

## Contributors

**Edward Adams** is the Howard E. Buhse Professor of Finance and Law at the University of Minnesota Law School. He specializes in commercial, bankruptcy, and corporate law. He has practiced law with Latham & Watkins in Chicago. He was Managing Editor of the *University of Chicago Law Review* and he is a former Associate Dean for Academic Affairs at the UMN Law School. He was honored with the Stanley V. Kinyon Teaching and Counseling Award in 1994 and 1996, and was a co-holder of the Julius E. Davis Chair in Law for 1999–2000.

**Stuart Albert** is Associate Professor in the Department of Strategic Management and Organization in the Curtis L. Carlson School of Management at the University of Minnesota. He has a Ph.D. in social psychology and has been a visiting professor at MIT. In addition to his interest in hybrid identity organizations, his current research focuses on problems of timing.

**Monique Brun** is Professor of Marketing at the Institut d'Administration des Entreprises (the Institute for Business Administration) at the University Jean Moulin (Lyon III) in Lyon, France. She is the director of the masters program in services marketing (DESS Marketing des Services). Her research has focused on international marketing and communication, and she has published widely on these topics.

**Samia Chreim** is Assistant Professor of Business Policy and Strategy at the University of Lethbridge, Canada. She holds a Ph.D. from the École des HEC, Montreal. Her research focuses on organizational identity and identification, and their interface with organizational change. Her work has been published in the *Strategic Management Journal*, *Human Relations*, and the *Academy of Management Best Paper Proceedings*.

**Jan-Jelle van Hasselt** is partner of Twynstra Gudde management consultants, specialized in project communications and strategic corporate positioning. He studied management sciences and law, and obtained in 2000 a Master's degree in corporate communication. Jan-Jelle has been involved in defining communications strategies for a broad range of projects and organizational changes. He is editor of the magazine *Communicatie* and co-author

of various books on corporate communication, the Intranet and project management.

Bernard Kahane is Associate Professor of Strategy and in charge of the biotechnology track at the ISTM (Institut Supérieur de Technologie et Management), France. His research and consultancy works focus on R&D strategies, innovation systems, and research policies. He is dealing mainly with networks, loosely coupled organizations, and systems. He is currently visiting Faculty at the Recanati Center of the Tel Aviv University.

Jean-Noël Kapferer is Professor of Marketing at HEC School of Management, Paris. He holds a Ph.D. from Northwestern University (USA) and is internationally held as one of the best experts in brand management. He is the author of more than one hundred articles and two books on the topic: *Strategic Brand Management* and *Re-inventing the Brand*, both published by Kogan-Page.

Bertrand Moingeon is Professor of Strategic Management and Associate Dean for Executive Education at HEC School of Management, Paris. He holds a Ph.D. in sociology and was Visiting Research Scholar at the Harvard Business School. He has published some forty books and articles on organizational learning, strategic management, organizational identity, knowledge management, and has completed numerous consulting and training missions.

Michael G. Pratt (Ph.D., University of Michigan) is an Associate Professor of Business Administration at the University of Illinois. His research utilizes theories of identity/identification, symbolism, socialization, and sense-making in examining the individual-organizational relationship. He is currently exploring the relationship between identity and technology, especially among distributed groups. His work has recently appeared in the *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Academy of Management Journal*, and *Academy of Management Review*.

Roland Reitter (Ph.D., Harvard Business School) is Professor of Strategic Management at HEC School of Management, Paris. He wrote the first book on identity in France in 1979, and he has been teaching and directing research on this topic ever since. He has been a scientific adviser for Accenture for many years. He has just published *Stratégie et Esprit de Finesse* (Economica, 2002).

Johan van Rekom is Assistant Professor in Marketing Research at the Department of Marketing Management at the Faculteit Bedrijfskunde, at the Erasmus University in Rotterdam, the Netherlands. His research focuses on organizational identity and on image, both of organizations and of their brands.

Cees B. M. van Riel is Professor of Corporate Communication at the Rotterdam School of Management of the Erasmus University, Rotterdam. He is the author of several books and articles about corporate identity, reputation management, and corporate branding. He is the Editor in Chief of the *Corporate Reputation Review* and Managing Director of the Reputation Institute together with Charles Fombrun of the New York University.

Intranet and project  
and in charge of the  
r de Technologie et  
works focus on R&D  
He is dealing mainly  
ems. He is currently  
University.

C School of Manage-  
iversity (USA) and is  
management. He is the  
on the topic: *Strategic*  
shed by Kogan-Page.

ement and Associate  
ment, Paris. He holds  
at the Harvard Busi-  
cles on organizational  
, knowledge manage-  
ing missions.

Associate Professor of  
His research utilizes  
on, and sense-making  
ship. He is currently  
ogy, especially among  
e *Administrative Science*  
Management Review.

Professor of Strategic  
wrote the first book on  
directing research on  
r Accenture for many  
Economica, 2002).

ing Research at the  
Bedrijfskunde, at the  
is research focuses on  
izations and of their

ication at the Rotter-  
Rotterdam. He is the  
identity, reputation  
itor in Chief of the  
Reputation Institute  
sity.

**Kevin W. Rock** is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Illinois. His research uses theories of socialization, group behavior, identity, and identification to examine how individuals come to define themselves in terms of their professions, organizations, and organizational teams. He is currently studying these issues specifically among dispersed employees and within virtual teams.

**Guillaume Soenen** is Research Associate at HEC School of Management in Paris, France, where he teaches strategy implementation and the management of change. He works as academic adviser at Cap Gemini Ernst and Young Corporate University. His current research focuses on corporate and organizational identity, as well as knowledge management. He has published notably in the *European Journal of Marketing*, and he is actively involved in executive development.



identity is at best a fiction, Of these three perspectives, developed, and he stressed that identity in fact changes the makes the task of integration

Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995; are notably concluded that (i) the field is surrounded by, and (iii) there is little cross-ly, there were very few cross-Unfortunately, considering reviews are of limited help. th the concept of image than d to the communication and ses conceptual categorization, corporate personality, corporate also shared by Balmer's review subfields (e.g. PR, design, xts. Balmer does justice to the fified up to seven "schools of: those that focus on questions ose that deal with how design egorization makes it difficult ty into a coherent whole. The almer and Soenen (1999) have e. Building on Abratt's (1989) el. This model, primarily based e, distinguishes between four ideal and Desired (for recent b). It introduces the important owever it lacks clear theoretical nd Schultz (2000) have noted identity and image and repu- confusion, they are also a rich between simplified and over- opted the method of relational volves comparing and contrast- this logic, they compared and rganizational image and culture. relational definition of identity, of the concept:

external positions. Who we are the perceptions others have of

us and that we have of others. Multiple images of identity refer to the same organization. Identity is a text that is read in relation to cultural context. Tacit understandings sit alongside overt expressions of identity [and] identity involves the instrumental use of emergent cultural symbols.

(Hatch and Schultz, 2000: 27)

Building on all these works discussed above, we propose an integrated model of organizations' identities.

### The five facets of organizations' identities

Identity emanates from someone and is attributed by someone to someone else – in the case of collective identity, the "someone" is a group. The five-facet framework articulated below is based on the premise that fundamentally, collective identity can be thought of as an answer to the question: who is this group? Clearly, this question can be answered by many people, such as group leaders, group members, key audiences or an external researcher studying the group or organization. This question may seem trivial, but when examined carefully, its responses shed light on the fragmentation, the contradictory definitions, and the lack of cross-fertilization that has until now characterized this field of research. Adopting a multistakeholders perspective, one realizes that much previous work on organizational identity and corporate identity does not actually deal with separate realities, but is instead concerned with the multiple facets of a common underlying empirical phenomenon. Contradiction and fragmentation stem from this "common phenomenon"'s possession of at least five distinct facets (Figure 1.1).

- The *professed* identity refers to what a group or an organization professes about itself. It is the answer, the statement(s) or the claim(s) that organizational members use to define their (collective) identity.
- The *projected* identity refers to the elements an organization uses, in more or less controlled ways, to present itself to specific audiences. It notably consists of communications, behaviors, and symbols. The key distinction between the *professed* and the *projected* identity is that the latter is mediated.
- The *experienced* identity refers to what organizational members *experience*, more or less consciously, with regard to their organization. It consists of a collective representation held by members.
- The *manifested* identity refers to a specific set of more or less tightly coupled elements that have characterized the organization over a period of time. It may be conceived as an organization's "historical" identity.
- The *attributed* identity refers to the attributes that are ascribed to the organization by its various audiences. It differs from the experienced identity which is self-attributed.

Figure 1.1 The five facets of collective identities – definitions.

to define an organization's  
structures are an *identity*  
on implements will often be a  
t of a collective identity. For  
versed work groups will shape  
es – here, structures are an

stem

and develop the idea that the  
form a dynamic system. This  
influence each other. Naturally,  
system, in relation with both  
organizational sub-systems.  
primarily on internal system  
ording to the entity considered:  
on exhibit different dynamics  
we tend to refer more to large

identity dynamics: solid arrows  
e dashed arrows indicate weak  
*projected* identity can be an  
it is also influenced by the  
ty (10). The *experienced* identity  
er mutually (3). The *experienced*  
ity (4). The *attributed* identity  
also directly by the *manifested*  
identity may trigger changes in  
essed identity and the *experienced*  
over time, the *projected* identity  
the *experienced* identity in the  
plays a central role in identity

system is subjected to centri-  
ces can originate either from  
rifugal forces refer to events,  
the gap between the facets, and  
tance, changes in competitors'  
force an organization to change  
ay well occur while the other  
unchanged. On the contrary,

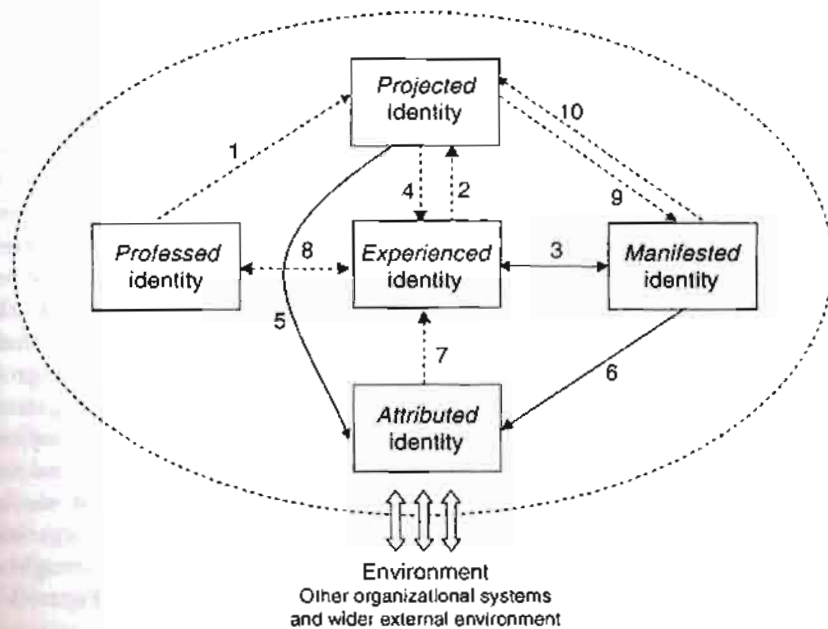


Figure 1.2 The dynamics of the identities of organizations.

centripetal forces refer to events, sequence of events or processes that contribute to maintaining the system's integrity by bringing identity facets into alignment. The "mirror effect" described by Dutton and Dukerich (1991), which we further explore below, is an example of a centripetal force. Empirical evidence for some of these mechanisms is provided in the following paragraphs, but a complete exploration of these dynamics is beyond the scope of this chapter.

#### Past research reinterpreted

Dutton and Dukerich's study (1991) illustrates several of these dynamics. These authors studied the New York Port Authority, a public organization in charge of transportation within the state of New York. Their study describes the organization's reaction when confronted with a sudden increase in the number of homeless people using the Port Authority's bus terminals and train stations as refuges. This rapid increase led to preoccupations about safety and public health for both commuters and employees. Using an inductive approach, the authors showed that prior to the crisis, the organizational identity (we would call this the *experienced* identity) was mirrored in the press and in the public (what we have called the *attributed* identity). Following the crisis, the image sent back by this metaphorical mirror no longer matched the *experienced* identity (nor did it match with the identity and reputation desired by



relatively straightforward: it is the perceptions of organizational members. There is actually no need to further specify the list of acceptable identity features. For the *manifested* identity, it is more complicated: on which elements should a researcher focus? The organization's structure, its product range, its routines, the composition of its Board? The list is practically endless. Mucchielli (1999) proposed a list of possible identity features based on broad categories:

- Ecological referents: characteristics of the eco-system.
- Physical referents: possessions, potentialities, physical appearance.
- Historical referents: origins, key events, historical legacy (such as rites and rituals).
- Cultural referents: cultural system (ideology, values, modes of expression), cognitive system, mentality.
- Social-psychological referents: social references (status, age), affiliations.

For an organization's identity, such a list might include nationality, core competencies, key activities, zone of operation, structure, degree of unionization, strategic alliances, governance form, type of growth, visual identity, reputation, leadership style, corporate culture, etc. The composition of the list varies from one academic discipline to the other. Marketing scholars tend to put the emphasis on identity attributes that can be perceived by external audiences, whereas organization theorists privilege attributes derived from psychological identity theory. Finally, strategists, notably in France, favor attributes that allow them to define organizational identity from the perspective of organizational actors' experiences (e.g., leadership, governance structure, professional qualities required for climbing the corporate ladder). Yet one may question the use of such lists, and instead, argue that the relevant features are better derived qualitatively in each specific research context.

Once the list of identity attributes is defined, the second step consists of clarifying the criteria for the inclusion of a feature in the identity definition. Albert and Whetten (1985) argued that to be part of the organization's identity, an organizational feature must be core, enduring, and distinctive. Larson and Reitter (1979, 1984) had proposed a similar definition. While this characterization of identity has been long accepted, it has recently come under scrutiny (Gioia, Schultz, and Corley, 2000). As previously noted, it is likely that identity criteria are specific to each identity facet.

Finally, one must distinguish the list of identity attributes and the identity criteria from the determinants of identity, the factors that shape the construction of collective identities over time. These determinants influence the mechanisms of adaptation (Schein, 1985; Dutton and Dukerich, 1991) and attribution (Asforth and Mael, 1989) through which a collective identity emerges. The confusion between these notions stems from the fact that certain organizational features can be both identity attributes and determinants of identity. For instance, organizational structures can often constitute the

member is likely to identify with his organizations are noticeable (Pratt is dispersed into a team of fellow am") or whether one is working in consisting primarily of out-group

st three types of dispersion patterns: individuals dispersed into organiza- to non-organizational teams.<sup>1</sup> Each ns has been found in practice. To lone, rather than in a team, would nd mobile salespeople. Employees onal team would include consulting ge that is representing the organiza- co-operative agreement. Finally, an on-organizational team may include clients, or an organizational repre- sisting of members in similar roles ing on an expert panel of members sion types should be viewed as "ideal eem to fall between categorizations. point for theorizing about identifi-

s of EDPs, we now turn our attention nber identification. While treatments ggested that the fundamental differ- n need to be examined (Fritz, Nara- and Dallow, 1999; Williams, 1982), ifferent types of dispersion affect an r organization. Our underlying argu- PPs embody different social contexts - tification, different EDPs will result in

ty, however, to this rather straight- members may already identify with an (b) these members may differ in their hile previous research has examined in types of distributed groups (e.g., 001), most extant research has focused identification. However, we have noted n as a positive, dichotomous variable. Identification (positive, negative, and

ambivalent), all of which can vary by degree (e.g., strong or weak). Taking just these two dimensions, we see that many orientations are theoretically possible (e.g., strong positive, weak negative, etc.). We narrow our focus by choosing three that are most likely to exist in organizational contexts.

To begin, we will examine individuals with both strong and weak levels of positive identification with the organization. This provides an analysis of a range of positive identification, rather than taking just a slice, or assuming all employees with a positive orientation identify similarly. We also look at individuals with more negative attitudes towards the organization. While we believe that individuals who strongly disidentify with their organizations are likely to quit, individuals with weaker levels of disidentification may remain. Finally, we do discuss ambivalent identification, but not as a starting point for identification. Rather, we view ambivalence as a relatively transient state that must be resolved (e.g., Pratt 2000b).<sup>3</sup>

In sum, we argue that employees' type and level of identification prior to dispersion will be changed by the act of dispersion. In addition, we argue that different types of dispersion patterns will moderate this change in identification. These arguments are summarized in Figure 3.1.

We further unpack Figure 3.1 by examining the expected changes in identification of strong identifiers, weak identifiers, and weak disidentifiers who are dispersed in three types of EDPs: (1) a single individual working alone; (2) an individual working in an organizational team; and (3) an individual working in a non-organizational team. We conclude by discussing the managerial issues raised by this analysis.

Figure 3.2 is organized to read from the right to the left. Each different prior identification is situated as a column, corresponding with the "starting" identification place on the bottom axis of the graph. In total, we examine nine scenarios that combine prior identification with a specific EDP. The arrows (if present) represent the directional changes in identification we predict given the prior identification and the corresponding EDP.

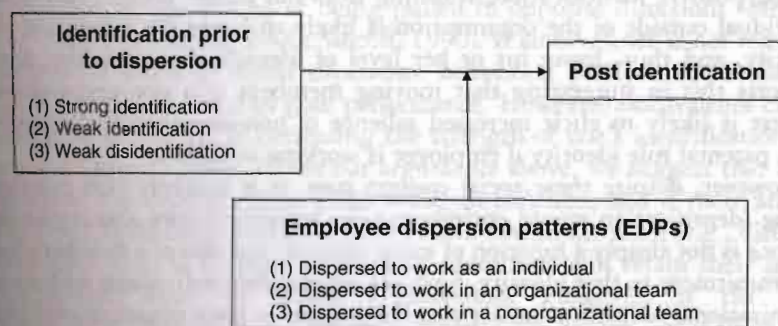


Figure 3.1 A model of employee dispersion patterns (EDPs) and organizational identification.



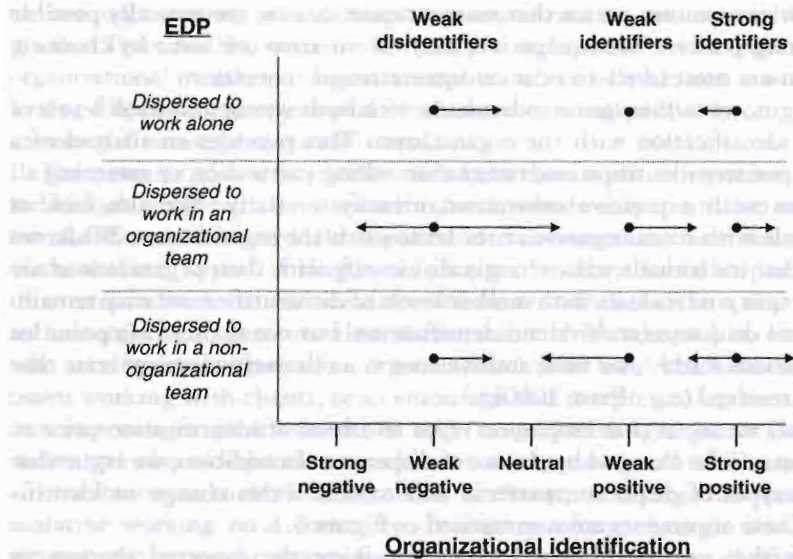


Figure 3.2 The effect of employee dispersion patterns (EDPs) on organizational identification.

### *Strong identifiers and EDPs*

#### *Individual working alone*

We argue that sending a single highly identified worker to work alone outside of the physical confines of the workplace is likely to decrease that member's strong, positive identification. Building from our earlier review, taking this individual outside of the organization is likely to lower the salience of that identity, and thus, lower his or her level of identification. Identity theory supports this in suggesting that moving members to a non-organizational context is likely to elicit increased salience of non-organizational identities (e.g., parental role identity if employee is working at home).

However, despite these social context cues, it is unlikely that members' strong identification would entirely vanish. Identity theory also argues that salience is not simply a function of social context, but also of a member's level of commitment to that identity. Since we assume that individuals with strong organizational identification are also committed to their organizational identity, we expect that employees in this condition will continue to draw upon their organizationally-based identities, although perhaps not as often. Thus, positive identification will likely remain, even if in a slightly weakened form.



identifiers will result in different identification outcomes than dispersing individuals into a team of strong identifiers. At the organizational level, research should continue to examine dispersed organizational culture and identity by investigating how these form and are maintained in dispersed environments.

Our chapter complicates and enhances the identity framework posed in this book through our focus on identification. Identification may be the key that helps link individual conceptualizations of identity with that of the collective (Pratt, in press). As such, we enrich the model by reaching across levels of analysis. We also raise some fundamental questions about the various facets of identity posited in this volume (Soenen and Moingeon, 2002):

- We suggest that continued work be conducted on the interrelationships among identity dynamics across levels of analysis (e.g., Kahane and Reitter, this volume). Research questions may seek to address, for example, how physically dispersing employees influences members' collective cognitive maps of their organization (i.e., their *experienced* identity).
- We suggest that a distributed organization may rely on technologically-mediated communication. How does an organization's communication technology come to *manifest* and change *experienced* identity over time?
- We note that when weak identifiers and weak disidentifiers are dispersed into non-organizational teams, defection to those non-organizational teams can occur. How might this potential defection influence how these non-organizational teams *attribute* characteristics to the organization?
- Finally, we note that dispersing individuals outside of an organization changes their social context, and thus, their attitudes towards and perceptions of the organization. How, then, can an organization best manage its *projected* identity towards dispersed workers so that the nature of the *projected* organizational identity can be maintained? What tools (e.g., symbols, technology, training) can the organization use to further this goal?

In summary, identity in organizations is not only multifaceted, but also multi-layered. We examine how dispersing individuals may change identity dynamics at the micro-level, and suggest that these changes may ultimately reverberate to the macro-level.

### Notes

- 1 It is important to note that our attention here is on employees dispersed into contexts outside of their "home" organization, in environments where other, new, identities may become prominent. While we assume that an employee dispersed alone may work in isolation (e.g., in one's house), our other dispersion examples and arguments are based strictly upon teams being in organizational contexts away from the focal employee's "home" organization (e.g., a client's organization).
- 2 The aim of this chapter is not to claim that these are the only – or the only relevant – EDPs. There are definitely more EDPs that exist and need to be studied. One

evidence of the degree to which this theme permeates top management's portrayal of the bank:

1985 – The Royal Bank is a leader in the application of new technologies for efficient operational management and in making possible a variety of sophisticated new services.

1986 – . . . one of our central corporate goals: to be recognized by our customers as a consistent leader in the value of our products and customer service.

1987 – Dominion Securities Limited has a track record of excellence in service and profitability, based on top-caliber leadership and highly respected professional talent.

1988 – We intend, over time, to lead the Canadian financial services industry not only in terms of size and scope of business, but in terms of profitability as well.

1989 – Our overall objective in Canada is to be the leader, not just in banking, but in providing a broad range of bank-based financial services to all sectors of the market.

– Our leadership in systems and technology, particularly at the client servicing level, is a competitive advantage that we intend to exploit.

1990 – And we are the leader in developing and implementing bank-related technology.

– We are immensely proud of the leadership Royal Bankers demonstrate – not only in the marketplace but also in the community.

1992 – As we move forward, Royal Bank's business strategy will continue to be driven by four corporate objectives . . . : – be the leading Canadian financial institution best positioned globally, – be a leading employer committed to excellence.

1993 – Royal Trust has brought with it strength and leadership in such businesses as personal and institutional trust, securities custody and investment management.

1995 – Royal Bank's strength derives largely from our leading share of the domestic retail financial services market.

1996 – As Canada's premier, and one of its most profitable, global financial institutions dealing with one in three Canadians, we will continue building on our strengths. They include a leading market position in Canada in most of our businesses.

1997 – Royal Bank is Canada's largest financial institution as measured by market capitalization, revenues and net income. We have leading positions in most Canadian financial services markets.

– We want to continue to provide top quartile returns to our shareholders by continuing to lead the industry in ROE, earnings growth and valuation.

– (We have) leading-edge work/family/life, gender gap and diversity policies and programs . . .

(Annual report)



holds their perception of the position in this research:

own organization is closely

### external image

mutual influence of identity them converging all the time. world around them sees them they see themselves (Gioia and ing the impression we make If and to assess the similarity d and of consequence, it can ts of one's identity (Gioia, atton and Dukerich (1991) erved to restore the existing a comparable case concerning attack from the media and a d to dispose of the Brent Spar y to systematically examine pose, and then change organ- ith stakeholder expectations. g things, consistent with the mbrun and Rindova, 2000). that of the New York Port on the identity of an organi- nally *experienced* identity. n outsiders might influence a way which can diverge from empt to achieve prominence, e fore, taking precedence over s, 1996). Gioia and Thomas, eactions of universities when e top 20 US business schools. rganization sometimes select e of comparing themselves change the set of comparisons istics. Members restored or on's identity or highlighted e comparison groups when and Kramer, 1996). People at the external view of their perceptions by emphasizing

other aspects of their organizational identity which help them to rank more favorably in comparison to peer organizations. Comparison with other organizations can apparently substantially influence how members view their own organization, particularly if ranking with peer organizations. The pursuit of distinctiveness may lead members of an organization to creatively attribute certain characteristics to their own organization. They focus on what they do not share with others, and may distract their attention from what they do themselves. Such comparison processes heavily influence the identity professed by the group itself, that is, its *professed* identity (Soenen and Moingeon, 2002). Although there is some creativity involved in giving shape to a *professed* identity, this does not imply that members of an organization would not believe in it. If the identity is also professed at the shop-floor level, employees become committed to it (Salancik, 1977), and are likely to believe in it sincerely.

Evidence from the studies by Dutton and Dukerich (1991) and Fombrun and Rindova (2000) suggests that, in the long term, a certain degree of convergence between what members of an organization do and how they perceive their organization may be expected. On the other hand, the desire to compare favorably with peer organizations may lead members of an organization to emphasize particular aspects of their identity (Elsbach and Kramer, 1996). Creative attribution may be a not negligible factor in giving shape to the *experienced* identity. This leads to the second proposition in this research:

**Proposition 2:** How members of an organization experience their organization is closely related to the difference they perceive between their own organization and their peer organization(s).

Figure 5.1 illustrates both propositions. This study will investigate the selection of the aspects which members of an organization choose to describe their organization's identity. To what degree do members of an organization derive

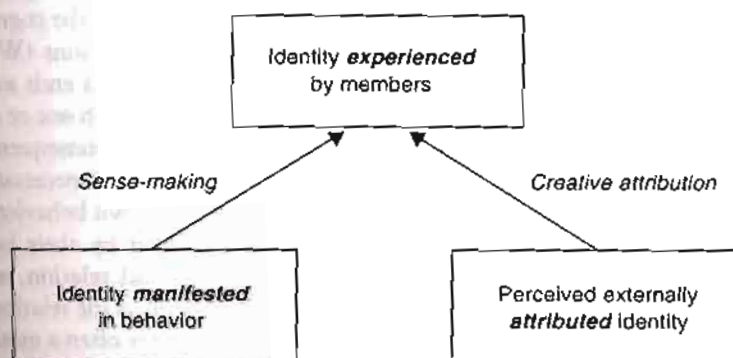


Figure 5.1 Basic sources of *experienced* identity.

actions, and to what degree  
themselves favorably with peer

ve to be determined: first,  
people make of their own  
ations in comparison to the

ir organization's identity  
(Hatch and Schultz, 2000).  
place at a conscious level.  
perspective, is formulated  
(Schultz, 1998). This relative  
explicit (Hatch and Schultz,  
This enabled, for instance,  
ity of the New York Port  
directly for their judgments.  
own actions is less straight-  
actions without too much  
me means of provocation in  
performer (Garfinkel, 1967).  
mean in retrospect. Through  
fs that sustain their actions  
freezes one's motivational  
enhances the inclination to  
peat these actions at future  
ions will drive their day-to-  
people make of their behavior  
ested identity.

upon the ends sought, the  
these ends, and the cognitive  
d by these actions (Weick,  
the means and ends associ-  
sequence which one or more  
an action or a consequence of  
rs desirable or necessary to  
se of their own behavior, the  
re provided by their beliefs  
ceived causal relation, where  
equence. It is the relation the  
emselves are often a means to  
e means-end relation is the  
ans-end relation. Motivation

to provide continuity in action is more likely to result from intended consequences than from unintended ones. The crucial question in sense-making after action is: "Is this what I want to have done?" Actions and consequences not intended by members of an organization, at least not with hindsight, are not likely to gain their commitment. These would not be likely to incite them to repeat the same actions and to produce the same consequences again, whereas intended consequences would. This retrospective sense-making guides members of an organization to decide who they are and why they do things (Reger, 1998). In this way, retrospective sense-making allows members of an organization to observe and confirm the means and ends underlying their actions, which they may associate with "ways of doing things which are typical of our organization." This collective sense-making of members of an organization of their actions may bridge the gap between the "manifestation perspective" and the "representation perspective" on identity.

Figure 5.2 represents, by way of example, the sense that an employee from the housing corporation studied in this chapter made of "delivering really good work." It shows an extract from her means-end structure. The arrows represent means-end relations. To her, delivering really good work means that people will return to her for advice. This in turn gives her an overview of what other people in the organization do and therefore provides the opportunity to be consistent in the communication with stakeholders. This implies

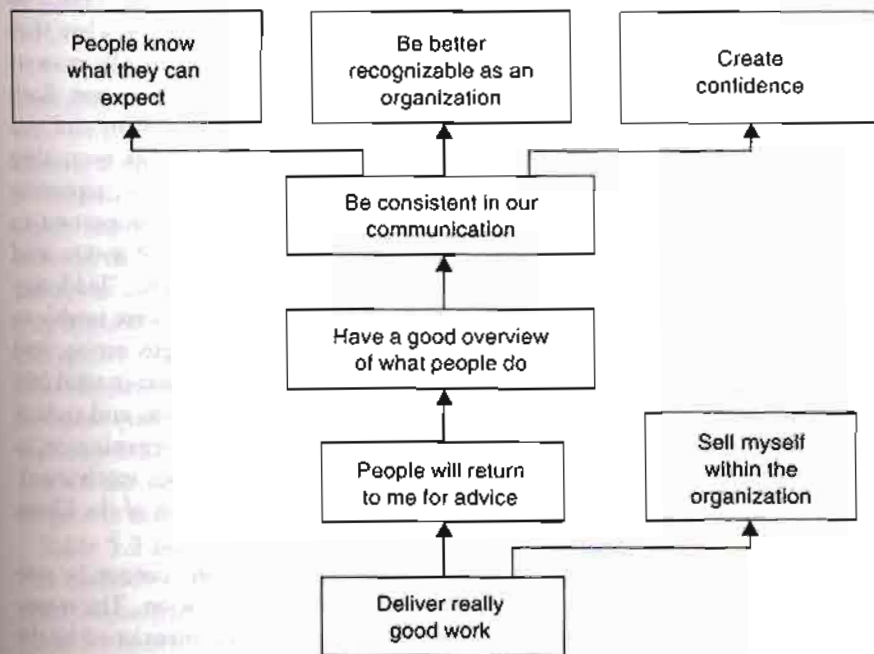


Figure 5.2 Sense made out of "delivering really good work." Extract from an employee's means-end structure.



Table 5.1 Concepts mentioned by most respondents during laddering interviews

Rank	Aspect	Number of respondents mentioning the aspect
1	Enjoy your work	14
2	Work satisfaction	12
3	Achieve customer satisfaction	10
4	Perform properly	10
5	Make profits	9
6	Deal well with complaints	8
7	Retain your job	8
8	Everything goes smoothly	8
9	Earn my personal income	7
10	A good organizational reputation	7
11	Organizational continuity	7
12	Deliver service	7

organization's collective sense-making of what they did. Furthermore, the management of the organization was highly interested in investigating employee support for certain aspects not so frequently mentioned in the interviews. These were "being innovative," "alertly capitalizing on what is happening," "having a pleasant working atmosphere," "being sympathetic to people of modest means," "motivating people," and "respecting others." Column I in Table 5.3 (p. 101) lists the frequency with which these aspects were mentioned during the laddering interviews. In order to keep the questionnaires brief, the aspects "retaining your job" and "delivering service" were omitted in favor of these concepts. This brought the total number of identity aspects in the questionnaire to sixteen.

Regarding these sixteen aspects, the questionnaire assessed the degree to which respondents reported to have worked on these aspects, whether they believed the people around them had worked on these aspects, the degree to which the aspects applied to their own organization, and the degree to which they applied to the other organization, with whom the merger was planned. The questionnaire thus invited respondents to give three catchwords for the most characteristic aspects of the organization itself. The questionnaire included more questions, but they fall beyond the scope of the issues investigated in this chapter. The phrasing of the questions is given in the Appendix on page 114. Of the seventy-eight employees, seventy returned the questionnaire (an 88 percent response).

Table 5.2 lists the catchwords that at least two of the respondents gave. Two researchers coded the catchwords independently. The intercoder agreement (Kassarjian, 1977) was 0.88, pointing to a good intercoder reliability. Table 5.3 lists the average ratings on the survey questions. The average rating of 6.34 of the member's own organization's reputation (in column C in Table 5.3) confirms that the perceived *attributed* identity was not problematic at the time of the research. Moreover, a comparison between columns C and D in

Table 5.2 Most frequently mentioned catchwords

<i>Rank of aspect</i>	<i>Aspect</i>	<i>Number of respondents mentioning</i>
1	Innovative	23
2	Customer-oriented	16
3	Large	11
4	Customer-friendly	8
5	Delivers service	5
6	Professional	5
7	Alert	5
8	Continuity	4
9	Social	4
10	Good atmosphere	4
11	Commercial	4
12	Fast	3
13	Modern	2
14	Dynamic	2
15	Better	2
16	Co-operative	2
17	Solid	2
18	Good organization	2
19	Profitable	2
20	External image	2
21	Market orientation	2
22	Good human resources policy	2

Table 5.3 reveals that – in the eyes of its own members – the organization compared favorably to the peer organization on all sixteen aspects. The differences between the organizations (column E in Table 5.3) have been calculated by subtracting the rating of the other organization from the rating of the member's own organization on each of the sixteen aspects, and then calculating the average of these differences for each aspect. Most variables showed a distribution skewed to the right: a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test showed that at a 5 percent level, all of them had a distribution significantly different from normal. Spearman rank correlations were therefore used for further analysis. For each aspect, Table 5.3 shows the rank order correlations between the degree to which members of the organization reported that they worked on each of these aspects, the degree to which they perceived their peers to work on them, and the organizational identity experienced. The difference in ratings in Table 5.3 of both organizations did not bear much correlation with the *experienced* identity of their own organization. When analyzed aspect by aspect, only “having a good organizational reputation” showed a correlation which was significant at 5 percent. The results regarding members' self-reported activities and organizational identity are mixed. Table 5.3 shows how six of the aspects show correlations which were significant at a 1 percent level, and two weaker correlations, which were significant at a 5 percent level. The other eight aspects do not show a significant correlation. Of course, one can imagine



n members – the organization in all sixteen aspects. The differences (Table 5.3) have been calculated from the rating of the sixteen aspects, and then calculated using a two-sample t-test. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that at least one aspect was significantly different from the others. Therefore used for further analysis. In order to see correlations between the aspects, a reported that they worked on perceived their peers to work on. The difference in ratings was not much correlation with the other aspects. When analyzed aspect by aspect, "I work on this" showed a correlation which was significant at a 1 percent level, and "I work on this" showed a correlation which was significant at a 5 percent level. The other aspects. Of course, one can imagine

Table 5.3 Number of mentions, average ratings, and correlations regarding aspects of identity. Analysis for each aspect separately

Table 5.3. Number of mentions, average ratings and correlations for 10 aspects of identity														
Aspect of identity	I	II	A	B	C	D	E	Rank correlation (A*C)	Rank correlation (B*C)	Rank correlation (C*E)	No. of zero differences	No. of valid non-zero differences		
No. of people mentioning this in ladder interviews	No. of people using this on this	"I work on this"	"People around me work on this"	Degree to which it applies to own organization	Degree to which it applies to other organization	Difference between own and other organization								
Being innovative	5	23	5.43	4.94	6.28	5.48	0.95	0.05	0.06	0.16	27	13		
Achieve customer satisfaction	10	1	6.07	5.70	6.28	5.98	0.58	0.12	0.24*	0.26	30	10		
Organizational continuity	7	4	5.69	5.52	6.37	5.82	0.64	0.10	0.26*	0.12	32	12		
Work satisfaction	12	0	6.41	5.87	6.02	5.76	0.41	0.39**	0.36*	0.07	30	4		
Perform properly	10	0	6.49	5.96	6.19	5.82	0.56	0.22	0.30*	0.11	29	5		
Alertly capitalize on what's happening	1	4	6.20	5.36	6.22	5.69	0.72	0.23	0.29*	0.10	30	9		
Earn my personal income	7	1	5.47	5.79	5.88	5.42	0.45	0.51**	0.50**	0.26	27	6		
Everything goes smoothly	8	0	5.86	5.47	5.63	5.29	0.37	0.22	0.12	0.07	29	6		
Deal well with complaints	8	0	6.11	5.74	5.93	5.62	0.46	0.27*	0.30*	0.15	28	9		
Have a pleasant working atmosphere	5	4	6.36	5.99	6.20	5.92	0.50	0.24*	0.35*	0.07	28	8		
Being sympathetic to people of modest means	1	0	5.51	5.37	6.04	5.72	0.46	0.21	0.31*	0.01	33	6		
Motivate people	3	0	5.49	5.26	5.91	5.64	0.50	0.12	0.32*	0.09	31	5		
A good organizational reputation	7	2	5.99	5.67	6.34	5.93	0.56	0.23**	0.34*	0.35*	34	7		
Enjoy your work	14	1	6.39	5.79	6.12	5.56	0.82	0.41**	0.35*	0.11	27	7		
Respect other people	6	0	6.27	5.71	6.15	5.83	0.53	0.38**	0.49**	0.18	28	8		
Make profits	9	2	5.21	5.14	5.93	5.57	0.52	0.39**	0.31*	0.22	32	10		

Notes

\* = significant at 5%.

\*\* = significant at 1%.

accurately reflect what is going on (Robinson, 1950; Langbein and others). Relations in Table 5.4 with the level of individual organizations can be computed by applying a corresponding overall correlation was (Rosenthal, 1991). Table 5.5 under the heading of "Effect size," had correlations of exactly 1. In required, these were recoded as 0.59, as computed by using Stouffer's corresponding to the one-tailed respondents' Z-scores were added of N, the number of respondents is level of overall significance is the significance of "plain" correlation when the compound probability is is can be rejected at the 5 percent that for at least one of the studies (Hartington and Haller, 1984: 265). tant at a 1 percent level. It is not how people perceive their own selves to be working on the same as "I work on this" and "People significant at 1 percent. In general, r's own organization and the other between the degrees to which aspects other in Table 5.4 is 0.65 ( $p =$  Table 5.5 is even 0.95. This is in who did not really perceive much e 5.3 shows how for every aspect, between both organizations. Still, significantly correlated to the aspects in their own organization and the e research results of Elsbach and e 5.4 is between the "difference organization" and "degree to which zation," derived from the survey: percent. At the individual level, effects for this relation, 0.59. In n the degree to which an aspect d the degree to which they think ble 5.4: it is only 0.19 ( $p = 0.49$ ). ividual level (Table 5.5). Table 5.5

Table 5.5 Comparison of correlations at the aggregate and individual levels of analysis

Correlations between and	Aggregate correlation from Table 5.4	Average Fisher Z	Size effect	Stouffer Z	Stouffer p (one-tailed)
"I work on this"	0.76	0.40	0.38	10.56	0.00
"Applies to our organization"	0.19	0.20	0.19	5.20	0.00
"Applies to the other organization"	-0.02	0.26	0.25	6.81	0.00
"Applies to the other organization"	0.44	0.26	0.26	4.38	0.00
"Applies to the other organization"	0.35	0.15	0.15	3.70	0.00
"Applies to the other organization"	0.65	1.80	0.95	27.48	0.00
Difference between our and the other organization	0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.11	0.55
Difference between our and the other organization	-0.26	0.16	0.16	1.70	0.04
Difference between our and the other organization	0.78	0.67	0.59	8.25	0.00
Difference between our and the other organization	0.22	-0.82	-0.67	-9.29	1.00



## Appendix I: The survey questions

*On the job, I very actively take care that . . .*

1 = completely disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree somewhat, 4 = don't agree, don't disagree, 5 = agree somewhat, 6 = agree, 7 = completely agree

completely disagree      completely agree

- everything goes smoothly      1    2    3    4    5    6    7

*The people with whom I work very actively take care that . . .*

1 = completely disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = disagree somewhat; 4 = don't agree, don't disagree; 5 = agree somewhat; 6 = agree; 7 = completely agree

completely disagree      completely agree

- everything goes smoothly      1    2    3    4    5    6    7

*Could you please indicate in the table below to what degree each of the aspects mentioned applies to your own organization and the other organization? You can assign a number from 1 to 7 and fill it in in the box. If you don't have an opinion, please fill in an X.*

1 = does not apply at all; 2 = does not apply; 3 = applies hardly;  
4 = neutral; 5 = applies somewhat; 6 = applies; 7 = applies completely

Applies to:	Our organization	The other organization
Everything goes smoothly		

*Please state in three catchwords, in order of importance, what you think are the most characteristic aspects of your organization:*

	Our organization
1	
2	
3	

Note: where this appendix mentions "your/our organization" and "the other organization," in the original phrasings the names of both organizations were mentioned. The original questions have been translated into English.

- 1 Product and packaging, relating to marketing reflection and brand;
- 2 Visual identity and environmental design, expressing the organization's identity.

Awareness of both these levels does not mean that they should be dealt with separately. On the contrary, the coherence of the whole must be a major objective for the company. Symbolic identity, which deals with what design professionals call "visual identity," thus plays a key role in image strategy. The decisions relating to the development of an image strategy that relies upon symbolic communication are of crucial importance in any approach aiming at eventually ensuring a company's competitiveness. However, work on visual identity too often remains limited to a mere graphic exercise.

We proposed, in a previous study, an analytical framework for the creation and management of a company's visual identity in relation to image strategy (Brun and Rasquinet, 1996). The diagram below illustrates the main aspects of this approach (Figure 7.1).

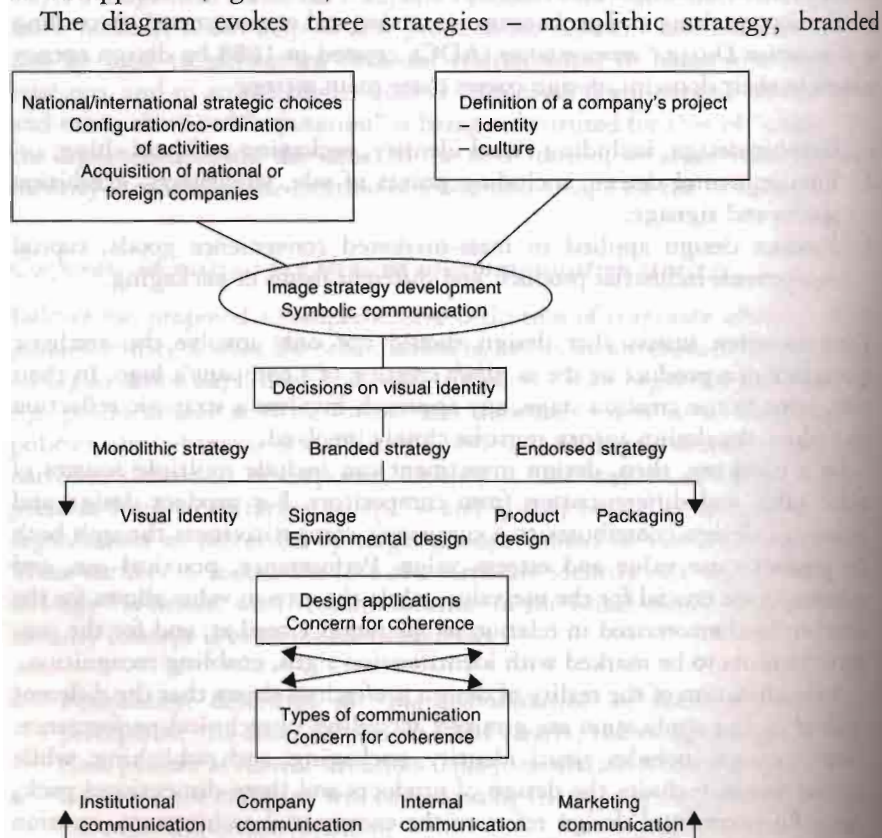


Figure 7.1 Analytical framework for the creation and management of a company's identity.





keypad inherited from the Directorate General of Telecommunications. The 1993 logo, created for a state-owned monopoly, reflected the issues at the time. The digital keypad symbolized the technical evolution and the circle, the beginning of internationalization. The objective was to confirm the existence of the France Télécom entity and to federate all staff in the context of the thorough transformation mentioned earlier. Both the blue color and the keypad emphasized the company's technical competence. However, with the arrival of new stakeholders in the market, internal and external surveys revealed the discrepancy between the visual identity (i.e., what it evokes) and the company's goals. France Télécom's logo was ranked below those of its main competitors. As a result, the company was incited to introduce new forms and colors as well as increasingly humanized logos connoting youth and dynamism. The important areas of change were the following:

- Logo: descriptive, dynamic, connoting openness and movement, but mainly described the telephone; it was outdated, technical, and emotionless;
- Color: light and suggested trust and reliability, but was cold and monolithic;
- Typography denoted trust, leadership and power, but also rigidity, distance, and impersonality.

Using the five-facet framework (Soenen and Moingeon, 2002), we note that in this case there was a gap between the *projected* identity, and more specifically, the visual identity of which it is a part, and the identity *professed* by the company's management (notably its strategic intent). As a result, a new visual identity was launched in March 2000. It features a symbol (the ampersand (&)) in warm colors (orange and red), with the "france telecom" name attached and written all in lower-case letters, whereas it was previously written in all capitals. The blue color was kept for "france tele," to which "com" was added in orange. This new visual identity was clearly supported both internally and externally. It ranked first in surveys when compared to those of its main competitors. Six months after the logo's launch, the adjectives respondents used to describe it revealed the great success of this operation (see Table 7.1).

The statistics in Table 7.1 could be interpreted as the satisfactory result of

Table 7.1 Logo survey results 6 months after launch (%)

	<i>External</i>	<i>Internal</i>
Creative	70	77
Friendly	69	85
Warm	61	78
Internet	55	89
Modern	57	92
Dynamic	53	83



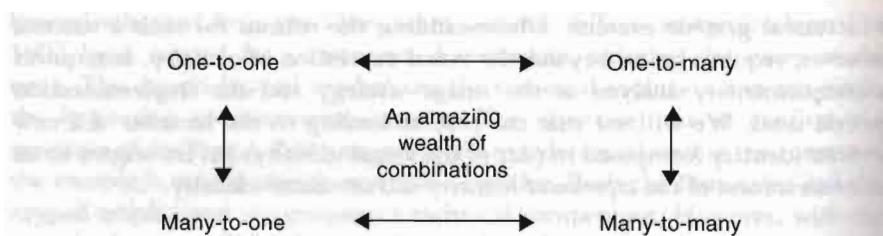


Figure 7.2 Enhanced relationships: France Télécom's new brand driver.

establishing a relationship with the public and was intended to be optimistic in a rather pessimistic climate. "*Nous allons vous faire aimer l'an 2000*" (We'll make you love 2000) featured a new start, since France Télécom had always been perceived as a technically-oriented enterprise. This transitional communication necessarily changed again in 2000. The latest institutional communication campaign – "*Bienvenue dans la vie.com*" (Welcome to life.com) is closely related to the definition of a brand driver based around the concepts of relationship, convergence, and service.<sup>2</sup> The idea of being linked to the Internet suggests that France Télécom has moved from the "one-to-one" relationship of traditional telecommunications to the richer and more diverse relationships of the new telecommunications world, that is, "one-to-the-world," "many-to-one," and "many-to-many." Likewise, the symbol chosen for the visual identity (the ampersand (&)) means you and me, that is, France Télécom and its customers. France Télécom can now offer this new type of relationship, with its new range of products and services, including the Internet and mobile communications. Its new brand driver is illustrated in Figure 7.2. This brand driver and the resultant visual expression permeate through all of France Télécom's brand manifestations (advertising, promotion, sponsorship). We will evaluate in the next section the main stages of the process implemented.

#### *Implementing the new projected identity: from the brand driver to the brand universe*

##### *General process*

This change process was pushed on further when a significant gap was noticed between the company's visual identity (the *projected identity*) – what was experienced internally by France Télécom's employees (the *experienced identity*) – and the company's image as perceived by customers (the *attributed identity*).

The staff, especially those in marketing and sales, who had been readied to face competition in 1998 and to respond to the customer service challenge, felt that the old visual symbol was a handicap that reminded them of the past. The role of the outside design agency was not limited simply to the design of the logo's graphics. Rather, the resultant collaboration was a case of genuine

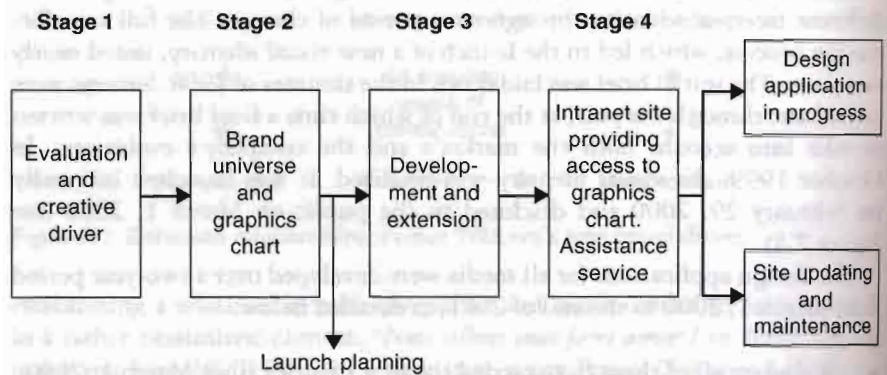


Figure 7.4 The implementation process for the new visual identity adopted by the design agency, Landor.

launch was planned at the end of stage 2. Stage 3 consisted of implementing and performing stage 2 applications. About a hundred additional applications were developed and validated. Stage 4 involved documentation and assistance. Documentation describes the technical aspect, while assistance refers to the human aspect, that is, helping people to understand the new identity and to get involved in the change. Interaction was constant throughout the development stages, but was particularly essential during stage 1, which resulted in the definition of France Télécom's visual identity and brand universe. The following section focuses on this first phase.

#### *Creating a new brand universe for France Télécom*

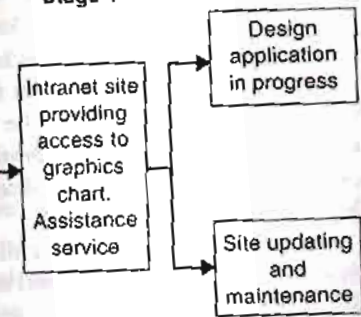
The creation of a new brand universe for France Télécom required at first a detailed analysis of France Télécom's strategic context. The next step consisted of identifying the key points of the brand driver so as to best take advantage of the current situation and to build up a competitive advantage in the longer term. The approach adopted by Landor is presented in Figure 7.5.

In this respect, the brand project is a genuine company project. The steps schematized in Figure 7.5 are detailed below.

- Strategic axes – worldwide actor/exhaustive services, and Innovator/"the" reference point in terms of services.
- Brand positioning – vision: a world that communicates more and better is more likely to "be" better. Ambition: being the brand that, more than any other, helps and encourages people to communicate more and better.
- Driving statement – it is to be expressed by the ampersand and the relationship concept that we have discussed earlier. It is keyed to different axes: smart society, homo connectus, ergonomics, technology, life+, and lifeblood, etc.



Stage 4



new visual identity adopted by the

Stage 3 consisted of implementing a hundred additional applications, documentation and assistance. The next step, while assistance refers to the understanding of the new identity and to constant throughout the development during stage 1, which resulted in the new identity and brand universe. The

m

France Télécom required at first a strategic context. The next step consisted of defining the brand driver so as to best take advantage of the company's strengths. Landor is presented in Figure 7.5. The project was a genuine company project. The steps

creative services, and Innovator/"the"

communicates more and better is the brand that, more than any other, communicates more and better.

by the ampersand and the relationship. It is keyed to different economics, technology, life+, and

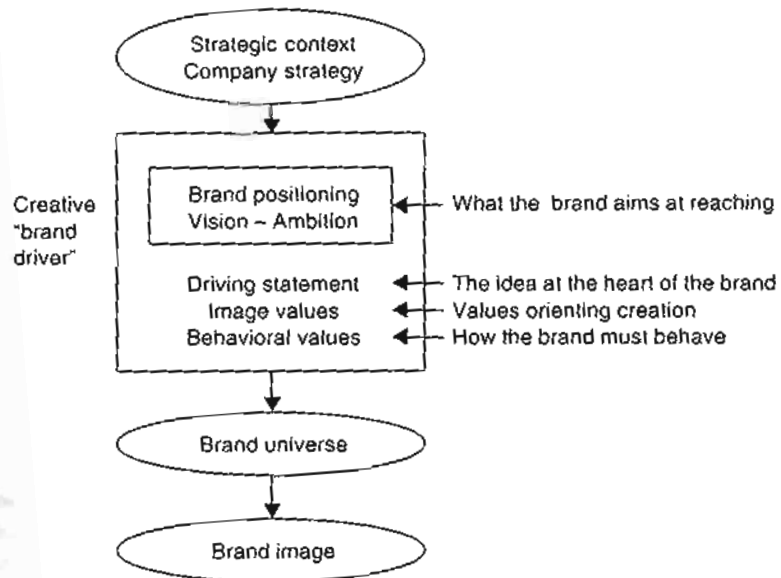


Figure 7.5 Creating a new brand universe and brand image for France Télécom – key steps of the process adopted by the design agency, Landor.

- Image values – image values are keyed to functional issues (the broadest offer – heritage – technology – competence – experience – adequacy – proximity) and emotional issues (responsibility – reliability – accessibility – equity – seriousness).
- Behavioral values – the closest and most responsible brand, making the fairest offer. Behavioral values are directly translated into actions (behavioral evidence): refunding when errors are made, proactive attitude.

In practice, to deploy this process to create a new brand universe, the design agency carried out a visual audit on France Télécom and its main competitors and assessed the brand's architecture in its environmental setting. Existing surveys were reviewed and completed using internal and external interviews. Throughout the process, working groups constituted of both France Télécom and Landor members were formed. The project was conducted by France Télécom's Corporate Communications division.

First, the project was defined in meetings (brief reevaluation, identification of key partners, definition of roles and responsibilities, project planning, etc.). Many interviews were then carried out at different France Télécom sites, involving managers, field managers, marketing and sales people. These interviews helped Landor to better understand the company, its expectations, and its relationships with customers. Sensory and colorful universes were tested on

mobile communications with Orange, and fixed telecommunications. The mass-market division is therefore divided into three branches, with a newly created division responsible for the sales network. Although technologies are increasingly interrelated (in particular, mobiles and the Internet), all stock exchange markets require a marked visibility in the different activities introduced, or to be introduced, on the stock exchange (France Télécom, Wanadoo, Orange). As a result, one of the key areas for thought is the brand architecture. The creation of the new visual identity is both the achievement of a process and the turning point that will enhance the group's flexibility in its development strategy. Notably, France Télécom's name is much less present in the new visual identity than in the former one. While surveys have shown that France Télécom's name was beneficial to the group and differentiated it clearly from many start-ups in the same field, this name is of most use in France. By contrast, the logo on its own, which has become the priority identification sign, is more capable of endorsing varied identities.

The example of France Télécom clearly demonstrates that, today, corporate identity management leans heavily on elements of stability and coherence, while preserving some fluidity. This fluidity, according to Gioia and Thomas (1996), is essential. Indeed, it enables the firm to confront a diversity of activities and environments and to prepare for the future. The investigation into France Télécom's case has therefore led us to suggest the following model for corporate image management (Figure 7.6).

In this context, visual identity can be seen as being fully integrated with brand identity and brand strategy in a global approach. The processes implemented go beyond occasional interactions, extending to genuine support for a strategy of evolution.

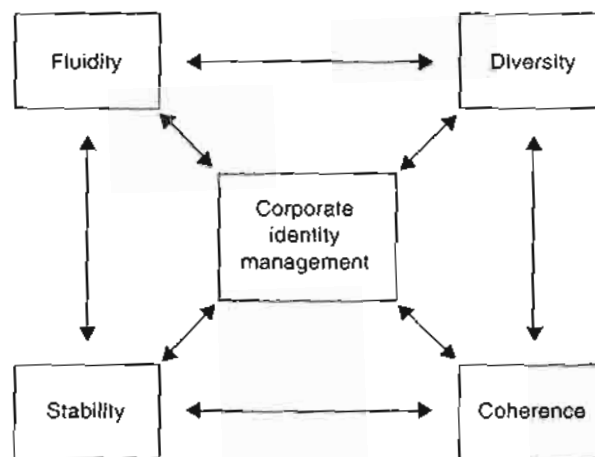


Figure 7.6 The new stakes in corporate identity management.



Table 8.3 Overview of the communication activities for each change strategy

Blue	<p><i>Informative group meetings</i>: planned gatherings where the objectives and the contents of the change are explained.</p> <p><i>Newsletter motivating the change</i>: temporary printed or digital medium that provides target groups with information and motivation about the change process.</p> <p><i>Fact sheets</i>: compact overviews that explain the change progress, with an emphasis on the positive aspects.</p> <p><i>Dashboard</i>: a visual printed display of the key indicators that illustrate the progress of the change activities.</p>
Yellow	<p><i>Opinion media</i>: printed or digital media where representatives of stakeholder groups have the possibility of expressing their views on the objectives and the contents of the change.</p> <p><i>Forum discussions</i>: meetings where representatives of stakeholder groups discuss the objectives and contents of the change. The chairman is carefully selected by the change manager.</p> <p><i>Lobbying activities</i>: the deliberate influencing of specific stakeholder groups to accept the change and to support the change process by specified actions.</p> <p><i>Search conferences</i> (Emery and Purser, 1996): participative planning method that enables stakeholders to identify, plan, and implement their most-desired future.</p>
Green	<p><i>Gaming</i>: a learning method in which people participate in a structured activity or simulation. In this way, they can experiment in a safe environment with the new behavior that is linked with the organizational change (learning by doing).</p> <p><i>Real-time strategic change</i> (Danemiller and Jacobs, 1992): a large-group (300–2500 participants) intervention where, in a highly-structured way, within a period of 2–3 days, by making use of internal and external experts and the available common database, a vision and an action plan are developed for the future.</p> <p><i>Inter vision meetings</i>: a periodic meeting, constituted of a small group of colleagues, at which group members introduce cases. Others are encouraged to ask questions and share their thoughts about the chosen solution and possible alternatives.</p> <p><i>Sessions for sharing learning experiences</i>: meetings where colleagues exchange their personal learning experiences, and in this way, increase their knowledge about the change and the ways in which the change can be realized.</p>
White	<p><i>Brainstorm</i>: unstructured meeting where participants can freely air their personal ideas about the change, and further build on others' ideas.</p> <p><i>Open space technology</i> (Owen, 1993): discussion and exploration of issues, where the participants themselves create agenda topics and form groups around these topics.</p> <p><i>Customer panels</i>: a representation of the client system is being used to reflect on the actual and the desired situation. During the change process, these panels periodically meet with representatives of the organization.</p> <p><i>Adventures and heroes</i>: a selection of specific symbols and "champions" of the change process in order to stimulate organizational members during the change process.</p>

### Four change strategies for gaining acceptance for a new identity

In the previous section, we discussed (a) four change strategies and (b) the conditions that determine the potential added value of three so-called organizational identity mix instruments: behavior, communications, and symbols. A combination of the four change strategies and the most preferable application of the three organizational identity mix instruments in each strategy are summarized in Figure 8.1.

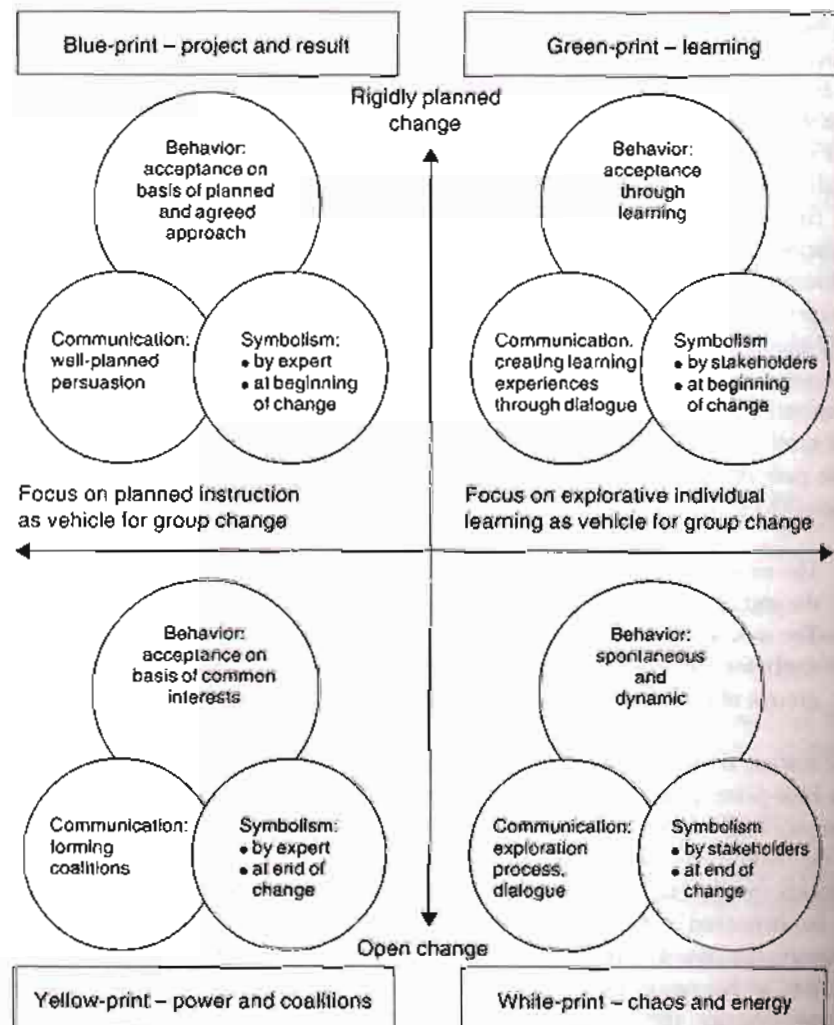


Figure 8.1 Four change strategies for gaining acceptance for a new organizational identity.



### *Implications of change*

#### BEHAVIORAL CHANGES

The new vision encouraged the following behavioral changes:

- professional: improving consulting skills;
- knowledge-sharing: from a group of specialists with separate knowledge bases to a new organization with a knowledge-network that would make CG-scg a key player in its field;
- pro-active: from a risk-averse attitude toward much more proactive behavior;
- stimulating: from oppositional to mutually stimulating learning- oriented behavior.

#### COMMUNICATION

Within the new organization, the communication was typified as more open and focused on the exchange of knowledge and ideas. The focus was discussion and learning.

#### SYMBOLISM

Prior to the change, the separate consultancy groups used their own interpretations of the ministry's symbols and visual identity. During the change, a single new house style and visual identity, in accord with the ministry's rules, was applied to the new organization. The consultants were involved in the design and selection process for the symbol.

#### *Communication activities during the change process*

These were as follows:

- special magazine;
- e-mail discussions: over a set period, the general manager sent an e-mail with the daily position to all staff members. The recipients were invited to react, and their reactions were summarized both in the following e-mail and in the special magazine;
- transferer game: a two-day management game was organized to introduce all staff members to the new culture and vision;
- conference: a conference was organized for the entire organization. The central theme was the new vision and its implications for daily work;
- video-production: the video, produced by a group of internal consultants and assisted by a professional editor, focused on the change process within the organization.

- audio-visual media
- intranet
- Nuon College
- staff meetings.

### Conclusion

The emphasis on management's role and on the well-planned process is closely related to blue-print thinking. New behavior was stimulated predominantly through instruction at Nuon College. The communications means used and the process and timing of the introduction of the new house style fit well the blue-print strategy.

### Conclusions

A sustainable corporate story should be conceived with the help of internal and external stakeholders and should reflect the key values that form the basis of the desired identity. The four basic change strategies that can be applied to realize the desired change differ, depending on whether the change can be planned and whether the focus should be on group instruction or on individual learning. Each change strategy implies a different use of the three identity instruments, referred to as the corporate identity mix (CI-mix): behavior, communication, and symbolism. The application of these elements should be consistent with the change strategy. For a change to be visible to a broad internal and external audience, a change of symbolism can be considered as an effective tool. The cases presented support our assumptions about the different applications of the CI-mix during change processes, based on the chosen change strategy.

A number of questions remain for future research. Notably, to what extent is the choice of a specific change strategy dependent on the organization's cultural setting? What cultural preferences can be identified? Which stakeholders are most often involved in discussions about symbolism, and how does their involvement affect the acceptance of the new symbols as a reflection of the desired identity?

### Notes

- 1 We use the notion of *perceived* identity whereas Soenen and Moingeon (2002), in this volume, refer to the *experienced* identity, that is, what members feel, more or less consciously, toward their organization.
- 2 De Caluwe and Vermaak (2000) distinguish a fifth strategy: red-print thinking. This strategy typically achieves change by stimulating people in the right way by deploying human resource management tools. From a communication perspective, this strategy can be closely linked to the blue-print strategy, with the well-planned human resource management tools as a central theme. In view of this similarity, we have decided to focus on only four strategies in this chapter.



managed. As a strategic lever for to symbolize the contract passed markets. Basically, the corporate material or immaterial, that what tools?

#### 1 names

express a corporation's values and the brand, the company name, ls, logos, etc.)? There is a clear y (legal) name. The company and the legal identity of the ngible reality. The brand name it is, that it should encapsulate dimensions to the relevant ization, but its identification terms. However, as the brand s and added values, there is a n's name in order to make it ELF Aquitaine Corporation's s Sema Group, have selected a ization and structure. Sema nal structure, as it was known for legal reasons or merely for ready "branded" that corpor- ed, it is the vocation of brands he corporation and its many As a result, brand names tend gal name, as they are easier to

and store its message. It will mark, that encompasses, in a lers, graphics, and eventually, he "marque," before lawyers trietary asset). Naturally, the n legally and in stakeholders' aspects of the meaning the stakeholders' minds. The key t values and impressions does Are these values in line with d vehicle for expressing the

identity and values of the organization? Does the symbol have a built-in emotional value, a high symbolic voltage? Is it unique and attractive? For instance, BT, formerly British Telecom, has selected a flute player as the visual symbol of its brand because it conveys humanitarian values, softness, harmony, and pleasure. However, it says nothing about BT's other dimensions, such as its unique expertise, its customer orientation, etc. This is normal, for a simple sign cannot by itself convey the corporation's entire profile. For this reason, communication is needed to associate these other dimensions with the trademark. This can be done through advertising, PR, press relationships, sponsoring of activities such as the Olympics or the local football team, and naturally, also through the interaction with all of the corporation's agents at all hierarchical levels. Having clarified the conceptual distinction between the company and the brand, and between the brand and its vehicles, in the next section, we introduce a conceptual tool central to the management of brands – the brand platform.

### Building the corporate brand

Building a corporate brand is a complex task. First, one needs to define clearly the brand's meaning for tomorrow: What is the contract that the brand wishes to forge with its targeted audiences? This contract can be summarized in a single-page document known as the "brand platform." A typical brand platform asks six questions, listed in Figure 9.1.

Such questions can be answered for any brand, even FMCG (Fast Moving Consumer Goods) brands, from Signal to Kleenex. However, when working on a corporate brand, unlike product brands, which are a virtual reality, we are speaking of a true body, a living system and organization. Branding is about shaping the company's profile for the purposes of communicating and influencing audiences. Branding is intimately linked to the vision of extended competition and the need to persuade, at distance, people who may, tomorrow or in future years, be voting for or against the company, as buyers, bankers, or employees.

#### THE BRAND PLATFORM

What are the brand's foundations and its heritage?

What is unique about the brand?

What is the brand's personality?

What are the brand's values?

What is the brand's mission?

What is the brand's positioning versus that of its competition?

Figure 9.1 The brand platform.

in Japan. Consequently, he  
nager, promoting rather old-  
At a time when the Peugeot  
ernal mutation, and was there-  
the frequently broadcasted  
EO expressing strong views on  
being reinforced the impression  
atism. This conservatism was  
omobiles that PSA manufact-  
ities.

of the relationship between  
rienced, and brand identity. Let  
and a bank.

by the overwhelming – some  
ermarkets and supermarkets.  
drug distribution. In organiza-  
a of independent store owners,  
r own businesses in the distri-  
all successful and have become  
e collective brand and organi-  
entiating attribute, as far as its  
its associative status, unlike  
its stores. Interestingly, on the  
e, adopted a nickname in all its  
tion." The basic brand value is  
reduction of store prices, con-  
gregation to itself produce at low  
manufacturer can be found at a  
né has its own fishermen and  
character, are intimately linked  
entity. Historically, musketeers  
anache, who voluntarily joined  
as the symbol of the nation. In  
Intermarché supermarket have  
buying power and the people's  
sted for more than twenty years  
ation internally. Externally, it  
bly attract, seduce, and involve  
fended by Intermarché. Most  
rché is indeed a discount store.  
g similarities exist between the  
entity.

Another example of this relationship between organization and brand identity can be found in the case of Credit Mutuel. This bank is an actor in the segment of co-operative banks, characterized by the very specific nature of their organizational links and internal functioning. Unlike classic banks, the co-operative system allows, in theory at least, clients to participate in the bank's life, and eventually, to be elected to executive posts. In a way, a co-operative is a bank by the people for the people. Of course, the need to provide professional services to clients and the technical aspects of modern finance preclude the possibility of this kind of participation from becoming reality. However, the spirit remains. In such banks, there reigns a different atmosphere, even if in terms of services, they are on a par with the so-called "big ones." A project undertaken with the author on The Credit Mutuel's identity as a banking brand led to a recognition that the company's organizational specificity was the real differentiating source for the brand identity. To summarize, "nomen est omen" says the proverb: a company that calls itself "mutual credit" must live up to the expectations this name creates, both internally and externally. Not only is this name unique and specific, but it also evokes a set of benefits for customers, benefits that are highly praised by those refusing the classic banks. The identity's pivot was indeed in the brand name itself: "mutuel" is a very involving proposition, a relationship statement of a very specific nature. One recalls that "relationship" is one of the six facets of the identity prism of any brand, a facet particularly important for service brands. As a result, a new footnote for all the advertisements and commercial documents was added: "A bank to whom you can speak." Clearly, it stressed the very open nature of this organization, its essence being the collaboration between people, as indicated by its name, Credit Mutuel. The word "credit," too, carries with it strong connotations. It has two meanings. The first, explicit, refers to lending money. The second meaning, implicit, refers to the underlying trust, a trust which, in this case, is reciprocal, mutual.

## Conclusion

A study of the development of concepts and methods in brand management, and especially in corporate branding, leads to a major discovery: one cannot help but notice a convergence of tools between strategy and branding. The classical corporate strategy concepts of vision, mission, ambition, goal, values, etc., have been used for more than fifteen years to establish a sound platform for regular brands, even noncorporate ones. Brands need energy to compete. The key source of energy is knowing why they compete and for what cause. Reciprocally, organizations have understood that they have a symbolic dimension even for audiences who will never interact directly with either the organization or its representatives. The brand is the loudspeaker to herald what the company wants to stand for. As a result, the concept of identity has become of the utmost importance and has made the notion of image and its modern wording (reputation) seem less important.



Our exploration of identity issues in corporate branding leads us to reflect on the five-facet model presented in the introductory chapter of this volume. We have seen that the concept of brand identity is closely related to the *projected* facet of an organization's identity, notably in the case of corporate brands. The fact that both the brand identity and the *projected* identity stem from the same source, the organization itself, raises a challenging question. We have argued that features constitutive of a corporate brand identity are related to, but not identical with, those constitutive of the corporation's internal identity, that is, what Soenen and Moingeon (2002) refer to as the *manifested* identity. A corporate brand exists essentially in relation to external audiences, whereas an organization's *manifested* identity encompasses the results of all the corporation's interactions with all its constituencies and all its audiences over time. On the other hand, the five-facet model posits a systemic relationship between the different facets of an organization's identity. We have provided several examples of identity transfers (Renault, Peugeot, Intermarché, Credit Mutuel), between, on the one hand, the *manifested* and *experienced* identity, and on the other hand, the corporate brand identity/*projected* identity. These examples actually reveal something more: that the existence of such a close connection between the organization's *manifested* identity and the identity it projects through its corporate brand is a sign of good health, a source of strength.

Divergence between identity facets can result in the often cited "mirror effect" (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Moingeon and Ramanantsoa, 1997). Our contribution reinforces the idea that the different facets of an organization's identity should be in harmony, but that the introduction of corporate brand identity complicates the issue of harmony. It is likely that the more open, networked, and decentralized an organization is, the greater the tensions, and hence, the threats to the harmony between the various facets of identity. The challenge for corporate branding is therefore as follows: corporate brands should be grounded in the brand's identity, which symbolizes the contract that ties the brand to its clients. This brand identity should be allowed to somehow differ from the organization's internal identity, that is, from the central and distinctive features both manifested historically in the organization's structure and processes and those *experienced* by organizational members. However, the corporate brand identity should not differ too much otherwise two negative consequences would ensue. First, a negative mirror effect may kick in and create internal tensions within the company. For instance, at the present time, too large a gap exists between the values attached to the Citroën name and the current internal identity. This internal identity is too constrained to liberate employees' and executives' creative energies – energy that is needed to help Citroën re-become the creative brand it once was in the not-so-distant past. Second, the brand may actually be promising things it cannot keep. For a corporate brand, upholding the contract with the client necessitates staying roughly in line with the *manifested* organizational identity. Between these two extremes, a balance must be

found. This balance can only be discovered by looking within oneself. Brand management certainly remains much of an art.

## References

- Aaker, D. (1991) *Managing brand equity*, New York: Free Press.
- Aaker, D. and Biel, A. L. (1993) *Brand equity and advertising*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dutton, J. E. and Dukerich, J. M. (1991) "Keeping an eye on the mirror: image and identity in organizational adaptation," *Academy of Management Journal*, 34: 517-54.
- Fombrun, C. (1996) *Reputation: realizing value from the corporate image*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (1991) *Strategic brand management*, 1st edition, London and New York: Kogan Page.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (1998) *Strategic brand management*, 2nd edition, London and New York: Kogan Page.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (2001) *Re-inventing the brand*, London: Kogan Page.
- Kapferer, P. and Gaston-Breton, T. (2001) *Peugeot: une griffe automobile*, Paris: Le Cherche Midi.
- Kapferer, P. and Gaston-Breton, T. (2002) *The Peugeot saga*, Paris: Le Cherche Midi.
- Larçon, L. and Reitter, R. (1979) *Structure de pouvoir et identité de l'entreprise*, Paris: Nathan.
- Larçon, L. and Reitter, R. (1984) "Corporate imagery and corporate identity," in M. Kets de Vries (ed.) *The irrational executive*, Madison, CT: International Universities Press.
- Macrae, C. (1996) *The brand chartering handbook*, London: Addison Wesley.
- Moingeon, B. and Ramanantsoa, B. (1997), "Understanding corporate identity: the French school of thought," *European Journal of Marketing*, 31(5/6): 383-95.
- Olins, W. (1978) *The corporate personality: an inquiry into the nature of corporate identity*, London: Thames & Hudson.
- Olins, W. (1989) *Corporate identity: making business strategy visible through design*, London: Thames & Hudson.
- Rosch, E. and Lloyd, B. (1978) *Cognition and categorization*, New Jersey: LEA.
- Seguela, J. (1982) *Hollywood love plus blanc*, Paris: Flammarion.
- Soenen, G. and Moingeon, B. (2002) "The five facets of collective identities: integrating corporate and organizational identity," in B. Moingeon and G. Soenen (eds) *Corporate and organizational identities - integrating strategy, marketing, communication, and organizational perspectives*, London: Routledge.
- Upshaw, L. P. (1995) *Building brand identity*, New York: John Wiley & Sons.