stakeholders’ issues. Of particular note was how the mission could be considered a formal way to address stakeholder issues and emphasise social concern by disseminating the company’s philosophy down to employees so that they can become committed to organisational goals. Consequently, this finding underscores the importance of mission statement and its dissemination in legitimising CSR as part of CI by serving as internal policy and/or reference points that can direct managers and employees’ decisions and actions towards CSR programmes (Atakan and Eker, 2007; Linnenluecke et al., 2010; Morsing, 2006; Sharma, 2000). Nonetheless, some inconsistencies may exist due to interfering external forces or pressures (such as political, legislative, competitive) that could affect the final outcomes. In this respect, this thesis assumes that organisations with mission statements that incorporate stakeholder demands are expected to practically manage these demands more effectively than organisations with missions that exclude stakeholder demands, which is supported by Atakan and Eker (2007) and Bartkus and Glassman (2008).

Despite the importance of mission statement and CSR to CI and branding, so far, few studies have examined their linkage in this domain (e.g., Atakan and Eker, 2007; Berrone et al., 2007; Cornelius et al., 2007) and research has been dominated by using interviews and content analysis. Thus, the empirical evidence presented in this thesis is considered a novel contribution to the CI and stakeholder management literature.

Therefore, when corporations attempt to develop their CI, it is necessary to understand the strength of the mission statement and consider it an internal and external communication tool. In this case, mission statements not only signal the quality of organisations’ products or services, but also include organisational initiatives to support local communities, as another reason for their existence (Atakan and Eker, 2007).
11.6.6. Founder Leadership and CSR

The finding indicates a significant and positive indirect relationship between transformational leadership role of organisation founder and CSR. This finding corroborates the opinion of numerous authors who argue that corporate ethics is mainly driven by leadership (Carlson and Perrewé, 1995; Ciulla, 1999; Paine, 1996; Weaver et al., 1999; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002), thus, influencing corporate achievements in regards to CSR. Generally, scholars recognise the role of leaders in corporations as crucial moral aspects, particularly due to their main impact on corporate culture (Kakabadse et al., 2005). Leadership forms and directs organisation climate so that employees’ expectations could fit with favourable social behaviour.

This position also reinforces the view of Hillestad et al. (2010) who hypothesise, based on exploratory findings, that companies gain trustworthiness by engaging in CSR and environmental awareness activities. Such activities are enforced by founders who generally take a leadership position.

While the relationship between founders and CSR has not been stressed in CI literature, several scholars, in the leadership and organisational management domain, have outlined the important role founders play in CSR adoption (e.g., McWilliams et al., 2006; Waldman et al., 2006). This position also supports several scholars who demonstrate the influence of transformational leadership on CSR (e.g., Bass and Steidlmieier, 1999; Mendonca, 2001).

The discovery of this indirect effect is important because the unique characteristics of transformational value-based leaders (founders) can offer an influential source of employee identification, which could consequently affect their beliefs and actions. Value-based leaders may be powerful in creating a shared identity founded on attractive principles that extend over employees’ own concerns and even the larger corporation. In respect to CSR, these principles may incorporate addressing the larger demands of various audiences, the community and social welfare. Therefore, employees (followers) would link their OI with the societal welfare and be encouraged to perform CSR.

To date, the relationship between organisation founder and CSR, in the context of CI, has not been empirically examined. In addition, the adoption of transformational leadership theory and instrument by Bass (1990; 1996) has not been reported in CI.
literature. Thus, the findings of this thesis represent a novel contribution to the CI, leadership and CSR domains.

Therefore, it is important for organisation managers to understand how founders, through their transformational leadership and value-based approach, affect employee behaviour to significantly enhance CSR. For instance, founder leaders should demonstrate CSR morals, uphold and encourage them with their own beliefs and actions. Furthermore, ‘leadership’ could be needed at different organisational levels, which highlights that founders, senior and middle managers should totally support corporate values (Kakabadse et al., 2005).

11.8. The Mediating Effect of Organisation Size

This thesis investigated the potential moderating effect of organisation size on the CI-CSR relationship, assuming that organisation size has a significant influence on the strength of the relationship between the two constructs. The Data Analysis in Chapter Ten (Section 10.6) revealed an insignificant effect of organisation size as a mediating variable; accordingly, this thesis found no evidence to support the hypothesis.

Distinctions between large companies and SMEs have been highlighted, individually, in CI (e.g., Abimbola and Kocak, 2007; Abimbola and Vallaster, 2007; Cornelius et al., 2008; Micelotta and Raynard, 2011; Thomsen and Pedersen, 2000) and CSR literature (e.g., Davies and Crane, 2010; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Udayasankar, 2008). However, no prior literature has detailed the effect of size on the relationship between CI and CSR. Hence, this finding makes a novel contribution to knowledge made by this study. Consequently, it is hoped this finding provide both a platform and point of reference for subsequent CI-CSR research.

Principally, this finding corroborates the general view that corporate branding is also an applicable way for an SME to convey its unique qualities (see Abimbola and Kocak, 2007; Abimbola and Vallaster, 2007; Boyle, 2003; Inskip, 2004; Merrilees, 2007; Mowle and Merrilees, 2005; Wong and Merrilees, 2005; Ojasalo et al., 2008), not only for large organisations. Notably, this thesis does not claim that there are no variations among large companies and SMEs in the process of corporate identity and brand management (e.g., Arendt and Brettel, 2010; Berthon et al., 2008; Inskip, 2004). The thesis maintains, however, that the research endeavours to differentiate or determine corporate branding and/or CI activities depending on firm size has no theoretical support and do not necessary improve
the understanding of the concepts. In this sense, this thesis view on the effect of organisation size on CI-CSRI relationship answers the call from the literature for identifying brand management practices that are most amenable to the SME situation (Abimbola, 2001; Berthon et al., 2008). The validated framework and taxonomy of CI construct including the six dimensions could be applied to SMEs.

Similarly, this thesis does not claim that there are no general variations among large companies and SMEs in respect to the way they perform and relate to CSR, which is considered a well accepted view in CSR literature (e.g., Blomback and Wigren, 2009; Juholin, 2004; Lepoutre and Heene, 2006; Madden et al., 2006; Udayasankar, 2008). However, the thesis upholds that the current dichotomisation of CSR based on firm size is misleading in respect to actual corporate performance and threats promoting a restrictive attitude towards social responsibility, since CSR theories do not provide support to this. An appropriate justification, presented by Wood (1991), could be that all firms belong to communities and are required to comply with rules and operate legitimately. Accordingly, all firms should have economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities, as the finding reveals. On an individual level, executives will be challenged on a personal and managerial level, in respect to the way they behave and also the corporation they represent, despite firm size.

In essence, the finding supports the view of Jenkins (2004) that stakeholder theory could be applied to all companies, and a how different stakeholders can be relevant to a corporation at different levels and in various situations (Udayasankar, 2008). In addition, this gives rise to other attributes for the analyses and segmentation of firm-CSR actions depending on the context they are in, e.g., country (developing or industrialized) or industry (Griffin and Mahon, 1997; Moore, 2001; Sweeney and Coughlan, 2008), which could be fruitful avenues for further investigations.

11.7. Summary

This chapter has been concerned with discussing the analyses of quantitative data in relation to relevant literature. The chapter was structured around the research objectives identified in Chapter One.

Following the introduction, the chapter advances a definition of CI based on the dimensions validated in the preceding chapter. This involved an amendment and modification of the literature-based definition (See Section 2.2) which was informed by
Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006). This resulted in developing a CI definition specific to food and beverage manufacturing companies.

Next, the chapter elaborated on the established definition of the CI construct to discuss the six dimensions of CI, which included corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, corporate culture, mission dissemination and founder leadership. By doing so, the chapter has implicitly addressed the research objective concerning CI measurement since developing a scale for CI is a way to determining the construct’s dimensions. It was also suggested that corporate behaviour is a potential consequence of CI, rather than an element given the importance of this sub-dimension to the corporate reputation construct.

The chapter then discussed the nature of CSR in food and drink industry, which is considered one of this thesis objectives and a prerequisite for understanding the relationship between CI and CSR. CSR consisted of two dimensions, legal and social, which constituted items representing four types of responsibilities: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropy.

Subsequently, the positive and significant influence of CI on CSR was discussed, acknowledging the scarcity of research on CI and CSR. Accordingly, corporate communications, organisational identification, organisational culture, leadership and CSR literatures were considered suitable surrogates due to the originality of the findings. Also, the positive and significant indirect influence each CI dimension had on CSR was noted, while highlighting the research contribution. The following chapter derives conclusions from this research.
# CHAPTER TWELVE: RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Table 12.1: The Research Stages

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12.1. Introduction

The previous chapter contained a discussion of the research findings in the context of relevant literature, informed by the research objectives and questions outlined in Chapter One. It addressed CI definition, dimensionality, and measurement, as well as evaluating the influence of CI on CSR.

This chapter presents the research implications. It is structured as follows. The first section, after the introduction, recaps the purpose of each chapter in order to consolidate the research. The following explains the theoretical, managerial and methodological implications emerging from the thesis. Then, the limitations of the thesis are acknowledged and suggestions are made for further research. Key points covered in the chapter are summarised and the principal contributions of the thesis recapped in the final section.

12.2. Thesis Overview

Before considering research implications, limitations and avenues for future research, it is helpful at this stage of the thesis to unify and consolidate this research by revisiting the previous chapters in terms of rationale and content.

Chapter One presented the foundation for this thesis. This was attained by presenting the background of the research and outlining evident gaps in the CI literature, which is mainly dominated by conceptual research studies, as opposed to empirical, while the general nature of frameworks developed to date which does not account for clear theories underpinning the CI construct or its relationship with CSR. Besides, there is increasing interest on the part of both academics and practitioners in examining the relationship between CI and CSR.

Informed by the above, this thesis seeks to provide a clear understanding and a definition of CI, identify the key elements of CI and establish a theoretical framework of CI construct with clear theories underpinning CI elements, develop a parsimonious scale for the CI and explore the construct’s relationship with CSR.

With the research problem considered and research purpose outlined, Chapters Two and Three presented and critically evaluated the pertinent literature. Chapter Two clarified the meaning of key conceptual terms, e.g., corporate brand, identity, image, reputation.
and organisational identity (OI), highlighted points of strength and weakness in existing CI frameworks and provided theoretical underpinning on the CI construct, whilst Chapter Three provided theoretical guidance on CSR definition, dimensions and theory. This helped establish an initial definition and framework of elements for CI (adopted from Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006)) and CSR (adopted from Carroll, 1991). It also provided parameters for exploring the domain of CI and its relationship with CSR, in the two empirical phases of research.

Accordingly, Chapter Four as a generic methodology chapter outlined the mixed methods research approach employed in this thesis, which involved two sequential exploratory phases of research; qualitative followed by quantitative research. Next, in Chapter Five, the research design of the first phase of research was explained. This entailed qualitative data collection using semi-structured interviews and data analysis using content analysis, augmented by Miles and Huberman’s (1994) approach and facilitated by Nvivo9.

Qualitative data was analysed and then discussed in Chapter Six, Qualitative Data Analysis, which helped in linking the findings with relevant literature. This resulted in revising the initial CI definition, identifying the key elements of CI which would be worth further investigation in the second phase. In addition, the findings outlined the nature of the relationship between CI and CSR, highlighting the association and interaction of various disciplines in explaining this relationship (e.g., communications, organisational identification, organisational culture, leadership, stakeholder management,). This highlights the importance of the multidisciplinary approach adopted in this thesis in explaining the relationship between CI and CSR.

Based on the qualitative research findings and supported by the literature, a theoretical framework was developed, and explained in Chapter Seven. From a multidisciplinary perspective, grounded predominantly in the CI literature in addition to organisational identification, corporate communications, corporate visual identity (CVI), leadership and stakeholder management, the theoretical framework chapter permitted this thesis to advance in four respects. It assisted in linking the literature review and the subsequent empirical investigation. In addition, it assisted in distilling the pertinent literature, while guiding the later development of the scale by proposing the domain of CI construct.
Moreover, the chapter offered a conceptual framework that directed the research as a whole towards addressing its questions and achieving the research objectives.

Chapter Eight, on the quantitative research design, tested the theoretical framework by explaining the process of developing the research questionnaire and the way in which it was utilised in the collection of quantitative data. This resulted in a mail survey directed to senior managers at UK companies operating in the food and beverage industry.

Subsequent to the completion of the data collection, the data analysis was carried out. Chapters Nine and Ten discussed the use of a number of statistical methods with the purpose of showing the dimensions of CI and assessing the scale’s reliability and validity. The statistical analyses showed that CI comprised six dimensions: corporate communications, CVI, behaviour, culture, and mission dissemination in addition to founder leadership. The application of the scale revealed the significant and positive impact of CI on CSR in food and beverage manufacturing industry in the UK. The indirect effect each dimension of CI has on CSR was also noted at this point.

The data analysis of the quantitative phase in the context of the literature was presented in Chapter Eleven. The research objectives and related research questions outlined in Chapter One were recapped in order to structure the discussion. First, a definition of CI was presented, based on quantitative findings. Then a discussion of the CI domain and its scale, the nature of CSR in practice, and the impact of the construct on CSR was presented. In this way, the research objectives and questions were addressed.

Following this summary, the theoretical, methodological and managerial significance, together with the limitations of this study were presented, and suggestions for future research made.

12.3. Theoretical Contributions

The main contribution of this thesis is to the CI and CSR literatures. In respect to CI, this thesis makes several original theoretical contributions which relate to CI theoretical framework, dimensionality and measurement. In terms of CSR, this thesis presents an eclectic approach to explain the relationship between CI and CSR, based on a multidisciplinary perspective.
12.3.1. CI Theoretical Framework

This thesis attempted to theorise, and provide empirical support for the CI construct. The development of a multidisciplinary foundation for the CI construct is an important contribution of this thesis. (See Figure 12.1)

Indeed, by bringing together different, but related, bodies of knowledge to conceptualise CI, this thesis contributes to the multidisciplinary approach advocated in the literature (e.g., See Simoes et al., 2005; Van Riel and Balmer, 1997) and therefore provides a holistic perspective of CI.

Figure 12.1: Verified CI Theoretical Framework

Based on a multidisciplinary perspective, this thesis develops a theoretical framework which links several theories in a cohesive framework that encapsulates CI. By articulating such theories underpinning CI dimensions, this thesis challenges and advances CI literature which is dominated by merely theoretical metaphors and
paradigms, and moves the CI research to an empirical domain, based on a clearly-specified theoretical underpinning. Most marketers are likely to be familiar with the individual ideas presented in this framework. However, the framework’s innovatory theoretical contribution lies in its proposing CI dimensions and drawing them together in a manner that had previously not been way done.

12.3.2. CI Dimensionality and Measurement

Based on a clearly specified theoretical framework, this thesis is original in that it takes a rigorous and grounded approach to the development of a parsimonious CI measurement instrument that is valid and reliable.

The resulting CI measurement instrument is considered an important contribution of this thesis, which includes internal, external, controlled and uncontrolled aspects of CI. This responds to Alsem and Kostelijk’s (2008) recommendation for the marketing paradigm to emulate researchers on strategy (e.g., He and Balmer, 2005, 2007; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006) in the reflection of internal and external tendencies orientations in research, rather than concentrating on one aspect. Further, this thesis is the first of its kind to empirically validate communications dimension, constituting internal, external and WOM sub-dimensions, although communications is repeatedly mentioned in CI studies (Melewar et al., 2005a, 2005b; Melewar and Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Van Riel and Balmer, 2007; Simoes et al., 2005). Indeed, validating WOM as a key element of CI is considered a research contribution since the thesis addresses this element from an internal perspective (e.g., the importance placed on WOM in developing and shaping CI), which has not been done before in CI literature. In addition, this thesis represents the first empirical attempt to integrate internal communication in the CI construct.

Similarly, this thesis has, for the first time, conceptualised employee behaviour in terms of OI. This perspective represented an attempt to connect the research streams of CI and OI. Hence, it can be seen as a novel contribution to knowledge, since marketing oriented research has never before empirically combined the two previously separate, albeit related, streams of identity literature in CI. Thus, this thesis adds to CI and OI literature by proving that OI is a part of CI. Also, this thesis is the first of its kind which empirically examined and validated the importance of leadership management for CI. Leadership is represented by management behaviour and organisation founder dimensions, which reflect the role of representational leadership and transformational
leadership, respectively. Further, empirically validating culture as a key element of CI is considered a novel contribution presented by this thesis. Corporate culture was conceptualised, for the first time in CI literature, using competing values framework (CVF). The empirical findings highlight the types of cultures presented in UK food and beverage companies, which has practical implications as discussed later in this chapter.

Another significant contribution is revealing CI dimensionality with specific reference to UK’s food and beverage manufacturing context. CI has never been before empirically tested in the UK’s food and beverage industrial sector, as a third-order construct comprising six dimensions. When CI is conceptualised in this way, it should be noted that CI is the central or higher order construct; mobilised via all six dimensions. CI should also be considered in its entirety rather than as separate components. This reasoning stems from significant factor loading for each dimension of CI that emerged from the data. This supports the contention that an integrative approach to corporate marketing need to be employed (Alsem and Kostelijk, 2008).

Although in this thesis the CI scale was tested in relation to CSR measure, yet, CI marketing scholars are able to evaluate the impact of CI construct on a number of antecedents and consequences, e.g., corporate performance, revenue or reputation. Thus, the scale can be used in branding studies. Nevertheless, use of the scale for theoretical development ought not to be confined to researchers carrying out marketing or brand research. For instance, human resource management scholars would be able to evaluate the impact of CI on employee commitment, loyalty, satisfaction or turnover. Moreover, finance researchers could evaluate the influence of CI on return on investment (ROI). Hence, the application of the scale goes beyond CI and related studies in brand management. Such application of the scale would facilitate the advancement of theoretically founded and empirically enlightened views in a variety of business management fields (Coleman et al., 2011).

12.3.4. CI-CSR Theoretical Framework

It is argued that this thesis presents a salient theoretical contribution to the literature on CI_CSR. The application of the CI measurement showed the positive and significant impact of the construct on CSR in the food and beverage industry in the UK. This provides a novel contribution to knowledge and can be seen as the first stage in the construction of a theory of that building CI drives CSR.
In addition, this expands the literature on CI by showing support for the relationship between CI sub-dimensions and CSR, and demonstrates that the theoretical lenses of CI are useful for understanding its relationship to CSR. Accordingly, grounding the analysis of CI and its relationship to other concepts (e.g., CSR) in one field provides a significant, though partial, view. Further, examining CSR in this multi-dimensional manner presents a theoretical implication in regards to explicating CSR. Despite the considerable support found for each theory, a collective understanding derived from all these theories has not been explored so far in the same study.

12.4. Managerial Contributions

Having outlined the theoretical contributions made by this thesis, the next section now turns to a discussion of the managerial implications of this thesis.

12.4.1. Dimensions of CI

Prior to developing and managing CI, managers must be aware of the dimensions required to convey the construct. This study offers a clear guidance as to what CI comprises. The dimensionality of the framework gives managers the conceptual mechanism to depict CI, while the underpinning scale offers them particular activities to construct and manage their initial ideas concerning each dimension.

Therefore, managers need to consider several issues, such as whether they use adequate channels of communication (including internal, external and WOM) to their full potential, the way they apply the font, logo and other visual identity tools as elements of their CI, the degree of employee identification they wish to develop, and the type of organisation culture in place to support their CI, etc. (See Table 12.2).

In fact, CI already exists, whether or not there is an active and deliberate effort to develop it. However, in order to gain a competitive advantage, corporations should have clear guidelines about the corporate image they desire and how it can be achieved. Identity emerges from a company’s capacity to understand and manage internal and external reality. Consequently, managers should realise that identity must be based on solid foundations that contain an overall message. Notwithstanding this, a continuous programme of actions is needed to convey the desired message and image to audiences.

Table 12.2: CI Integration and Business Implications
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CI Dimensions</th>
<th>Business Implications</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Communications</strong></td>
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</table>
| Controlled (External and Internal) Communications: (e.g., using advertising, sales promotion, sponsorship, public relations, internal marketing, internal publications to convey CI) | • Convey the distinct qualities of CI.  
• Ensure strong and positive CI is communicated to internal and external stakeholders.  
• Position a company’s products and services in the market.  
• Develop favourable stakeholder attitudes, increased purchase intention, enhanced corporate image, reputation, and financial returns.  
• Inform organisational members about organisational goals, objectives, policies, activities, and achievements.  
• Employees participate in discussions, adherence with corporate goals, establish and maintain trust in organisation leadership, empower and motivate employees, organisational identification.  
• Consistent behaviours among employees. |
| | | |
| Uncontrolled (WOM) Communications (e.g., considering WOM as an effective form of communication, encourage customers to tell others about organisation products and services) | • Develop a customer focused approach to market.  
• Manage and influence the expression of the brand, understand and respond to the images that these expressions create in the minds of stakeholders.  
• Facilitate sharing consumers’ feelings and experiences.  
• Develop preferable corporate image and reputation. |
| | | |
| **CVI** | | |
| Design (e.g., use corporate name, slogan, colour) | • Enhance corporate brand awareness and recognition among target audiences.  
• Diffusion of a specific and consistent corporate image. |
| Development and Management of CVI (e.g., employees understand the meaning of CVI, the organisation has formal guidelines and templates for applying CVI, guidelines are updated regularly) | • Create symbols understanding among employees and staff.  
• Employees’ appreciation of and commitment to the CVI. |
| Consistency of CVI (e.g., CVI is clear, visual materials are consistent, colour is recognisable) | • Visual consistency among tangible dimensions such as facilities and personnel appearance  
• Corporate brand support. |
| **Behaviour** | | |
| Representational Leadership (e.g., CEOs act as spokespersons of their organisation, publicise the activities of their organisation) | • Promotion of attractive organisational images for presentation to stakeholders.  
• Enhancement of stakeholder s organisational identification. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CI Dimensions</th>
<th>Business Implications</th>
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<tr>
<td>Organisational Identification</td>
<td>▪ Stable and consistent CI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e.g., employees have strong sense of belonging to their company, employees feel strong ties with their company, employees are glad to be part of their companies)</td>
<td>▪ Employees accept embrace CI in their actions.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Employees tend to personify the organisation during interactions with nonemployees.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Employees embrace corporate interests as primary in their strategic and task decision opportunities.</td>
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<td>▪ Facilitating motivation, task performance, and organisational citizenship behaviours.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Employees adopt the central, distinctive, and enduring characteristics of the organisation as defining characteristics of themselves</td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture (Adhocracy, hierarchy, Clan)</td>
<td>▪ Delineation of a set of criteria to measure organisational effectiveness across time.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Aligning organisational thinking in a homogeneous corporate culture</td>
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<td>▪ Enable the organisation to speak with one voice and creates a unified impression of what the organisation stands for.</td>
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<td>Mission Dissemination</td>
<td>▪ Articulation of the business philosophy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Establishment of desired and consistent behaviours among employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Commitment to organisation goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founder Leadership</td>
<td>▪ Providing meaning and stimulating employees, helping employees identify with corporate goals and problems.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Strengthening the common identity of work groups, advancing organisational identification, aligning individual behaviour with corporate brand identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Proactively influencing, energizing and crafting organisational culture.</td>
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Careful development and management of CI can be used to support marketing contributions because it can develop distinctive corporate traits and behaviours. CI must be cohesive and employees, who are important players in the CI manifestation, should be involved in CI development. If possible, they should also identify with the brand values and mission of their organisation. Reiterating an earlier point, when building CI, it should be considered in its entirety rather than as separate components. Accordingly, neglecting CI dimensions could act as a millstone and burden the whole process. Hence, all six dimensions must be carefully co-ordinated by those responsible for CI management to attain a strong and consistent image. This requires managers to plan for the whole and not only the components, while developing CI.
12.4.2. CI Audit

In practical terms, managers can use the CI scale as a diagnostic tool, a checklist or an audit for measuring CI and its consistency in UK food and beverage companies. Such an approach brings several benefits. For example, as part of CI assessment managers may find inconsistencies across CI items. Managers are thereby more likely to successfully manage CI and establish a consistent image if they coordinate these dimensions and monitor them as part of a whole. This should become the intended routine in the company. In so doing a strong internal and external image is developed.

The use of the scale as a diagnostic tool would permit managers to monitor the changes in CI dimensions by time. This enables those with the responsibility for corporate marketing and brand management to understand employees’ perceptions of the company’s CI. This long-term examination could consequently offer a basis for remedial action (e.g., internal marketing) to increase knowledge and levels of CI. Hence, the scale could be employed to investigate the current stance of company’s CI in terms of strategic objectives while offering an objective reasoning for altering CI. Such managerial practices are likely to be assisted by the validity and reliability of the scale.

Thus, using the scale in this way would enable corporate and brand managers to understand important aspects related to the position of their actual CI and to estimate how far they were from the desired CI.

12.4.3. CSR Audit

The behavioural features of the resulting CSR scale allows it to be a tool for auditing an organisation’s CSR, in the UK food and beverage industry. For instance, in evaluating legal CSR, executives can determine if their organisations adhere to the rules and policies governing employee recruitment and benefits, if relevant environmental laws are available to staff, if their organisations encourage and implement programmes that ensure diversity of workforce, and if organisations’ products meet legal standards.

Further, the CSR measure suggests that marketing managers should combine several activities that their organisation may already carry out, but which frequently remain separate from each other. For instance, a firm’s PR department may be responsible for supervising charitable endowments while its legal affairs department is in charge of compliance with morals and its HR department concerns employee benefits and
additional education. If marketers organise these activities and control them as a whole, they have a better chance of creating a perception of a socially responsible organisation in the minds of stakeholders.

12.4.4. CSR implementation

The relationship between CI and CSR revealed by this thesis also has managerial implications for implementing CSR. By drawing on a multidisciplinary perspective, the CI, and its dimensions, is viewed as driver of CSR (See Figure 11.2).

In order for CSR to be more than mere rhetoric, CSR should be integrated into the daily routines of the organisation. This could be achieved by the help of various institutional factors (elements).

Corporate communications can play a strategic part in the selection, design and execution of CSR activities. For example, internal communications can facilitate disseminating information about CSR within the organisation, which is a key factor for the successful implementation of CSR (Siebenhüner and Arnold, 2007). Through different internal communication channels, efforts to convey the meaning of CSR to organisational staff could be adjusted to suit various backgrounds, and clarify the different aspects related to the concept in such a way that personnel with diverse understandings are able to connect to it. A two-way communication can also be utilised proactively via community activities planned to develop and cement relations with audiences in the society and improve corporate reputation (David, 2004). In this sense, corporate communications can be seen as a legitimising strategy for corporations (Capriotti and Moreno, 2007), instead of acting reactively, e.g., in response to corporate scandals (Frynas, 2005).

Also, by using mission statement as an auto-communication tool, companies can signal the quality of their products as well as legitimise their attempts to serve local communities through an identity driven view of CSR (Atakan and Eker, 2007). In this case, mission dissemination increase employees’ awareness of CSR initiatives and provide them with motivation, enthusiasm and commitment to participate in volunteerism programmes and other CSR programmes (Daugherty, 2001; Dozier et al., 1995).
Top managers and founders can provide leadership by defining corporate values shared by organisational members within various departments. Top managers, with their representational leadership, can promote high credibility of CSR programmes, thus enhance corporate image and reputation, and sustain company’s business strategy. Also, founders, through their transformational value-based leadership, can create an environment in which employees identify with their organisations and live the values through their behaviour. Subsequently, this enhances employees’ organisational identification, motivation and commitment to achieving organisational goals. This in turn promotes employees co-operative and citizenship type behaviours, engagement in volunteering programmes and attaining CSR objectives.

Using a mix of CI elements, organisations can grow, develop a culture, and shape an identity, with CSR as an integral part that runs throughout the firm. Thus, organisations might differ in the extent to which they plan and manage their CI, and accordingly would vary in their adoption of CSR (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001).

For practitioners, this offers organisations a way for institutionalising/implementing CSR through managing CI and integrating it in internal and external aspects of corporate brand management. This could also enable organisations to be more active in their engagement in CSR activities in order to assure that they adhere to rules and that their CI is attractive to corporate audiences and the contextual environs (Cornelius et al., 2007; Kitchen and Schultz, 2001).

12.5. Methodological Contribution

Another contribution of this thesis relates to its quantitative research design. In particular, the analytical method used in this thesis contributes to this field of research. Given the small sample of 126 cases, using Partial Least Squares (PLS) Method enabled the researcher to undertake multivariate statistical analysis using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modelling (SEM). In CI research, the use of CFA and SEM (with partial least squares) is a pioneering approach.

Notably, this thesis demonstrates that PLS path modelling can be employed in evaluating hierarchical models. It is assumed the first to apply the PLS path modelling to construct CI as a third-order hierarchical construct, using the repeated indicators method. The results provide empirical support for CI as a third-order latent variable
model. In this sense, CI as a higher order construct can be embedded in a nomological network of antecedents and consequences.

For PLS path modelling, parameter estimates are obtained to minimize the residual variance of all dependent variables (manifest and latent variables). Using Monte Carlo simulation, Cassell et al. (1999) show that PLS path modelling is quite robust to deviations from normality.

In the case of this thesis, PLS path modelling is argued to outperform covariance-based SEM for assessing hierarchical construct models. The reason is that PLS path modelling is not as susceptible to identification problems and improper solutions as covariance-based SEM. Thus, the identification of reflective hierarchical models using covariance-based SEM is not an easy task. Even if the model per se is theoretically identified, it might still suffer from empirical under identification, which may cause non convergence and/or improper solutions (Wetzels et al., 2009).

However, model complexity does not pose a severe a restriction to PLS path modelling as to covariance-based SEM, since PLS path modelling at any moment only estimates a subset of parameters, hence partial least squares. Consequently, PLS path modelling would be more suitable to more complex models including models with hierarchical constructs (with a total disaggregation approach), mediating effects and moderating effects (Chin et al., 2003).

This thesis also contributes in terms of refining measurements in CI research. It adapted and (re-)tested measurements that were originally applied in different contexts. This could help future CI researchers to use these measurements in their investigations.

12.6. Research Limitations

This section classifies the research limitations into two areas; the first relates to sampling and the quantitative approach whilst the second is concerned with the measurement and research model.

12.6.1. Sampling and the Quantitative Approach

Potential epistemological limitations arise from the quantitative research design of the empirical research. One shortcoming concerns the use of cross-sectional data which
limits the determination of causal relationships implicit in the hypothesis. Indeed, based on existing theory and literature, the thesis linked several constructs and involved the construction of a questionnaire to measure those constructs. Conclusions regarding causality can only be inferred from the underlying theory rather than from the data (Rudestam and Newton, 1992).

Second, the empirical research was conducted within a single industry, which limits the generalisability of the research results. Calling into question the possibility of generalising the findings of this research is in agreement with Leone and Shultz (1980:12), who state that, “There are no universal generalisations in marketing”. Hence, it may be inadvisable to generalise these findings beyond the food and beverage manufacturing industry in the UK.

Notably, this scale cannot be considered a generic CI scale; however, it could be considered as a goods/product-centric scale. The reason is that the scale does not incorporate aspects emerging from the service sector-based companies involved in the qualitative (phase one) research. Consequently, the CI scale was developed with no consideration of the unique characteristics of service corporate brands (e.g., Low and Lamb, 2000) or the difficulties corporate marketers encounter. For example, the behaviour dimension recognises the central role that employees play in manifesting CI, however, without recognising the implications on visual identity e.g., uniforms, etc.

Third, the scope of the CI scale could be restricted to six key dimensions that constitute the domain of CI, thus, more research could be directed to investigating the importance of other elements/dimensions, e.g., corporate strategy and industry identity. A fourth limitation refers to the fact that the quantitative research involves the use of a single respondent in each company. This may be a problem for the analysis of large companies because an individual informant may not have complete information about the subjects in the questionnaire. Nonetheless, the survey introductory letter clearly addressed the questionnaire to the general manager. During questionnaire testing, it became clear that corporate general managers or directors, corporate communications, marketing, CSR, or brand managers would constitute the best respondents. Considering the breadth of themes covered in the survey, respondents needed general knowledge about the company.
In addition, due to the difficulty of obtaining a list of all UK based food and beverage companies, some companies were missed out and not included in the sample frame. This bias in selecting sample, or coverage ‘error’, is argued to affect the accuracy of inferring from population (Dillman, 2000; Tomaskovic-Devey et al., 1994). However, it is argued that this is a procedural limitation encountered by all empirical studies.

12.6.2. Measurement and Research Model

Potential biases may have occurred in the qualitative (first) phase of research when direct questions were asked to respondents. In fact, many respondents may have been tempted to reply in a socially approved manner rather than truly express their views. This could imply that respondents may tend to answer in a more positive way, particularly, questions regarding CSR initiatives. It is very difficult to control social desirability in the responses. Nonetheless, it was clearly stated in the interview schedule instructions that there were no right or wrong answers and only the manager’s real experience was of interest to the research. Also, more than one respondent was interviewed from the same company for double checking.

Notwithstanding this, a sound research instrument was developed based on the findings of the first phase and supported by a literature review. In addition, all measurements included in the analysis were thoroughly tested prior to the implementation of the survey. The scales were assessed for reliability and validity throughout the research instrument design and data analysis phases.

Also, this thesis examined CI without regard to external environmental business aspects e.g., competition and industry identity. It would be interesting to assess how external environmental forces influence CI in different industries.

Another limitation of the thesis concerns to the type of stakeholder needs examined in the CSR scale employed. The scale encompassed just three principal stakeholder groups: customers, employees, and the public. The measurement instrument of CSR would be enhanced by the inclusion of investors’ and channel members’ needs, as this would broaden its domain and would provide a more accurate assessment of its advantages. Whilst the logic for employing Maignan and Ferrell (1999) scale was provided, the CI-CSR results should be viewed taking into consideration this particular limitation.
Finally, this thesis depicted a one-sided view - the managerial. The actual consideration of the audiences, particularly customers perspectives, would potentially yield different outcomes in terms of constructs/scales and results. Although data was collected using mixed methods, a wider examination of the reception perspective would have enhanced the understanding of the domain of CI. Owing to the available resources (e.g., limited time) this was deemed beyond the scope of this thesis.

Hence, it is apparent that this thesis has a number of limitations. However, these should offer a foundation for further research rather than making the findings less significant.

12.7. Future Research
This section considers avenues for future research taking account of this thesis’s limitations.

This thesis has provided a snapshot of what constitutes CI in UK food and beverage companies. The CI scale offers a foundation for longitudinal investigations in similar research context (country and industry). Regarding CI dimensions, this would allow evaluating the stability of the resulting scale in such replicative research.

Moreover, the thesis proposed several constructs and a comprehensive measurement for CI. Further application of this measurement is needed in future research. The exploratory nature of this research encourages its replication and extension to attain greater validity and generalisability for the tested and other measurements and relationships. Researchers might be willing to enlarge the scope of this study by replicating the outcomes in other research contexts (e.g., different industrial sectors, service companies) which is essential in developing generalisable brand marketing results. Nevertheless, it is vital that similar procedures (e.g., EFA and SEM) are precisely carried out in future studies to validate the scale.

Also, the nomological validity of the hierarchical construct model needs to be assessed by incorporating the CI construct in a nomological network with other variables (Wetzels et al., 2009), e.g., corporate reputation, image, financial performance in order to evaluate the stability of the scale (Coleman et al., 2011).

Further studies may examine dimension correlation. Exploring the associations between CI dimensions could be a worthwhile area for further research. For instance, does
internal communication assist organisational identification? Does culture type impact employee identification? To date, it has not been clarified if there is such as causal relationship between these dimensions. Determining this causal relation could assist managers in ordering the programmes involved in developing CI according to their priority and influence on CI.

Future research can extend CI framework and explore the importance of corporate philosophy, guidelines, corporate strategy and industry identity in manifesting CI. Another innovative aspect would be to explore the increasing significance of sensory branding. For instance, Bartholme and Melewar (2009) consider a recent development of auditory identity management. Similarly, Lindstrom (2005) suggests that, although brands usually emphasis visual and auditory aspects, those emphasising the synergistic effect of all five senses have a greater likelihood of developing an emotional bond. Goldkuhl and Styven (2007) note the significance of scent in concretising, reinforcing and distinguishing service providers. Consequently, future CI studies on such novel aspects will be welcomed.

Further research can also examine the audiences’ views and any discrepancy/overlap when compared with the managers’ perspective. For example, research may inquire about customers’ perceptions of the ‘managed’ CI. That is, what is the actual image customers have about the company and to what extent does that image coincide with the identity developed by managers? Research following this line of inquiry would also need to adapt or create new constructs/scales.

An additional variable worth investigating is culture. Indeed, companies have an individual culture that helps to shape their identity and drive CSR. There are opportunities for future research to look at this relationship. For example, subsequent work could examine how the dominant types of culture drive specific CSR practices. Similarly, the relationship between dominant types of leadership and specific CSR practices could be investigated. Finally, further work on the resulting CSR measurement could explore consumers’ expectations of proactive CSR in greater depth.

**12.8. Summary**

This thesis provides a better understanding of the CI concept and its relationship with CSR. First, its findings relating to the development and validation of CI scale, and
framework of key elements of CI and underpinning theories were presented. Second, a structural model incorporating CI and CSR dimensions was tested. The findings supported the argument that CI derives CSR. Accordingly, the theoretical implications of the thesis in reference to CI and CSR were discussed by drawing supporting insights from the fields of communications, organisational identification, culture, leadership, and stakeholder management.

Despite several limitations, this thesis provides a significant contribution by providing a platform for and stimulating future work on measurement and causal relationships. Three measurement models were assessed using CFA, and two hypotheses were tested in a structural model using SEM. Indeed as the thesis demonstrated, CI should be a key consideration in businesses and has significant implications for management. It is hoped that future research will build on the findings presented here.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Glossary</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Structure</strong> : This 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).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Dimension of Sensemaking Process</strong> : This implies “thinking about the organisation’s relationships with its stakeholders and views about the broader world (e.g., the ‘common good’ that goes beyond what’s good for business) as well as the rationale for engaging in specific activities that might impact on key relationships” (Basu and Palazzo, 2008).</td>
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<td><strong>Conative Dimension of Sensemaking Process</strong> : This refers to the behavioural posture they adopt, along with the commitment and consistency they show in conducting activities that impinge on their perceived relationships (Basu and Palazzo, 2008).</td>
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<td><strong>Construct</strong> : This refers to a broad mental configuration of a given phenomenon (Bacharach, 1989).</td>
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<td><strong>Controlled Corporate Communication</strong> : This is the instrument of management by means of which all consciously used forms of internal and external communication are harmonized effectively and efficiently in order to create a favourable basis for relationships with the groups upon which the company is dependent (Van Rekom, 1997).</td>
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<td><strong>Corporate Behaviour</strong> : This is the sum total of those actions resulting from the corporate attitudes that influence the identity, either planned in line with the company culture or occurring by chance or arbitrarily (Melewar, 2003, Schmidt, 1995).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Corporate Brand</strong> : This is a brand that represents an organisation and reflects its heritage, values, culture, people, and strategy (Aaker et al., 2004). It provides systematic planned management of behaviour, communication, and symbolism in order to attain (and maintain) a favourable and positive reputation with target audiences of an organisation (Einwiller and Will, 2002).</td>
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<td><strong>Corporate Citizenship</strong> : This refers to the extent to which businesses assume the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their various stakeholders (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004).</td>
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<td><strong>Corporate Communication</strong> : This is a broad term which refers to the orchestration of all the means (official and informal) by which the organisation communicates and conveys its identity to its various audiences and stakeholders (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Melewar and Saunders, 1998).</td>
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<td><strong>Corporate Culture</strong></td>
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<td>Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)</td>
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<td>Corporate Visual Identity System (CVIS)</td>
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<td>Founder of the Company</td>
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<td><strong>Social Identity Theory (SIT)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Uncontrolled Communication</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Variable</strong></td>
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Appendices

Appendix 1: Previous studies on CI and CSR (Literature Review)
Appendix 2: Interview Profile
Appendix 3: Interview Schedule
Appendix 4: Using Nvivo9
Appendix 5: Consent Forms
Appendix 6: Complete Item Pool with Respective Removal Phase in Scaling Process
Appendix 7: Experience Survey for Expert Panel
Appendix 8: Covering Letter and Final Survey
Appendix 9: Quantitative Analysis
Appendix 9A: Descriptive Statistics of Sample Characteristics
Appendix 9B: Normality Distribution Tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) Tests
Appendix 9C: Initial CI Dimensions, Conceptual Factors and Measurement Items
Appendix 9D: Data Purification and Reliability Analysis for CI & CSR Constructs
## Appendix 1: Previous studies on CI and CSR (Literature Review)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Subject and Main Theme/Methodology</th>
<th>Nature of the Relationship between CI &amp; CSR</th>
<th>Key Issues/Main Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Brown and Dacin (1997). | The effects of two general types of corporate associations (CA) and CSR on product responses. Empirical study Field data, questionnaire in a lab-type environment, consumers in USA, path analysis. | CI: The desired set of corporate associations that decision-makers in an organization would like their various CA Associations CSR Associations | ▪ What consumers know about a company can influence their beliefs about and attitudes toward new products manufactured by that company.  
▪ CA and CSR associations may have different effects on consumer responses to products.  
▪ Products of companies with negative associations are not always destined to receive negative responses. |
| 2. Pruzan (2001). | Corporate Reputation, Corporate Image, and CI. Conceptual Study | CI Managers and corporate leaders with CSR mind-set Corporate Reputation | ▪ Corporate reputation should be viewed from two complementary perspectives: pragmatic (focusing on corporate image) and reflective (focusing on organisational identity) where the latter is related to value-based leadership and corporate social responsibility. |
| 3. Sen and Bhattacharya (2001). | The influence of CSR on consumers' purchase behaviour. Empirical Study Field data, questionnaire in a lab-type environment, MBA Students in USA, ANOVA and Regression analysis. | CI Capabilities CSR Associations Based on Brown and Dacin (1997) | ▪ CSR is art of company character  
▪ Company-specific factors, e.g., such as the CSR issues a company chooses to focus on and the quality of its products, and individual-specific factors, e.g., consumers' personal support for the CSR issues and their general beliefs about CSR, are key moderators of consumers' responses to CSR. |
| 4. David et al. (2005) | The relationships among corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices, CI, and purchase intention. Empirical Study Field data, questionnaires, undergraduate students in USA, path analysis. | CI Corporate Expertise CSR values Based on Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) | ▪ Discretionary CSR practices and moral/ethical CSR practices are significant predictors of the corporate social values dimension of identity.  
▪ Relational CSR practices contribute to the expertise dimension of CI.  
▪ Familiarity with CSR practices of a corporation had a significant effect on CI, which in turn affected purchase intention. |
| 5. Balmer et al. (2007) | The notion of Ethical Corporate Identity

**Conceptual Study** |

**Ethical Corporate Identity**
The management of ethical identity requires a more socially, dialogically embedded kind of corporate practice and greater levels of critical reflexivity.

- Ethical identity is formed relationally, between parties, within a community of business and social exchange. Ethical Identity is not simply the stating of ethical values and principles in a corporate mission statement, or a code of ethics. Rather, corporations can be identified as being ethical by their social connectedness, openness, critical reflexivity, and responsiveness.


**Empirical Study** |

- Firms with a strong ethical identity achieve a greater degree of stakeholder satisfaction (SS), which, in turn, positively influences a firm's financial performance.

| 7. Cornelius et al. (2007) | Investigate the nature of, motivation and commitment to, ethics tuition.

**Empirical Study**
Content analysis of university websites, business schools running top 25 MBA programs Worldwide.

- Corporate Culture is comprised of components of CSR and goals, philosophies and principles.
- CSR was assessed by four distinct components, namely, Social Inclusion (SI); Ethical Responsibility (ER); Social Responsibility (SR) and Engagement in Society (ES).

Based on Melewar and Jenkins Model (2002)
<table>
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<tr>
<th>8. Marin and Ruiz (2007)</th>
<th>Develop and test a model of the antecedents of Identity Attractiveness (IA), analysing how consumers’ corporate associations, both related to corporate ability (CA) and CSR association.</th>
<th><img src="image" alt="Diagram" /></th>
<th>• CSR associations’ contribution to company IA is much stronger than that of CA, which may be linked to increasing competition.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empirical Study</strong></td>
<td>Field data, surveys, Consumers, financial services (banks) in Spain, CFA and SEM.</td>
<td>Based on Brown and Dacin (1997)</td>
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| 9. Basu and Palazzo (2008) | Process s model of organisational sensemaking that explains how managers think, discuss and act with respect to their key stakeholders and the world at large. | ![Diagram](image) | • CSR is derived from organisation sensemaking.  
• Organisational sensemaking is a set of cognitive, linguistic, and conative dimensions that identify the organisation intrinsic character/orientation that guides CSR-related activities. |
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<td><strong>Conceptual Study</strong></td>
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| 10. Van de Ven (2008)    | Develop an ethical framework for the marketing of CSR.                                                                                           | ![Diagram](image) | • Corporation’s formulation of its ideal identity should reflect how the firm wants to deal with the social and environmental aspects of its business.  
• Subsequently, this should lead to a choice for one or more of the following CSR strategies: reputation management, building a virtuous corporate brand, and ethical product differentiation. |
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<td><strong>Conceptual Study</strong></td>
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<td>11. Marin et al. (2009)</td>
<td>Build and test a model that relates CSR initiatives with consumer loyalty; and demonstrate the moderating effect of identity salience on antecedents and consequences of consumer identification provoked by a company’s CSR initiatives.</td>
<td>• CSR initiatives are linked to stronger loyalty both because the consumer develops a more positive company evaluation, and because one identifies more strongly with the company. • Identity salience is shown to play a crucial role in the influence of CSR initiatives on consumer loyalty when this influence occurs through consumer-company identification.</td>
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<td><strong>Empirical Study</strong> Field data, surveys, customers of a regional bank in Spain, Path Analysis and SEM.</td>
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<td>12. Arendt and Brettel (2010)</td>
<td>Examine the effects of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on CI, image and firm performance.</td>
<td>• CSR triggers the corporate-image-building process and that its relationship to company success varies significantly based on company size, industry and marketing budget.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Empirical Study</strong> Field data, surveys, European companies, Path analysis and SEM.</td>
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<td>13. Hildebr et al. (2011)</td>
<td>Exploring the critical role of CSR in effective corporate marketing strategies - to provide an identity-based conceptualisation of CSR.</td>
<td>• CSR is both an outcome and determinant of different types of CI. • Several identities of a corporation and its CSR initiatives are not discrete entities, but they are formed from and influenced by the relationship between parties within the community.</td>
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<td><strong>Conceptual Study</strong></td>
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</table>

**Based on Balmer et al. (2007)**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14. Powell (2011)</th>
<th>Commentary on the relationship between ethical corporate identity and CSR from an internal organisational perspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethical Corporate Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Includes CSR/ethics as significant components of their activities and behaviours. This is reflected in the organisation’s social connectedness, openness, critical reflexivity, and responsiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Based on Balmer et al. (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisations seeking ethical CI need to ensure that:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Actual identity is underpinned by ethical/CSR precepts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Employees are aligned to the corporations’ identity; and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Communication, perception, brand positioning, and corporate reputation are in meaningful alignment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15. Pérez and Rodríguez Del Bosque (2012)</th>
<th>The role of CSR in the CI.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empirical Study</td>
<td>Corporate Personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field data, in-depth interviews, top managers, Banking institutions in Spain, Content analysis</td>
<td>Corporate Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Values &amp; Mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Corporate Personality allows for the differentiation of financial banks for which CSR plays a significantly role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Differences in corporate personality are reflected in corporate behaviour relating to CSR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSR is nowadays more integrated in the CI of savings banks. The target market of savings institutions is another important determinant in CSR implementation.</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16. Scharf et al. (2012)</th>
<th>Identify and analyze the set of CSR actions of a Brazilian bank as support to the strengthening of an organisational brand.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Empirical Study</td>
<td>Desired Org. Image</td>
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<tr>
<td>Field data, a case study and in-depth interviews with those responsible for the sustainability department of Bank of Brazil</td>
<td>Corporate Social Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org. Goal accomplishment</td>
<td>Stakeholder social issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Identity</td>
<td>Stakeholder judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Investments in CSR and their communication strategies are effective strategies for strengthening corporate brands.</td>
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# Appendix 2: Interview Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interview date &amp; Duration</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Interviewee Position</th>
<th>Interviewee Name &amp; Contact Email</th>
<th>Topic discussed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1  | 03/02/2010 60min. | Aunt Bessies Tryton Foods | Communication Manager | Ms Lorraine Crowe lorrainecrowe@auntbessies.co.uk | • The nature and meaning of CI  
  • Elements of CI  
  • The nature of CSR  
  • Relationship between CI and CSR |
| 2  | 11/02/2010 35min. | The PR Company | Company Manager | Mr Mike Stathers mike@tprc.co.uk | • The nature and meaning of CI.  
  • Elements of CI  
  • The nature and meaning of CSR.  
  • The relationship between CI and CSR. |
| 3  | 16/02/2010 45min. | Boots Alliance | Group Head of CSR Communication Manager at PRCA (Public Relations Consultant Associations) | Mr Richard Ellis richard.ellis@allianceboots.com | • The nature of CI  
  • Elements of CI  
  • The nature of CSR  
  • The relationship between CI and CSR |
| 4  | 17/02/2010 25min. | Boots | Corporate, PR and Communications Director | Ms Sarah Cameron Sarah.Cameron@boots.co.uk | • The nature of CI  
  • Elements of CI  
  • Relationship between CI and CSR |
| 5  | 22/02/2010 30min. | RICOH UK | Head of Corporate Social Responsibility | Mr James Deacon James.Deacon@ricoh.co.uk | • The nature of CSR  
  • CSR programs  
  • Stakeholder issues  
  • Relation between CI and CSR |
| 6  | 22/02/2010 30min. | RICOH UK | Marketing Communications Manager | Mrs Carolyn Scrivener Carolyn.Scrivener@ricoh.co.uk | • The nature of CI  
  • Elements of CI  
  • Relationship between CI and CSR |
| 7  | 26/02/2010 30min. | Imperial Tobacco | Group CR Manager Commercial Integrity | Mrs Kirsty Mann Kirsty.Mann@uk.imptob.com | • The nature of CI  
  • The nature of CSR  
  • The relationship between CI and CSR |
| 8  | 26/02/2010 25min. | Imperial Tobacco | Corporate Communication Manager | Mr Graham Blashill Graham.Blashill@uk.imptob.com | • The nature of CI  
  • Elements of CI  
  • Relationship between CI and CSR |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Contact Person</th>
<th>Topics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>04/03/2010</td>
<td>Reckitt Benckiser Group plc</td>
<td>Corporate Communication Manager</td>
<td>Ms Sandra Hennessy</td>
<td>• The nature and meaning of CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30min.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:sandra.hennessy@reckittbenckiser.com">sandra.hennessy@reckittbenckiser.com</a></td>
<td>• Elements of CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Nature of CSR</td>
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<td>• Relationship between CI and CSR</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10/03/2010</td>
<td>Barclays Plc</td>
<td>Associate Director, Sustainability</td>
<td>Mrs Jillian Fransen. <a href="mailto:Jan.Rickerby@barclaycard.co.uk">Jan.Rickerby@barclaycard.co.uk</a></td>
<td>• The nature of CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30min.</td>
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<td>• Elements of CSR</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Relationship between CI and CSR</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>13/03/2010</td>
<td>Smith &amp; Nephew</td>
<td>Creative Services Manager for Sales and Marketing team for European, middle east, Africa and India, S&amp;N</td>
<td>Ms Marciel Margarson <a href="mailto:maricel.margarson@smith-nephew.com">maricel.margarson@smith-nephew.com</a></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Meaning of CSR</td>
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<td>• Relationship between CI and CSR</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>18/03/2010</td>
<td>Smith &amp; Nephew</td>
<td>CSR Director</td>
<td>Mr Phil Cowdy</td>
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<tr>
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<td><a href="mailto:Phil.Cowdy@smith-nephew.com">Phil.Cowdy@smith-nephew.com</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>19/03/2010</td>
<td>Dominos Pizza</td>
<td>Communication Manager</td>
<td>Mrs Georgina Wald</td>
<td>• Nature and meaning of CI</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:Georgina.Wald@dominos.co.uk">Georgina.Wald@dominos.co.uk</a></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Nature of CSR</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>23/3/2010</td>
<td>Ford Motors</td>
<td>Sustainability Manager, Europe Ford.</td>
<td>Mr Andy Taylor</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40min</td>
<td></td>
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<td><a href="mailto:ataylo17@ford.com">ataylo17@ford.com</a></td>
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<td>• Nature of CSR</td>
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<td>• Relationship between CI and CSR</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>24/3/2010</td>
<td>Coca Cola Great Britain</td>
<td>Citizenship Manager</td>
<td>Ms Liz Lowe</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:lilowe@eur.ko.com">lilowe@eur.ko.com</a></td>
<td>• Elements of CI</td>
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<td>29/3/2010</td>
<td>Glory Slater PR</td>
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<td>Mr Matt Appleby</td>
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<td>• The nature of CSR</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>7/4/2010</td>
<td>Barclays Plc</td>
<td>Head of Mass Market and Distribution at Barclays Bank</td>
<td>Mr Daniel Knoll</td>
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</tr>
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<td><a href="mailto:Daniel.Knoll@barclays.com">Daniel.Knoll@barclays.com</a></td>
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<td>• The relationship between CI and CSR.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>13/4/2010</td>
<td>Nokia Mobile Phones</td>
<td>Product Marketing Manager</td>
<td>Ms Jennifer Svreck</td>
<td>• The nature and meaning of CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:Jennifer.Svreck@nokia.com">Jennifer.Svreck@nokia.com</a></td>
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<td>Topics</td>
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<td>DANONE UK</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility Manager</td>
<td>Ms Marie de Muizon</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>19/04/2010</td>
<td>Ford of Europe</td>
<td>Director, Marketing Communication</td>
<td>Ms Maureen Graham</td>
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<td>22.</td>
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<td>Senior Public Affairs Manager</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Director of Corporate Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>25.</td>
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<td>BBC Worldwide</td>
<td>Head of Communications, Digital Media and Strategy</td>
<td>Ms Esther Brown</td>
<td>The nature and meaning of CI, Elements of CI, The relationship between CI and CSR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:esther.brown@bbc.com">esther.brown@bbc.com</a></td>
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</table>
Appendix 3: Interview Schedule

First Empirical Phase
Interview Schedule

Organisation: ______________________________
Time: ______________________________
Name of the Interviewee(s): ______________________________
Position: ______________________________

OPENING

Greeting to: Mr/Mrs/Ms: ______________________________

My name is Marwa Tourky, a full time lecturer at Tanta University (Egypt) and a second year PhD student at the University of Hull (United Kingdom). I am conducting research, under the supervision of Professor Philip Kitchen (Director of the Centre for Marketing and Communications-University of Hull), with the aim of exploring the nature/meaning of the concept of corporate identity and its determinants/elements as well as its relationship with corporate social responsibility (CSR) within UK organisations. I am now entering the empirical phase of my research, which requires depth interviews with key executives in selected UK organisations.

Considering this aim, I will seek to explore the following objectives:

1. To determine the nature/meaning of corporate identity based on practitioner perspectives, from organisations in the UK.
2. To identify the key elements of corporate identity and their sub-elements in order to develop a comprehensive model of corporate identity construct thus encompassing all salient aspects.
3. To gain insights into the nature of CSR and its elements.
4. To investigate the relationship between corporate identity and CSR - how corporate identity elements affect business commitment to CSR practices / how elements of corporate identity interact with and contribute to CSR.

Given your expertise and experience related to this topic, I would request your assistance and co-operation in providing an interview on the concept of corporate identity. I assure you that information obtained from this interview will be treated confidentially in its aggregate form, and for the purposes of academic research.
START

Objective 1: Determine the nature/meaning of corporate identity.
1. First, what do the terms ‘corporate identity’ and ‘corporate identity management’ mean to your organisation?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
2. Please describe the corporate identity of your company?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
3. What were the motives leading your company to manage its corporate identity/or What were the triggering factors to the development of corporate identity?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Objective 2: Identify the key determinants of corporate identity and their sub-elements.
1. Does your company have a specific or particular process for corporate identity management? If yes, can you please explain it?/or How do you manage your company’s identity?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
2. What elements do you consider when developing corporate identity?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
3. Could you please explain how your company’s visual expressions (logo, name, slogan, colour, typography, architecture, interior design, stationary, retail signage) convey your company’s identity? What particular message do they convey? How do they interact with each other and the other forms of communication you use?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
4. Please explain your company’s behaviour in terms of social responsibility, your managers and employees' behaviour in daily interactions with the members of the public convey your company's identity? How do they interact with the other elements of corporate identity that you use?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
5. What are the forms or formats of corporate communication used to communicate the identity of your company?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
6. Relating to question (5), how do marketing communications messages and other forms of corporate communications relate to corporate identity?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

10
7. What do you think is the impact of other factors (such as Word-of-mouth, the information retained in memory and intermediaries) on the effectiveness of your company’s identity communication? How do these intersect with your company’s corporate communication?

8. How would you describe your corporate culture? And what are its sub-elements?

9. From your view, what is the role/significance of corporate culture when developing corporate identity?

10. Could you identify any sub-cultures in your organisation? And if any exist, what is their impact on corporate identity?

11. Please explain the role of each of the following: mission statement, corporate history, country of origin, founder of the company in the development of corporate identity?

12. What corporate branding structure does your company adopt: monolithic, endorsed or branded structure? How does this structure help your organisation create a unique identity and distinguish itself from competitors?

13. How could you describe your organisational structure (centralized vs. decentralized)? And how does this impact the development of corporate identity?

14. From your view, do you consider ‘organisation structure’ and ‘brand structure’ elements of corporate identity? Explain?

Objective 3: Gain insights into the nature of CSR and its elements.

1. What does ‘corporate social responsibility’ mean to your organisation?

2. What is included in your CSR?

3. What factors are considered prominent in selecting areas of social involvement by the firm?

4. Which stakeholder groups are considered important for your organisation?
5. Which stakeholder issues are presented by your business as the main targets of your CSR practices?

6. How do different stakeholders influence organisations’ CSR practices and ethical practices?

Objective 4: Investigate the relationship between corporate identity and CSR.

1. Does your company consider CSR when developing its corporate identity? And if yes, how and in what ways?

2. Is commitment to social responsibility and social inclusion reflected in CI? and how?

3. How does your company integrate/inculcate its social responsibility initiatives into its corporate identity program?

4. From your opinion, how does CSR relate to corporate identity?/ or What is the nature of the relation between corporate identity and CSR?

5. Is CSR considered a triggering factor to corporate identity? and if yes, could you please explain how?

I would like to thank you again for your kind cooperation and valuable time.
Appendix 4: Using Nvivo9

Nvivo9 software is used in this thesis as a tool to aid the process of analyzing and interpreting the data collected, enhance flexibility and comprehensiveness of data management. Chapter 5 indicates how Nvivo9 has been integrated with in the data analysis process. The following are snapshots of the work done. It includes examples on creating cases for the evidence collected, the coding process, as well as examples of memos and annotations taken.

Figure 1: Creating Folders Using NVivo9
Figure 2: An Overview to the Cases Created In Nvivo9 - Text Files

Figure 3: An example of Using the Annotation Tool of Nvivo9.

Note: annotations were used in this thesis to allow the researcher to add notes and ideas and within the same text file. The above highlighted text is part of the interview which is annotated; it is hyperlinked within the same window as shown above.
Figure 4: Creating Initial or Early Level Codes in Nvivo9

Note: initial codes are named as free nodes in Nvivo9 project. The figure shows how the coded text is hyperlinked to its source to be able to easily retrieve the whole interview.

Figure 5: Creating Abstract Codes or Categories in Nvivo9

Higher-level codes are named tree codes in Nvivo9 project- an example of CI Elements
An example of CI elements

This is an example of creating memos using Nvivo9 and how memos are attached/related to the text/interviews where they have been taken.
Appendix 5: Consent Forms

THE HUBS RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CONSENT FORM (INTERVIEWS)

I, [Name], of [Address], hereby agree to participate in this study to be undertaken by Marwa Tourky, PhD student at Hull University, Business School, and I understand that the purpose of the research is exploring the meaning of corporate identity and its relationship with corporate social responsibility (CSR) in UK organisations. Considering this aim, the researcher will seek to explore the following objectives:

1. To explore the meaning of corporate identity in UK organisations.
2. To identify the key elements (and their sub-elements) of corporate identity in UK organisations.
3. To gain insights into the nature of CSR and its elements in UK organisations.
4. To investigate the relationship between corporate identity and CSR in UK organisations.
5. To explore how corporate identity elements affect business commitment to CSR practices in UK organisations.
6. To explore how elements of corporate identity interact with and contribute to CSR in UK organisations.
I understand that:

1. Upon receipt, my interview will be coded and my name and address kept separately from it.

2. Any information that I provide will not be made public in any form that could reveal my identity to an outside party, i.e. I will remain fully anonymous.

3. Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.

4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my authorisation.

5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

6. The researcher, supervisors and examiners could contact me in the future for further information.

7. The interview will take about 45-60 minutes to complete.

Signature of Participant:  
Date:

Contact details of the Researcher:

Marwa Tourky,  
Hull University Business School, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX  
Email: m.e.tourky@2007.hull.ac.uk

Contact details of the Secretary to the HUBS Research Ethics Committee:

Karen Walton,  
Hull University Business School, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX  
Email: k.a.walton@hull.ac.uk  
Tel: 01482-463646
I, 

**Hereby agree** to participate in this study to be undertaken by Marwa Tourky, PhD student at Hull University, Business School, and I understand that the purpose of the research is exploring the meaning of *corporate identity* relationship and its relationship with *corporate social responsibility* (CSR) in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry. Considering this aim, the researcher will seek to explore the following objectives:

1. To explore the meaning of corporate identity in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
2. To identify the key elements (and their sub-elements) of corporate identity in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
3. To gain insight into the nature of CSR and its elements in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
4. To investigate the relationship between corporate identity and CSR in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
5. To explore how corporate identity elements affect business commitment to CSR practices in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
6. To explore how elements of corporate identity interact with and contribute to CSR in UK organisations operating in the Food and Beverage Industry.
I understand that:

1. Upon receipt, my questionnaire will be coded and my name and address kept separately from it.

2. Any information that I provide will not be made public in any form that could reveal my identity to an outside party, i.e. I will remain fully anonymous.

3. Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals.

4. Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my authorisation.

5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study, in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

6. The researcher, supervisors and examiners could contact me in the future for further information.

7. The questionnaire will take about 15-20 minutes to complete.

Signature of Respondent: Date:

Contact details of the researcher:

Marwa Tourky,
Hull University Business School, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX
Email: m.e.tourky@2007.hull.ac.uk

Contact details of the Secretary to the HUBS Research Ethics Committee:

Karen Walton,
Hull University Business School, University of Hull, Cottingham Road, Hull, HU6 7RX
Email: k.a.walton@hull.ac.uk
Tel. 01482-463646
## Appendix 6: Complete Item Pool with Respective Removal Phase in Scaling Process

### Table 1: Complete Item Pool with Respective Removal Phase in CI Scaling Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Item Elimination Process</th>
<th>Sources/adopted from</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Our sales promotion is an important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Our direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings) is an important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The sponsorship activities of our company are important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Our public relations activities (e.g., sponsoring; trade, press and media relations) are important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Our trade shows/exhibitions are important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Our marketing collateral (brochures, letterheads, tenders, forms, documentation, etc) is an important part of our corporate marketing</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Our internal marketing is an important part of our corporate marketing.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Our annual report is an important channel of corporate information.</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Our internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The products and services of the company are important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td>Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006), Van Riel (1995), Exploratory interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Our organisation's advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td>Simoes et al. (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
<td>Removed at CFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td>Ennew et al. (2000), Schlei (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Encouraging Word-of-Mouth is key to our corporate identity strategy.</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth (for instance through our websites, facebook, etc).</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps to attract customers</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the most effective forms of our corporate communications</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Retention Status</td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Our corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours, visual style, signage) are important part of our</td>
<td>Removed at Expert</td>
<td>Simoes et al. (2005), Melewar and Saunders (1998, 1999, 2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>corporate identity.</td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Our logo is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td>Stuart (1998), Melewar and Saunders (1998, 1999, 2000), Melewar et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The logo of our company communicates what it stands for.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>It is easy to recall the logo of our company.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>It is easy to recall the name of the company.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>The colour and typography used on all visual materials of our company communicate what it stands for</td>
<td>Removed at Expert</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognised.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Our company vehicles are identified by our corporate name and/or logo.</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Our stationary is designed to match the overall visual elements of our organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>The architecture and the interior design of the company’s buildings communicate what it stands for.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
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<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td>Van den Bosch et al. (2004, 2005, 2006a, 2006b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual identity.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Everyone in our organisation complies with our visual identity lines.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply our corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Retimed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Our organisation has formal guidelines for corporate visual elements.</td>
<td>Removed at CFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>I know the rationale behind our company logo.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity provides a good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>The guidelines of our corporate visual identity are updated regularly.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>In our organisation we have tools that help us apply the corporate visual identity easily.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Within our organisation it’s easy to get information on the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>We get good answers when we have questions on the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Applying the corporate visual identity is a matter of course in our organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>When I do not apply the corporate visual identity, I get criticised.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>I get positive feedback when I apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Everyone has access to corporate visual identity guidelines.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>A helpdesk for questions about the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>A corporate visual identity manager in the organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Preferred suppliers for the execution of the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Removed at CFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Managers setting an example.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity fits our organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.</td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Everyone applies the CVI as they feel best.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Mgt Behaviour</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
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<td>69.</td>
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<td>70.</td>
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<td>71.</td>
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<td>72.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee Behaviour</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
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<td>74.</td>
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<td>75.</td>
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<td>80.</td>
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<td>81.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
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<tr>
<td>83.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Stogdill (1963); Stogdill et al. (1962); Simoes et al. (2005); Smidts et al. (2001); Mael and Ashforth (1992; 1995); Mael and Terick (1992); Brown and Dacin (1997), Balmer and Soenen (1999), Gardberg and Fombrun (2002)
<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Retention Status</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>85.</td>
<td>Our company cares about environmental issues.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86.</td>
<td>Our company treats the local public very well.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87.</td>
<td>Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88.</td>
<td>Our company treats people with high standards.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89.</td>
<td>Our company contributes a lot to the communities in which it operates.</td>
<td>Removed at CFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90.</td>
<td>We are an environmentally responsible company.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91.</td>
<td>Our company cares very little about the safety of its customers and employees.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92.</td>
<td>Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td>Melew and Karaosmanoglu (2006), Exploratory Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td>Deshpande et al. (1993), Deshpande and Farley (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96.</td>
<td>Our organisation is operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done).</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97.</td>
<td>The head of our company is generally considered to be a mentor (a sage, or a father figure).</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur (an innovator, or a risk taker).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-ordinator (an organiser, or an administrator).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an operational technician (a producer, or hard driven).</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is commitment to innovation and development.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103.</td>
<td>The glue that holds my organisation together is formal rules and policies.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises human resources (high cohesion is important).</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises competitive actions and achievement (measurable goals is important).</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission Statement</td>
<td>Retained/Removed</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109. There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td>Baker and Sinkula (1999), Sinkula et al. (1997), Simoes et al. (2005), Exploratory interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110. In our organisation, employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes)</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111. Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112. There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113. In our organisation, employees are committed to achieving the organisational goals.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114. Organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115. Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116. Employees view themselves as partners in charting the direction of the business unit/organisation.</td>
<td>Removed at Expert panel stage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117. We have a well-defined mission.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118. The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>119. Our organisation founder used to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Removed at Reliability Analysis</td>
<td>Hall et al. (2004), Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006), Exploratory Interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120. The founding principles continue to be an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121. The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td>Bass (1985, 1990), Bass and Avolio (1989), Bass et al. (2003), Bass and Bass (2008)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122. The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>123. The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>124. The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125. The approach our organisation founder used to encourage us to rethink our ideas continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>126. The approach our organisation founder used to suggests ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>127. The approach our organisation founder used to help platoon employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Our organisation has a procedure in place to respond to every customer complaint.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td>Maignan et al. (1999), Maignan and Ferrell (1999, 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Our organisation continually improves the quality of products.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The business has been successful at maximizing profits.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Our organisation strives to lower operating costs.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Our organisation closely monitors employees’ productivity.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>In our organisation, top management establishes long term strategies for business.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws.</td>
<td>Removed at CFA</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>In our organisation, all products meet legal standards.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>In our organisation, contractual obligations are always honoured.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>In our organisation, managers try to comply with law.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>My/Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>In our organisation, internal policies prevent discrimination in employees’ compensation and promotion.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Our organisation has a comprehensive code of conduct.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Members of my/our organisation follow professional standards.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>Our organisation is organised as a trustworthy company.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>In our organisation, a confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Removed Reason</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>In our organisation, salespersons and employees are required to provide full and accurate information to all customers.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The salaries offered by our organisation are higher than industry average.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Our organisation supports employees who require additional education.</td>
<td>Retained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Our organisation encourages employees to join civic organisations that support community.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>In our organisation, flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Our organisation gives adequate contribution to charities.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>In our organisation, a program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in business.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Our organisation encourages partnerships with local businesses and schools.</td>
<td>Removed at EFA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Our organisation supports local supports and cultural activities.</td>
<td>Removed at Pretest/pilot stage survey</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
Appendix 7: Experience Survey for Expert Panel

EXPERIENCE SURVEY FOR EXPERT PANEL

This survey represents the first step in developing a valid and reliable Corporate Identity scale. In the context of this research, ‘corporate’ relates to brands operating in Food & Beverage industry.

For each statement please indicate the extent you believe the following items represent the domain of corporate brand identity. This can be achieved by checking the box underneath each statement within MS Word. (For the final survey a five point Likert Scale will be used). Additional comments or suggestions are welcome. These can be provided in the space to the right of each statement. Comments could relate to item clarity / conciseness or the need for alternative wording.

Finally, at the end of the questionnaire please note any items you feel should be included or any other points you wish to make. All responses will be treated in confidence. Thank you for assisting with this research. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me on m.e.tourky@2007.hull.ac.uk / +440750746946. Regards, Marwa
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Items</th>
<th>Not Representative</th>
<th>Representative</th>
<th>Clearly Representative</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Our advertising is an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Our sales promotion is an important part of our corporate marketing.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Our direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings) is an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>The sponsorship activities of our company are important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Our Public Relations activities (e.g. sponsoring; trade, press and media relations) are important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Our trade shows/exhibitions are important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Our marketing collateral (brochures, letterheads, tenders, forms, documentation, etc) is an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Our internal marketing is an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Our annual report is an important channel of corporate information.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Our internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>The products and services of the company are important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Our organisation's advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
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<td>Statement</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Encouraging Word-of-Mouth is key to our corporate brand identity strategy.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps to attract customers.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the most effective forms of our corporate communications.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Our corporate symbols (logo, slogan, colours, visual style, signage) are important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Our logo is an important part of who we are.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The logo of our company communicates what it stands for.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>It is easy to recall the logo of our company.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>24.</td>
<td>Our organisation name is an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>The name of our company communicates what it stands for.</td>
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<td>It is easy to recall the name of the company.</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what it stands for.</td>
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<td>28.</td>
<td>The architecture and the interior design of the company’s buildings communicate what it stands for.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Our facilities/premises are important part/constituents of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image.</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken.</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Our vehicles are important part/constituents of our corporate identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Our company vehicles are identified by our organisation name and/or logo.</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>Our stationary is an important part/constituent of our corporate identity.</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>Our stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements/identity of our organisation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>The colour and typography used on all visual materials of our company communicate what it stands for.</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>The colour and typography used on all visual materials of the company are easily recognised.</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>The font we use is an important part/constituent of our visual identity.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<td>39</td>
<td>Everyone in our organisation complies with our visual identity lines/rules.</td>
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<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>It is important to apply our corporate visual identity.</td>
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<td>Comment:</td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
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<td>42</td>
<td>Our organisation has formal guidelines for corporate visual elements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>I know the rationale behind our company logo</td>
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32
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The CVI provides a good image of our organisation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The guidelines of our corporate visual identity are up to date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We have tools that help us apply the corporate visual identity easily</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Within our organisation it's easy to get information on the corporate visual identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>We get good answers when we have questions on the corporate visual identity</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Applying the CVI is a matter of course in our organisation</td>
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<td>When I do not apply the CVI, I get criticised</td>
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<td>I get positive feedback when I apply the corporate visual identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Everyone in the organisation has access to our corporate visual identity guidelines</td>
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<td></td>
<td>In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A helpdesk for questions about the corporate visual identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A corporate visual identity manager in the organisation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Preferred suppliers for the execution of the corporate visual identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity</td>
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Comment: [44] [45] [46] [47] [48] [49] [50] [51] [52] [53] [54] [55] [56] [57] [58]
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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>In our organisation, managers set an example.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our corporate visual identity fits our organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyone in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyone in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyone applies the corporate visual identity as they feel best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our organisational manager acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our organisational manager publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our organisational manager speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our organisational manager represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our organisational manager is an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees of our company treat customers very well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>When I talk about my company, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>My sense of pride towards the corporate brand is reinforced by the brand-related messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>I feel a sense of ownership for my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79</td>
<td>I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>Our company really cares about its employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>Our company supports corporate giving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84</td>
<td>Our company treats its employees very well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>Our company cares about environmental issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>Our company treats the local public very well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87</td>
<td>Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>Our company treats people with high standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89</td>
<td>Our company contributes a lot to the communities in which it operates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>We are an environmental responsible company.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Community:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>91.</td>
<td>Our company cares very little about the safety of its customers and employees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92.</td>
<td>Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>95.</td>
<td>Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96.</td>
<td>Our organisation is operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97.</td>
<td>The head of our company is generally considered to be a mentor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-ordinator.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an operational technician.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is commitment to innovation and development.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103.</td>
<td>The glue that holds my organisation together is formal rules and policies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104.</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises human resources. High cohesion and morale in the firm are important.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>106.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises growth and acquiring new resources. Readiness to meet new challenges is important.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises competitive actions and achievement. Measurable goals are important.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.</td>
<td>The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.</td>
<td>There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111.</td>
<td>All employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112.</td>
<td>Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113.</td>
<td>There is a total agreement on our mission across all levels and business areas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114.</td>
<td>All employees are committed to achieving the company's goals.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115.</td>
<td>The company's values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116.</td>
<td>Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117.</td>
<td>Employees view themselves as partners in charting the direction of the business unit/organisation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118.</td>
<td>We don’t have a well-defined mission.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>119.</td>
<td>Organisation founder used to be an important part of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The founding principles continue to be an important part of our corporate identity.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>120.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect is continues to be an important part of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission is continues to be an important part of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead is continues to be an important part of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission is continues to be an important part/constituent of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>124.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to encourage us to rethink our ideas is continues to be an important constituent of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems is continues to be an important constituent of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>126.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to help platoon employees to develop their strengths is continues to be an important constituent of our corporate brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>127.</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please note additional items or comments you feel are important when measuring corporate brand identity (use as much space as required):

Thank you for your time, Marwa
Appendix 8: Covering Letter and Final Survey

<<Date>>
«Prefix» «First_name» «Surname»
«Executive_Title»
«Company_Name»
«Address_Line_1»
«Address_Line_2»
«Address_Line_3»
«City» «Postal_Code»
Reference: «Reference»

Dear «Prefix» «First_name»,

I am writing to ask for your help with my PhD research by completing the enclosed survey. The topic looks at trends in corporate identity (as brand) management and its relationship with corporate social responsibility (CSR) in the food and beverage industry.

Given the senior position you hold at «Company_Name» you were identified as a particularly suitable respondent. Your contact details were obtained from the ONESOURCE database hosted at the British Library.

The information gathered will identify which brand marketing activities are the most significant and the relevant effect on CSR in the food and beverage industry. The success of this research project depends entirely on the co-operation of every single Corporate Director/Manager.

As a token of my appreciation, I would like to offer you executive summary findings. Please provide your email at the end of the survey. If you do not have time to complete the survey but would like to receive summary findings please return the uncompleted survey with your email address (at the end) in the enclosed stamp addressed envelope.

The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and it will not be possible to identify individual businesses as a result. The data will only be used in an aggregate form for the purpose of academic research.

I would be grateful if the completed survey could be returned in the stamped addressed envelope as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please contact me at 07507469467.

Thank you in advance for your kind co-operation. I look forward to receiving your completed survey.

Yours sincerely,

Marwa Tourky
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
m.e.tourky@2007.hull.ac.uk.
Corporate Identity & Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Survey

This survey is divided into two sections; the first section is related to Corporate Identity and concerns three categories: Marketing & Communications; Behaviour and Organisational Culture – while the second section fully concerns CSR.

Section One: Corporate Identity

Which of the following statements best describes the visual style (e.g., facilities, logo, stationery) of your corporation? (Please tick only one)

- The whole corporation - subsidiaries and parent company - uses one visual style
- Subsidiaries have their own style but the parent company remains recognisable
- Subsidiaries have their own style and the parent company is not recognisable

Marketing & Communications

The following statements are concerned with the importance of your marketing and communications activities in relation to your corporate identity. Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the statements from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and tick the box that reflects your opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communications:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The following aspects are an important part of our corporate marketing:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Public Relations activities (e.g. press and media relations)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trade shows/exhibitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Internal marketing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps attract customers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging Word-of-Mouth with different stakeholders is key to our marketing strategy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation’s advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The annual report is an important channel of corporate information</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth (for instance through our websites, facebook, etc).</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Products and services of the company are an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the effective forms of our corporate communications.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
## Visual Identity & Consistency:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our logo is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The guidelines for our corporate visual identity are updated regularly.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognised</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Our stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements of our organisation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Our organisation has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The corporate visual identity provides a good image of our organisation.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Our company vehicles are identified by our corporate name and/or logo.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**Behaviour**

The following statements are concerned with the importance of behaviour in relation to your corporate identity. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and tick the box that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate, Management &amp; Employee Behaviour</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We are an environmentally responsible company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My sense of pride toward the corporate brand is reinforced by brand-related messages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our company supports philanthropy (for instance, works with local disadvantaged groups, etc.).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I talk about my company, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our company treats its employees well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organisational Culture**

The following statements are concerned with the importance of organisational culture, mission and founder in relation to your corporate identity. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and circle the number that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation is...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...a personal place (it is like a family).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...a formalised structural place with established procedures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...a mentor.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...an entrepreneur.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...a co-ordinator.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...an operational technician.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The glue that holds our organisation together is...

- loyalty and tradition.
- commitment to innovation and development.
- formal rules and policies.
- the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment.

Our organisational emphasises...

- human resources (high cohesion is important).
- growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams).
- permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations).
- competitive actions/ achievement (measurable goals are important).

Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are.

### Mission Statement & Organisation Founder:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation founder used to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, employees are committed to achieving the organisational goals.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The founding principles continue to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We don’t have a well-defined mission.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to help employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to encourage employees to rethink their ideas continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.

### Section Two: Corporate Social Responsibility

The following statements are concerned with your corporate social responsibility. Please indicate the extent of your agreement from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and circle the number that reflects your opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSR:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation continually improves the quality of products.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The business has been successful at maximizing profits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation strives to lower operating costs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation has a comprehensive code of conduct.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, a confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation supports employees who require additional education.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation contributes to charities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, a program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation encourages partnerships with local businesses and schools.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisational products meet legal standards.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Background Data about the organisation: Please tick in the appropriate box:

Your company is located in:

☐ England  ☐ Scotland  ☐ Wales  ☐ North Ireland

Your Business can be classified as:

☐ Business to Business (B2B)  ☐ Business to Consumer (B2C)  ☐ Both (B2B & B2C)
☐ Business to Government  ☐ Others, Please Specify

Your company is selling:

☐ Nationally  ☐ Internationally  ☐ Both

Approximately, how many employees work in your company?

☐ 0-49  ☐ 50-250  ☐ 251 or more

For how many years has your company been in business or trading?

☐ 0-5  ☐ 6-10  ☐ 11-15  ☐ 16-20  ☐ More than 20

Have you been working in your current position

☐ 0-5  ☐ 6-10  ☐ 11-15  ☐ 16-20  ☐ More than 20

Your position in your organisation:
CEO  ☐ Communications Manager/Director  ☐ Marketing Manager/Director
☐ PR Manager/Director  ☐ Others, Please Specify............

Thank you for your co-operation and your participation in this survey.
Your answers will be kept confidential.

If you would like a summary of the results of this survey, please provide your contacts:

1- Email: ___________________________ or
2- Tel: ___________________________ or
3- Mob: ___________________________ or
4- Address: _________________________

In order to ensure anonymity, any correspondence details will be detached from the completed survey upon receipt. If you prefer, you may email your request (email: m.e.tourky@2007.hull.ac.uk).

PLEASE USE THIS SPACE FOR ANY COMMENTS REGARDING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE
Appendix 9: Quantitative Analysis
Appendix 9A: Descriptive Statistics of Sample Characteristics

Table 1: Respondents’ Position in the Organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Manager/Director</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager/Director</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Manager/Director</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR, Corporate Affairs Manager/Director</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR, Citizenship, Sustainability Manager</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Respondents’ Job Experience (Number of Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Years Experience</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Organisational Location in UK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical Territory</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Ireland</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Strategic Visual Identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic VI</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monolithic</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endorsed</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branded</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5: Main Activity within Food & Drink Industrial Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of other food products (bread, biscuits, cakes, cocoa, sugar, etc)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing of Alcoholic Beverages</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of prepared animal feeds</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production, processing and preserving of meat and meat products</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of dairy products</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing of non-alcoholic Beverages</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of grain mill products, starches and starch products</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing and preserving of fish and fish products</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing and preserving of fruit and vegetables</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of vegetable and animal oils and fats</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6: Organisation Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More than 20</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7: Organisation Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Employees</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>250 or more (Large)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-250 (Medium)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-49 (Small)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8: Type of Business Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Operations</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both B2B &amp; B2C</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2B</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2C</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9: Scope of Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scope of Operations</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both Nationally &amp; Internationally</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationally</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationally</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 9B: Normality Distribution Tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR1: Advertising</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR2: Sales Promotion</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR3: Direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings)</td>
<td>.238</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR4: Sponsorship</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR5: Public Relations activities (e.g. press and media relations)</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_BR6: Trade shows/exhibitions</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR7: Internal marketing</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR8: The internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR9: The annual report is an important channel of corporate information.</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_BR10: Products and services of the company are an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_CNS1: Our organisation’s advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_CNS2: Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_WOM1: Word-of-Mouth helps attract customers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_WOM2: Encouraging Word-of-Mouth with different stakeholders is key to our marketing strategy.</td>
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<td>126</td>
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<td>COM_WOM3: We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
<td>.299</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM4: We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth (for instance through our websites, facebook, etc).</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM5: Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM_WOM6: Word-of-Mouth is one of the effective forms of our corporate communications.</td>
<td>.317</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG1: Our logo is an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG2: The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG3: The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG4: The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognised</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG5: The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG6: Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image</td>
<td>.285</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG7: Our stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements of our organisation.</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG8: Our company vehicles are identified by our corporate name and/or logo.</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP1: Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual brand identity.</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP2: The corporate visual identity provides a good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP3: There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI_OP4: Our organisation has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements.</td>
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<td>126</td>
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<tr>
<td>CVI_OP5: The guidelines for our corporate visual identity are updated regularly.</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP6: In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally.</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP7: Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken.</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS1: Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_RevCN2</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS3: Staff in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>.302</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS4: Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS5: In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_RevCN6</td>
<td>.352</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS7: Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS8: In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP1: We are an environmentally responsible company.</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP2: Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates.</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP3: Our company supports philanthropy (for instance, works with local disadvantaged groups, etc.).</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP4: Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP5: Our company treats its employees well.</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT1: Our CEO/head of our organisation acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT2: Our CEO/head of our organisation speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT3: Our CEO/head of our organisation publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
<td>.317</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT4: Our CEO/head of our organisation represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
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<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT5: Our CEO/head of our organisation is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP1: I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP2: I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP3: I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP4: My sense of pride toward the corporate brand is reinforced by brand-related messages.</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP5: I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP6: I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP7: When I talk about my company, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURE_0: Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD1: Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family)</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD2: Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas)</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD3: Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD4: Our organisation is operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done)</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD1: The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a mentor (a sage, or a father figure)</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD2: The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur (an innovator, or a risk taker)</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD3: The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-coordinator (an organiser, or an administrator)</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD4: The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an operational technician (a producer, or hard driven)</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL1: The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL2: The glue that holds our organisation together is commitment to innovation and development</td>
<td>.299</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL3: The glue that holds our organisation together is formal rules and policies</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Value1</td>
<td>Value2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL4: The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment</td>
<td>.317</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM1: Our organisation emphasises human resources (high cohesion is important)</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM2: Our organisation emphasises growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams)</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM3: Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations)</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM4: Our organisation emphasises competitive actions/achievement (measurable goals are important)</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST1: In our organisation, employees are committed to achieving the organisational goals</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST2: There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST3: Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees</td>
<td>.302</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST4: Organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST5: Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST6: There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST7: The mission statement is an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST8: In our organisation, employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes)</td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND1: Our organisation founder used to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND2: The founding principles continue to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND3: The approach our organisation founder used to help employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND4: The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND5: The approach our organisation founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND6: The approach our organisation founder used to encourage employees to rethink their ideas continues to be an important part of who we are</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND7</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND8</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND9</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO1</td>
<td>Our organisation continually improves the quality of products.</td>
<td>.271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO2</td>
<td>Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance.</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO3</td>
<td>The business has been successful at maximizing profits.</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO4</td>
<td>Our organisation strives to lower operating costs.</td>
<td>.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL1</td>
<td>In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws.</td>
<td>.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL2</td>
<td>Our organisational products meet legal standards.</td>
<td>.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL3</td>
<td>Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.</td>
<td>.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL4</td>
<td>Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce.</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH1</td>
<td>Our organisation has a comprehensive code of conduct.</td>
<td>.281</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH2</td>
<td>In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community.</td>
<td>.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH3</td>
<td>In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process.</td>
<td>.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH4</td>
<td>In our organisation, a confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.</td>
<td>.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL1</td>
<td>Our organisation supports employees who require additional education.</td>
<td>.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL2</td>
<td>In our organisation, flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.</td>
<td>.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL3</td>
<td>Our organisation contributes to charities.</td>
<td>.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL4</td>
<td>In our organisation, a program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in business.</td>
<td>.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL5</td>
<td>Our organisation encourages partnerships with local businesses and schools.</td>
<td>.268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 9C: Initial CI Dimensions, Conceptual Factors and Measurement Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/Subscale</th>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Survey Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CORPORATE COMMUNICATIONS (18 Items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled Communication</td>
<td>COM_BR1</td>
<td>Advertising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR2</td>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR3</td>
<td>Direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR4</td>
<td>Sponsorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR5</td>
<td>Public Relations activities (e.g., press and media relations)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR6</td>
<td>Trade shows/exhibitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR7</td>
<td>Internal marketing</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>COM_BR8</td>
<td>The internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_BR9</td>
<td>The annual report is an important channel of corporate information</td>
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<td></td>
<td>COM_BR10</td>
<td>Products and services of the company are an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>COM_CNS1</td>
<td>Our organisation’s advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_CNS2</td>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncontrolled Communication</td>
<td>COM_WO M1</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps attract customers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WO M2</td>
<td>Encouraging Word-of-Mouth with different stakeholders is key to our marketing strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WO M3</td>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>COM_WO M4</td>
<td>We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth (for instance through our websites, Facebook, etc.).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>COM_WO M5</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COM_WO M6</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the effective forms of our corporate communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY (23 Items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG1</td>
<td>Our logo is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG2</td>
<td>The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG3</td>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>CVI_DG4</td>
<td>The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognised</td>
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<td>CVI_DG5</td>
<td>The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP1</td>
<td>Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual brand identity.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP2</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity provides a good image of our organisation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP3</td>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>CVI_OP4</td>
<td>Our organisation has formal guidelines for brand/visual elements.</td>
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<td>The guidelines for our corporate visual identity are updated regularly.</td>
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<td>CVI_OP6</td>
<td>In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP7</td>
<td>Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applications of CVIS</td>
<td>CVI_DG6</td>
<td>Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG7</td>
<td>Our stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements of our organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_DG8</td>
<td>Our company vehicles are identified by our corporate name and/or logo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency of CVI</td>
<td>CVI_CNS1</td>
<td>Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS2</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS3</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS4</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS5</td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS6</td>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS7</td>
<td>Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CVI_CNS8</td>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BEHAVIOUR (17 Items)</th>
<th>BEH_MGT1</th>
<th>Our CEO/head of our organisation acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT2</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT3</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT4</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_MGT5</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation is an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee Behaviour</th>
<th>BEH_EMP1</th>
<th>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP2</td>
<td>I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP3</td>
<td>I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP4</td>
<td>My sense of pride toward the corporate brand is reinforced by brand-related messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP5</td>
<td>I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP6</td>
<td>I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_EMP7</td>
<td>When I talk about my company, I usually say “we” rather than “they”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate Behaviour</th>
<th>BEH_CRP1</th>
<th>We are an environmentally responsible company.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP2</td>
<td>Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP3</td>
<td>Our company supports philanthropy (for instance, works with local disadvantaged groups, etc.).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP4</td>
<td>Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BEH_CRP5</td>
<td>Our company treats its employees well.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CULTURE (17 Items)</th>
<th>CULT0</th>
<th>Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_KD1</td>
<td>Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_HD1</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a mentor (a sage, or a father figure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_GL1</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_EM1</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises human resources (high cohesion is important)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_KD2</td>
<td>Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_HD2</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur (an innovator, or a risk taker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_GL2</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is commitment to innovation and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CLT_EM2</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical Level</td>
<td>Organisational Level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hierarchy</strong></td>
<td><strong>Market</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD3</td>
<td>Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD3</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-coordinator (an organiser, or an administrator)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTGL3</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is formal rules and policies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM3</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD4</td>
<td>Our organisation is operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD4</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an operational technician (a producer, or hard driven)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL4</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM4</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises competitive actions/ achievement (measurable goals are important)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MISSION STATEMENT (9 Items)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST1</td>
<td>In our organisation, employees are committed to achieving the organisational goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST2</td>
<td>There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST3</td>
<td>We don’t have a well-defined mission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST4</td>
<td>Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST5</td>
<td>Organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST6</td>
<td>Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST7</td>
<td>There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST8</td>
<td>The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST9</td>
<td>In our organisation, employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ORGANISATION FOUNDER (9 Items)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND1</td>
<td>Our organisation founder used to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND2</td>
<td>The founding principles continue to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND3</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to help employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND4</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND5</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND6</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to encourage employees to rethink their ideas continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND7</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND8</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND9</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 9D: Data Purification and Reliability Analysis for CI & CSR Constructs

Table 1: Data Purification for Corporate Communications Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR1</td>
<td>Advertising.</td>
<td>.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR2</td>
<td>Sales Promotion.</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR3</td>
<td>Direct marketing/mail (e.g., mailings).</td>
<td>.323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR4</td>
<td>Sponsorship.</td>
<td>.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR5</td>
<td>Public Relations activities (e.g. press and media relations).</td>
<td>.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR6</td>
<td>Trade shows/exhibitions.</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR7</td>
<td>Internal Marketing.</td>
<td>.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR8</td>
<td>The internal publications (e.g., newsletters) provide key information.</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR9</td>
<td>The annual report is an important channel of corporate information.</td>
<td>.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_BR10</td>
<td>Products and services of the company are an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_CNS1</td>
<td>Our organisation's advertising, PR and sales promotion all present the same clear, consistent message to our stakeholders.</td>
<td>.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_CNS2</td>
<td>Our organisation transmits a consistent visual presentation though facilities, equipment, personnel and communication material.</td>
<td>.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM1</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps attract customers.</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM2</td>
<td>Encouraging Word-of-Mouth with different stakeholders is key to our marketing strategy.</td>
<td>.294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM3</td>
<td>We encourage customers to tell others about our products and services.</td>
<td>.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM4</td>
<td>We actively monitor Word-of-Mouth (for instance through our websites, facebook, etc).</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM5</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth helps with customer retention.</td>
<td>.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM_WOM6</td>
<td>Word-of-Mouth is one of the effective forms of our corporate communications.</td>
<td>.347</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α for Communication = 0.802, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations, Item shaded in grey is deleted for low reliability.
Table 2: Data Purification for CVI Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG1</td>
<td>Our logo is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG2</td>
<td>The organisation name is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG3</td>
<td>The slogan of the company communicates what the company stands for.</td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG4</td>
<td>The colour used on all visual materials is easily recognised.</td>
<td>.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG5</td>
<td>The font we use is an important part of our look.</td>
<td>.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG6</td>
<td>Our facilities are designed to portray a specific image.</td>
<td>.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG7</td>
<td>Our stationery is designed to match the overall visual elements of our organisation.</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_DG8</td>
<td>Our company vehicles are identified by our corporate name and/or logo.</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP1</td>
<td>Our employees and staff understand the meaning of our visual identity.</td>
<td>.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP2</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity provides a good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP3</td>
<td>There is sufficient information to apply the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP4</td>
<td>Our organisation has formal guidelines for corporate visual elements.</td>
<td>.540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP5</td>
<td>The guidelines for our corporate visual identity are updated regularly.</td>
<td>.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP6</td>
<td>In our organisation, there are standard technical tools (e.g., templates) developed centrally.</td>
<td>.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_OP7</td>
<td>Periodically a visual audit of our facilities is undertaken.</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS1</td>
<td>Our organisation can be easily identified by its corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS2*</td>
<td>The corporate visual identity of our organisation is unclear.</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS3</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation contributes to the good image of our organisation.</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS4</td>
<td>Staff in our organisation observes the corporate visual identity rules.</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS5</td>
<td>In our organisation, it is important to apply the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS6*</td>
<td>The visual materials in our organisation lack consistency.</td>
<td>.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS7</td>
<td>Corporate visual identity is an important topic when inducting new personnel.</td>
<td>.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVI_CNS8</td>
<td>In our organisation, there is regular consultation with the users of the corporate visual identity.</td>
<td>.584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α for CVI = .917, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations, * reversed item, Item shaded in grey is deleted for low reliability.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT1</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation acts as the spokesperson of the organisation.</td>
<td>.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT2</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation speaks for the organisation when visitors are present.</td>
<td>.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT3</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation publicizes the activities of the organisation.</td>
<td>.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT4</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation represents the organisation at outside meetings.</td>
<td>.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_MGT5</td>
<td>Our CEO/head of our organisation is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP1</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.</td>
<td>.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP2</td>
<td>I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company.</td>
<td>.778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP3</td>
<td>I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company.</td>
<td>.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP4</td>
<td>My sense of pride toward the corporate brand is reinforced by brand-related messages.</td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP5</td>
<td>I feel strong ties with my company.</td>
<td>.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP6</td>
<td>I am glad to be a member of my company.</td>
<td>.795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_EMP7</td>
<td>When I talk about my company, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’.</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP1</td>
<td>We are an environmentally responsible company.</td>
<td>.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP2</td>
<td>Our company contributes to the communities in which it operates.</td>
<td>.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP3</td>
<td>Our company supports philanthropy (for instance, works with local disadvantaged groups, etc.).</td>
<td>.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP4</td>
<td>Our company respects consumer rights.</td>
<td>.602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEH_CRP5</td>
<td>Our company treats its employees well.</td>
<td>.691</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s $\alpha$ for Behaviour = .928, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations.
Table 4: Data Purification for Culture Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLT_0</td>
<td>Our organisational culture is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD1</td>
<td>Our organisation is a personal place (it is like a family).</td>
<td>.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD2</td>
<td>Our organisation is a dynamic entrepreneurial place (promotes innovative ideas).</td>
<td>.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD3</td>
<td>Our organisation is a formalised structural place with established procedures.</td>
<td>.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_KD4</td>
<td>Our organisation is operations oriented (concerned with getting the job done).</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD1</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a mentor (a sage, or a father figure).</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD2</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an entrepreneur (an innovator, or a risk taker).</td>
<td>.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD3</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be a co-coordinator (an organiser, or an administrator).</td>
<td>.416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_HD4</td>
<td>The head of our organisation is generally considered to be an operational technician (a producer, or hard driven).</td>
<td>.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL1</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is loyalty and tradition.</td>
<td>.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL2</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is commitment to innovation and development.</td>
<td>.466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL3</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is formal rules and policies.</td>
<td>.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_GL4</td>
<td>The glue that holds our organisation together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment.</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM1</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises human resources (high cohesion is important).</td>
<td>.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM2</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises growth and acquiring new resources (or revenue streams).</td>
<td>.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM3</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises permanence and stability (efficient, smooth operations).</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT_EM4</td>
<td>Our organisation emphasises competitive actions/ achievement (measurable goals is important).</td>
<td>.479</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α for Culture = .862, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations.
Table 5: Data Purification for Mission Statement Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST1</td>
<td>In our organisation, employees are committed to achieving the organisational goals.</td>
<td>.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST2</td>
<td>There is a clear concept of who we are and where we are going.</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST3*</td>
<td>We don’t have a well-defined mission.</td>
<td>.648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST4</td>
<td>Senior management shares the corporate mission with employees.</td>
<td>.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST5</td>
<td>Organisation’s values and mission are regularly communicated to employees.</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST6</td>
<td>Managers periodically discuss the corporate mission and values.</td>
<td>.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST7</td>
<td>There is an agreement on our mission across business levels and units.</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST8</td>
<td>The mission statement is an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSN_ST9</td>
<td>In our organisation, employees are aware of the relevant values (norms about what is important, how to behave and appropriate attitudes).</td>
<td>.441</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cranach’s α for Mission Statement = .895, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations, * reversed item.

Table 6: Data Purification for Organisation Founder Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item code</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND1</td>
<td>Our organisation founder used to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND2</td>
<td>The founding principles continue to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND3</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to help employees to develop their strengths continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND4</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to generate respect continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND5</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to suggest ways to get at the heart of complex problems continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND6</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to encourage employees to rethink their ideas continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND7</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to transmit a sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND8</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to provide a vision of what lies ahead continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG_FND9</td>
<td>The approach our organisation founder used to emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission continues to be an important part of who we are.</td>
<td>.838</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α for Organisation Founder = .913, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations, Item shaded in grey is deleted for low reliability.
Table 7: Data Purification for CSR Construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Code</th>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>CITC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO1</td>
<td>Our organisation continually improves the quality of products.</td>
<td>.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO2</td>
<td>Our organisation uses customer satisfaction as an indicator of business performance.</td>
<td>.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO3</td>
<td>The business has been successful at maximizing profits.</td>
<td>.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ECO4</td>
<td>Our organisation strives to lower operating costs.</td>
<td>.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL1</td>
<td>In our organisation, managers are informed about relevant environmental laws.</td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL2</td>
<td>Our organisational products meet legal standards.</td>
<td>.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL3</td>
<td>Our organisation seeks to comply with all the laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.</td>
<td>.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_LGL4</td>
<td>Our organisation has programs that encourage the diversity of workforce.</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH1</td>
<td>Our organisation has a comprehensive code of conduct.</td>
<td>.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH2</td>
<td>In our organisation, top managers monitor the potential negative impacts of business activities on its community.</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH3</td>
<td>In our organisation, fairness towards co-workers and business partners is an integral part of employee evaluation process.</td>
<td>.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_ETH4</td>
<td>In our organisation, a confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.</td>
<td>.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL1</td>
<td>Our organisation supports employees who require additional education.</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL2</td>
<td>In our organisation, flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL3</td>
<td>Our organisation contributes to charities.</td>
<td>.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL4</td>
<td>In our organisation, a program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in business.</td>
<td>.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR_PHL5</td>
<td>Our organisation encourages partnerships with local businesses and schools.</td>
<td>.444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α for CSR = .885, CITC: Corrected Item to Total Correlations.