NOTE

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Branding in Higher Education

Testing the Effectiveness of Corporate Visual Identity

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the
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Faculty of Design, Swinburne University of Technology

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Abstract

Research in environmental psychology indicates that characteristics of a setting (e.g. a room) are transferred to a person in that setting. Thus, an executive office conveys social standing, intelligence, and power upon its occupant. The effect has not been investigated for other forms of implicit communication, such as Corporate Visual Identity (CVI). This research project investigates the effects of CVI upon person perception, using similar methods to those originally employed in this field. Its focus is upon CVI systems applied to universities and their effect upon lecturers associated with it. This is a live research project involving a Public University in Malaysia, the Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI) or Sultan Idris Education University. The main intention is to rebrand and therefore to reposition the university via a new CVI and other devices. This is a mixed methods research; qualitative methods were used during the preliminary stage to support design development of the new CVI, and later two of the CVI including traditional (heraldry) and modern logo were tested using a quantitative survey. The results indicate a positive association for heraldry in relation to perceived intelligence and trustworthiness, providing substantiation of the 'CVI Effect'.
Acknowledgment

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Signed Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for award of any other degree or diploma, except where due reference is made in the text of thesis. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no material previous published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of thesis.

Signed:

[Signature]

Dated: December 22nd, 2011
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<td>9MP</td>
<td>9th Malaysia Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>AKePT</td>
<td>Akademi Kepimpinan Pengajian Tinggi (Higher Education Leadership Academy)</td>
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<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
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<td>ARES</td>
<td>Academic Reputation Survey</td>
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<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
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<td>BOD</td>
<td>Board of Directors</td>
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<td>CVI</td>
<td>Corporate Visual Identity</td>
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<td>DMI</td>
<td>Design Management Institute</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Exploratory Factor Analysis</td>
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<td>EM</td>
<td>Expectation-Maximisation</td>
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<td>FFM</td>
<td>Five Factor Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GLC</td>
<td>Government Link Company</td>
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<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEFC</td>
<td>Higher Education Funding Council, UK</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICHEM</td>
<td>International Conference of Higher Education Marketing</td>
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<td>IP</td>
<td>Internet Protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCA</td>
<td>Malaysian Chinese Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>Multi Dimensional Scaling</td>
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<tr>
<td>MIC</td>
<td>Malaysian Indian Congress</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Malaysia</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoHE</td>
<td>Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOSTI</td>
<td>Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation, Malaysia</td>
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<td>MQA</td>
<td>Malaysian Qualification Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSC</td>
<td>Multimedia Super Corridor</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEAC</td>
<td>National Economic Advisory Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>NVP</td>
<td>National Vision Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAL</td>
<td>Phase Alternating Line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>Performance Indicator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTPTN</td>
<td>Perbadanan Tabung Pendidikan Tinggi Nasional (National Higher Education Fund Corporation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAE</td>
<td>Research Assessment Exercise, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R&amp;D</td>
<td>Research and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>SHJT</td>
<td>Shanghai Jiao Thong</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Science</td>
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<tr>
<td>RRP</td>
<td>Recommended Retail Price</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>RSE</td>
<td>Researchers, Scientists, and Engineers</td>
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<tr>
<td>RU</td>
<td>Research University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THE</td>
<td>Times Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UM</td>
<td>University of Malaya, Malaysia</td>
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<tr>
<td>UKM</td>
<td>Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (National University of Malaysia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTM</td>
<td>University of Teknologi Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMNO</td>
<td>United Malays National Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>UPM</td>
<td>Universiti Putra Malaysia (Putra University, Malaysia)</td>
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<tr>
<td>UPSI</td>
<td>Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (Also refers to Sultan Idris Education University or SIEU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URL</td>
<td>Uniform Resource Locator</td>
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<tr>
<td>USM</td>
<td>University of Science Malaysia</td>
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<tr>
<td>USP</td>
<td>Unique Selling Proposition</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIEU</td>
<td>Sultan Idris Education University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VC</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
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<td>WWW</td>
<td>World Wide Web</td>
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Higher Education (HE) is increasingly in demand. According to UNESCO figures, in 2006, globalisation and student mobility led to over 2.5 million students receiving tertiary education outside of their home countries. The Malaysian Government has the ambition to become a regional education hub, aiming to have 100 thousand international students by 2010. To achieve this vision, the government has taken all the necessary actions to prepare the groundwork for Malaysian universities to improve their education quality and services by establishing several new divisions within the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) and through strategic planning and increasing the annual budget. These new divisions include the Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA), to monitor the standard of qualifications and accreditations for HE providers, and Akedemi Kepimpinan Pengajian Tinggi (AKePT) or Higher Education Leadership Academy, to oversee issues in HE including policies, talent management, leadership, governance, and innovation. Branding is another important issue that needs to be addressed, along with marketing and promotion strategy to ensure the message reaches its target.

Current literature indicates branding in HE is still in its nascent stages. Despite many discussions about the brand in the corporate and commercial world, non-profit, and service oriented organisations are somehow being left behind. However, recent studies show a significantly increasing range of literature on implementing branding into non-profit and service oriented organisations (Chiagouris 2005), the charity sector (Stride & Lee 2007), clinics and health care (Berry & Seltman 2007), museums (Caldwell & Coshall 2002), commercial and non-profit partnerships and alliances (Dickson & Baker 2007), and branding labour-intensive services (Berry & Lampo 2004). Hayes (2007) believes that the same trends will eventually happen to HE providers.

While Corporate Visual Identity (CVI) appears to be one of the key components to rebrand HE institutions (Baker & Balmer 1997), there are many issues within this area that need more attention from researchers. CVI is the most distinct and recognisable way a company presents itself. CVI has been defined as the “way in which an organisation uses logos, type styles, nomenclature [and] architecture and interior design etc. in order to communicate its corporate philosophy and personality” (Balmer 1995 p. 26). CVI elements include name, tag line, and
graphics, incorporating logo and/or logotype, typeface, colour, image including static and non-static, as well as to some extent, aspects beyond the visual sense, such as ambiance. These are applied to corporate facilities, media advertising, and various operational areas and devices.

Rosson & Brooks (2004) demonstrate the relationship between Corporate Identity (CI), image and reputation. Identity is how a company thinks and what it would like to be projected about itself. In contrast, image describes how others perceive a company. One of the issues with the identity and the image of a company is that these are not always aligned, and sometimes conflict with each other. Reputation involves the collective perception of people about a company's actions and achievements. A positive reputation is also known as an intangible asset or brand equity (Aaker 1991). For example, Coca-Cola's brand asset is believed to be worth US$80 billion. Temple (2006) argues that brand is all about perception, and that branding in HE would be better off being labelled as reputation management. However, in this thesis, the author indicates that reputation management is one of the essential elements in the branding, along with CVI. This argument is also supported by other empirical studies that show a close relationship between CVI and reputation (Alessandri, Yang & Kinsey 2006; Bosch, Jong & Elving 2005).

This research project involves a Public University in Malaysia, the Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI), otherwise known as Sultan Idris Education University. The intention is to rebrand and therefore to reposition the university, via a new CVI plus other devices. Moreover, this study provides an alternative way of evaluating the image of a university, by exploring the effect a CVI has upon a person associated with that university. Traditionally, the means for evaluating a CVI focus on the elements used in designing the CVI such as name, tag line, and graphics.

Aim and Scope of the Research

This research is derived from a live project situated in Malaysian Public HE. However, during the preliminary research similar concerns were found to be relevant to HE global institutions. There are clear indications that HE institutions worldwide, including the subject of this study in Malaysia, are aggressively responding to the same motivations and moving towards improving their performance in terms of academic scholarship, research and development, infrastructure and facility, as well as funding and sponsorship. Consequently, areas like marketing and promotion are now becoming more popular among HE providers to ensure that they are to be seen as ‘good’, not only by stakeholders such as governments and the public, but also within the potential international market.
Supported by the strategic plan document produced by the Vice Chancellor (VC) of UPSI in 2007, this research is intended to improve general perceptions of the university by:

I) Identifying the most effective practices in marketing and branding in HE from other countries, such as the United States, United Kingdom, and Australia that embrace high standards of quality.

II) Identifying some of the key factors that influence human perception of a university’s image and reputation.

III) Proposing possible methods for measuring the effectiveness of a university's CVI in order to form a positive impression.

As a live research project, this challenge creates an opportunity for designers to actively participate in terms of both strategy and design. This research will first study the content of the strategic planning documents of UPSI and extend these by making recommendations in terms of repositioning and branding to the VC and Board of Directors (BOD), and later design a new CVI as a tool to communicate the changes. The following discussions will give explanation to important matters, which are to be considered in this research:

**Significance to knowledge**: Both, the Malaysian Government and UPSI have recently produced their own strategic plans as a way forward to secure excellence in HE and to compete with current global changes. As a starting point, a new division within
the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) was established in 2008, the Akedemi Kepimpinan Pengajian Tinggi (AKePT) or Higher Education Leadership Academy. The focus of this division is to provide advice on the formulation of HE policies, dealing with talent management, leadership, governance, and innovation. One of the key interests of this new division is to reposition Malaysian HE through branding. Implementation of these strategic plans, however, may bring problems in communication, perception, and attitude, both within Malaysian universities and externally. This study will not only provide crucial insight for the governance of HE institutions within Malaysia, but also for the Malaysian Government in reconsidering their future plans for promoting national HE. UPSI in particular will benefit from this research, as it will provide assistance and guidelines for managing the CVI, and repositioning the institution.

**Research Gap:** Brand has evolved from tangible form such as logo and product name to intangible form such as emotion and personality (Aaker 1997; Keller 1993). At the same time the focus on branding issues has moved from the commercial or for-profit sector to non-profit organisations such as charities, government services, health and cultural institutions which include overseas aid, post offices, hospitals and museums (Chiagouris 2005; Stride & Lee 2007); and eventually brand has also evolved in HE (Hayes 2007). Branding and marketing in HE are still in their early stages and require more attention from institutions, scholars and researchers to search for deeper understanding through both theoretical and empirical studies.

Whilst there is increasing evidence that branding has been adopted by non-profit organisations including HE providers, it would appear that some of the key players involved in the governance of HE institutions may have little or no knowledge of how to implement a brand apart from changing the logo and CVI, and how branding works for them (Chapleo 2006). HE institutions need to clarify why and how they intend to use branding within their strategic planning and marketing, as Jevons (2006) argues:

> We owe it to the universities that employ us, or provide us with essential resources for our businesses, to help, and insist, that they clarify just what branding of their particular university means, and how it is meaningfully different from alternative providers. It is a disgrace to those who fund these expensive institutions if this is not done, and an embarrassment to the marketing and branding experts who work within them (p. 467).
Allen, Fournier & Miller (2008) argue that brands are rather unique according to the context in which a brand resides, and the nature of brands is not static in terms of pre-formulated management, but dynamic and active arising from the characteristics of individual organisations. In this case, it is important to focus on two significant areas:

I) Each branding project may need different methods to test effectiveness, and

II) Branding models and strategies for each university need to be addressed and developed based on the individual core brand value (or values) of the institution.

This means that each HE provider needs to develop their own brand values in order to effectively communicate their unique brand identity, to differentiate them from their competitors, and to develop a proper strategic plan for further improvement based on their current situation. Brand management in the specific context of HE has received only limited academic attention compared to the business context (Chapleo 2006). With the massive amount of funds and effort employed to change a university’s CVI as a part of a rebranding process, it is crucial to know how effective it will be as a means of promoting a positive image for the institution. However, while acknowledging the importance of branding in HE, this study will focus upon CVI as one of the key components in branding.

There is extensive evidence indicating that over the last decade a significant number of universities worldwide have changed their image or have repositioned themselves. Reasons for changes include achievement of university status by colleges or polytechnics, change of future direction, governance restructure, internationalisation and focus on different markets. However, despite the common practice for universities to revamp their CVI in order to communicate the new changes, there is little research examining or supporting such decision. In particular, a study of the effect of CVI upon people associated with the university has not been undertaken. This present study seeks to address this gap by exploring a method called the ‘Room Effect’ adopted from environmental psychology.

Research in environmental psychology indicates that the characteristics of a setting, for example a room, are transferred to a person in that setting. Thus, an executive office bestows social standing, intelligence and power upon its occupant, hence the term referred to as the Room Effect (Canter 1977). Although the Room Effect has been
used in judging the effects that photographs of interiors and architectures have on the perception of a person associated with that place, the effect has not been investigated for other forms of implicit communication including the CVI.

This research project will investigate the effects of CVI upon person perception, using similar methods to those originally employed in this field. The focus will be on CVI applied to the sign system of universities, and its effect upon persons associated with it. Different sets of the CVI of a university will be shown as a background and depicted along with a lecturer from that university to see whether these stimuli change the way respondents judge the lecturer. This research is also intended to make an academic contribution within the field of experimental aesthetics.

**Research Question:** This exploratory research derives from the intention to reposition and therefore to rebrand UPSI. The main motivation behind this research project is to understand to what extent HE institutions, and UPSI in particular, can benefit from marketing and branding. This research also aims to address a more specific issue regarding the effectiveness of the CVI, which is:

Does a Corporate Visual Identity (CVI), as the most visible tool in branding, have an effect on the perception of people associated with it?

In the process of clarifying the primary research question, a number of additional research questions were also considered during the study. These additional research questions were:

I) **Does the influence of the logo on perception of the university differ according to whether it is traditional (heraldry) or modern?**

II) **Does the influence of the logo on perception differ according to the name of a university?**

III) **Does the influence of the logo on perception differ according to gender?**

**Design/method/approach:** This study sits within social science research and is a practice-based project. The research was undertaken in two stages: the first stage was 'research-led-design', and the second was 'research-in-design'. The first is the design
process, which involved adopting research methods from qualitative enquiry to gain in-depth knowledge, and to assist with the design outcomes. The second, which was the major methodological approach of this research, applied a quantitative method to answer the primary research question and the additional research questions derived from the first stage. As a mixed methods research combining qualitative and quantitative frameworks, this research strategy can be described as ‘confirm and discover’ (Bryman 2008).

According to Bryman (2008), there are many ways of combining quantitative and qualitative research, namely offset, completeness, instrument development and credibility. In this particular approach, the qualitative data are used to generate additional research questions and stimulus materials, and quantitative research is used to test and validate, the primary and additional research questions within a single research project. Although the weight of these two types of approaches may differ during different stages of the research, both are important to this study.

**Research limitations/implications**: Time constraints formed one of the major obstacles in this research. In order to achieve an adequate balance between a live project and research requirements, and between qualitative and quantitative research approaches, the researcher acknowledges that limitations were placed on the research. These included lack of user involvement during the qualitative data collection and the design process. Limitations to this study are discussed in detail in the last chapter of this thesis – Discussions and Conclusion.

**Originality/value**: This research explores a new means of testing CVI derived from environmental psychology, namely the Room Effect method, developed by Canter in 1977. Thus, the research is proposing an alternative method for CVI evaluation. This is different from conventional ways of looking at the CVI, which focus solely on the design elements such as shape, colour, and font, and the designer's intuitions, such as good, bad, and beautiful. This research also offers an insight into a live design project by demonstrating how the designer can benefit from a proper research method that can be used in the design process.
Structure of the Thesis

This thesis mounts the argument that branding in HE is an important field of research, especially in relation to CVI. There are nine chapters in this thesis and each one will be summarised and structured as follows:

1. Introduction; has briefly explained this research project under three main topics I) Background, II) Aim and Scope, and III) Structure of the Thesis.

2. Branding in Higher Education; reviews relevant literature on issues related to HE including globalisation and internationalisation. Also in this chapter is a review of branding literatures in the broader sense, which later moves to a more specific discussion on the context of HE. Also included is discussion of non-profit and service oriented organisations, which differ from the 'for-profit' sectors, and are similar to government services, health and cultural institutions, as well as HE institutions.

3. Design Context; reviews relevant published knowledge within practise-based design for the commencement of a live rebranding project for UPSI. This chapter outlines the discussion regarding design management including design thinking in relation to this research project. Eventually, seven strategic plans for the university's external communication are identified and put forward to the VC and BOD, which encompass three major areas:
   I) Technology: developing a new web site, and a virtual university presence.
   II) Marketing: investing in print advertisements in the Times Higher Education (THE) magazine, and establishing a city campus.
   III) Management: repositioning the university, restructuring the organisation, and creating a new Faculty.

With the strategy being put forward, a new CVI is developed to communicate the changes and to provide a design solution reflecting these new directions. Discussion regarding CVI design guidelines and evaluation are also presented in this chapter.

4. Methodology and Qualitative Enquiries; illustrates why research in design needs to adopt theories as well as methods from other well-established disciplines, including
in this case psychology and marketing. It is necessary for designers to improve their professionalism and to be able to assimilate other methods into their work processes. The qualitative methods adopted in the research project are imperative in order to form a better understanding and to support the development of a new CVI for UPSI.

5. Design Process and Outcomes; reflects on the design process derived from the qualitative approach. This section illustrates the steps that were involved in the development of the new CVI. Several options for the CVI were presented to the VC and BOD for consideration. Two of these CVI options are tested in the quantitative study.

6. Quantitative Research; demonstrates how this research has been executed with a quantitative approach in order to validate the primary research question and additional research questions. This chapter also presents a proposed new method of CVI evaluation derived from environmental psychology, called the Room Effect, explaining how the method works and also design strategies applied in answering both the primary research question and additional research questions.

7. Pilot Research; explains the use of a paper-based survey as a pilot study to test the feasibility of the research questionnaire and stimuli and improve the research design before conducting a large-scale survey. The administration of the survey, data analysis, and results are presented, followed by discussion of the research findings.

8. Actual Research; explains the administration of the actual survey and discussion of the findings. An online survey was selected as the main data-gathering instrument in this study. Graphs and charts for the results are presented, followed by discussion of the most significant research findings.

9. Discussion and Conclusion; presents a summary of research findings and their contribution within the design field. This chapter also discusses the research limitations and reflects how this research could be extended for future research. The thesis concludes that as universities’ direction and funding have increasingly changed the way they operate, so does the management of universities’ image and reputation. The competition between universities to prove their credibility and scholarship has become so intense that every aspect that can help to improve their performances as well as perceptions should be taken seriously, and one significant element is the CVI.
Chapter 2
Branding in Higher Education

This section investigates current issues related to Higher Education (HE) including globalisation and internationalisation. Included is a review of branding in the broader sense and a more specific investigation in the context of HE. Other topics included in this section are branding in non-profit or service oriented organisations, which are regarded as similar in the context of the discussion. In this investigation, HE institutions are seen to be in the same category as government services and health and cultural institutions, which differ from the for-profit sector.

Globalisation and Internationalisation in HE

Several issues have emerged in relation to globalisation and internationalisation in HE worldwide, namely student mobility (Margison & McBurnie 2004); marketing (Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana 2007); the international league tables that rank world universities (Bunzel 2007); and the establishment of research universities (Altbach 2007).

Student Mobility

In 2006, UNESCO estimated that over 2.5 million students were being educated at the tertiary level in countries other than their homes, up from an estimated 1.7 million in 2000. A report from IDP Education Australia predicted that by 2025 almost eight million students would be educated trans-nationally.

Each year international students contribute billions of dollars to the US economy through their tuition fees and living expenses. In 2006 to 2007 the net contribution to the US economy by foreign students and their families was over $14 billion (Atlas 2007). As a world-leading destination for tertiary education, followed by the UK and Australia, the US is taking advantage of the increasing amount of student mobility, especially from developing countries, and mainly from the Asian region. According to Margison & McBurnie (2004), the US received over 44 per cent of the international students coming from Asia in the year 2001, the UK 11.3 per cent, and Australia 12.5 per cent.
The top regional source for international students, constituting 43 per cent of post-secondary international students studying in OECD countries, is Asia. Four out of five top source countries for international students in the OECD area come from this region. China, including Hong Kong – 10 per cent or 147 thousand, has the most students abroad. This is followed by Korea – five per cent or over 70 thousand, third being India – four per cent or 61 thousand, fifth-ranked is Japan – over three per cent or 55 thousand, and 11th ranked is Malaysia – two per cent or 33 thousand (Margison & McBurnie 2004). The increasing number of middle-class families in the developing countries is identified as one of the key factors in trans-national education.

The key players in HE industries like the US, UK, and Australia each have at least one government organisation to focus on networking, collaboration and attaining more international students. For example, the UK has the British Council and Australia has IDP Education Australia. This phenomenon, as Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka (2006) have noted, occurs in most countries where marketisation has been viewed as a ‘compromise between privatization, academic autonomy and state control’. Similarly, Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana (2007) reported in 2000 that the UK government had backed a £5 million, three-year worldwide campaign to attract more international students to the UK. The author also believes that a significant sum was spent by the US and Australia for the same reason.

The elements of globalisation in HE are now well established as a global phenomenon. The HE market is becoming more pervasive and complex, although it also offers major-English speaking nations like the US, UK, Australia and Canada a huge advantage. In the context of increasing competition for local and foreign students, most HE institutions now recognise that they need to market themselves in a climate of international competition (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka 2006).

Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2006) also reported that in recent years there has been a paradigm shift in the governance of the HE system throughout the world, and marketisation policies and market-type mechanisms have been introduced in countries previously characterised by a high degree of government control. This phenomenon has evoked a so-called ‘liberalisation’ shift in the governance of HE institutions. This situation may cause a major problem for some institutions in developing countries, which are fully funded by their governments, bringing pressure on them to adopt the new system of marketisation.
The International League Tables

Bunzel (2007) argues that a university is no longer just an institution of higher learning but also a business. Hence, it is critical for a business to create awareness of their existence in a competitive marketplace to ensure their future survival. He also claims—that the market share for products has been replaced with rankings by publications such as US News & World Report – US, Times Higher Education (THE) – UK, and Shanghai Jiao Tong (SHJT) – PR China. These publications, providing the rankings of universities, have become an industry worth millions of dollars and some universities are willing to spend a huge sum of money trying to improve their image and secure their position in these rankings.

The international league tables ranking world university performances, such as the THE – World Universities Rankings (Ince 2007) and SHJT – Academic Ranking of World Universities (Shanghai Jiao Tong 2008), predominantly place weightings on research quality performance as a top priority contributor to the positive development of HE. Although both the measures and weightings differ, the assessments are likely to be parallel to achieve world-class university status.

Consequently, these ranking systems give a clear indication of which are the best HE institutions available worldwide. Those universities at the top of the list will have the prestige to attract the brightest students, researchers and scholars from around the world, and have more opportunities to access funds from international research grants.

Research University

As the competition amongst HE institutions for world rankings is becoming more and more intense, the research performance index has become more important than ever. To some extent, some universities have established a reputation as or have been rewarded with the title of ‘Research University’ to embark on a move to a higher status.

While Research Universities are predominantly found in developed countries such as the US and UK, and are prominently listed in world rankings of top universities, developing countries including Malaysia are making constructive efforts in order to establish their own Research Universities. However, there are numerous challenges and obstacles to initiate a Research University in any developing country. These challenges may include funding, research culture, commercialisation and marketing, autonomy and accountability, globalisation of science and scholarship, academic profession and
independence, public versus private institution sectors, and Research Universities as meritocracies (Altbach 2007).

Criteria of the Research University

Research Universities are viewed as tertiary institutions that devote a large portion of their mission, resources and focus to graduate education and research. They are seen as academic institutions that are committed to the creation and distribution of knowledge in a range of disciplines and fields and which feature state-of-the-art facilities and infrastructure to permit teaching and research activities. In addition, the scholarship of the academics needs to be at the highest level, including most usually holding doctoral degrees. Most Research Universities share common characteristics, and according to Altbach (2007) these can be summarised as follows:

I) Most Research Universities are government-funded public HE institutions.

II) Most Research Universities are complex and ‘multiversities’; a university with multiplicity of missions and research is part of this, and tend to dominance in research and graduate study.

III) Research Universities are always resource intensive, which is often more expensive than other HE institutions.

IV) Research Universities tend to attract the ‘best and brightest’ students and the most talented professors, scientists and scholars who embrace a research culture, both locally and internationally.

There is no doubt that the Research University has set a new standard of quality in HE institutions and is intended to nurture a Research and Development (R&D) culture. In order to establish and maintain Research Universities, a huge investment in terms of time, money and energy is required, and perhaps robust action from governments in developing countries.
The Research University in Malaysia

According to the World Investment report in 2005 by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), Malaysia was ranked in 60th place in its Innovation Capability Index ranking, based on 2001 data. The index measures two critical aspects: 1) Technological activities of R&D expenditure and employment, US patents filed and scientific publications, and 2) Human capital as literacy rates and secondary and tertiary enrolments. Although the index was based on 2001 progression data, nevertheless, Malaysia has to take it seriously and measure their performance in order to accomplish the goals of Vision 2020 (Ministry of Higher Education 2007b).

Creating R&D culture in Malaysian HE is critical for overcoming the problem of low ranking, for several reasons (Ministry of Higher Education 2007a p.30):

I) To move the country higher in the global value chain and open new job avenues by creating more intellectual property and research innovations.

II) To promote Malaysia as an international and regional education hub by creating new knowledge and valuable new findings.

III) To nurture more human capital for all critical sectors in the national economy.

A report by the Malaysian Ministry of Science, Technology, and Innovation (MOSTI) in the National Survey of Research and Development 2006 stated that Malaysia had about 21 Researchers, Scientists and Engineers (RSE) per 10 thousand workers in 2003. This figure was relatively small compared to some of Malaysia's Asian neighbours such as Japan (131 RSEs per 10 thousand), Singapore (111), and South Korea (89). Furthermore, the Wan Zahid Report, 2005, also highlighted that the major obstacle to progress in R&D in HE in Malaysia was the constraints in resources (Ministry of Higher Education 2006).

The constraints can be identified as: lack of autonomy in the management of funds allocation; limited research grants; inadequate human resources (researchers, technicians, and supporting staff); poor state-of-the-art infrastructure; too much office bureaucracy; lack of incentive for researchers and information deficiency in relating to market demand. To expand the number of RSEs, the government has increased research funding to 1.5 per cent of the country's GDP under the Ninth Malaysia Plan or
9MP, which is more than a threefold increment compared to the previous 8MP. In addition the government aims to increase the number of PhD holders in Public Universities from 25 per cent to 60 per cent by year 2010. Ultimately, the government is expecting the number of RSEs to boost from 21 per 10 thousand to 50 and then 100 by 2010.

The creation of research-intensive universities in Malaysia started in 2006, along with the announcement of the Malaysian national budget in the Ninth Malaysian Plan. Four of the top Public Universities have been rewarded with Research University status; Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Universiti Malaya, Universiti Putra Malaysia and Universiti Sains Malaysia (including Universiti Teknologi Malaysia in 2010). However, there was little clear indication of the criteria of the selections. The only significant indicator was the ratio between graduate student and postgraduate student at 50:50, which was a part of the Key Performance Indicator (KPI) that was submitted by the universities to the MoHE. With all the advantages given by the government, in terms of funding and support, these universities will become the frontier in cultivating R&D culture in HE and fulfilling the national aspiration. In the near future, it is expected that a couple more Public Universities will join the league.

The government is pushing the Research Universities with other HE institutions to have more collaboration and networking, both locally and internationally, to ensure better R&D outcomes and to attract foreign scholars, research opportunities and foreign funding. Over a four year period, starting in 2007, the government is expecting the country to profit by having fifty RSEs per 10 thousand workforce, by commercialising a minimum of five per cent of R&D outcomes, by creating internationally-acclaimed Research Universities with five world renowned R&D centres of excellence, and by establishing a good management system as a foundation to prosper in R&D.

**The Creation of Apex University in Malaysia**

While the Research University has become a central focus in capitalising R&D for the interest of the nation, there is a notion that Malaysia needs to become more proactive and make a vigorous effort to promote itself as an international centre of academic excellence. In doing so, the government has put forward a new concept for HE institutions in Malaysia by the creation of the ‘Apex University’. The National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010 document stated:
An Apex University is a conceptual construct that in due time will stand atop the pyramid of institutions. The Apex Universities will be the nation’s centres of academic distinction (Ministry of Higher Education 2007a p. 35).

The creation of the Apex University indicates two significant revolutions in the history of Malaysian HE; the university has full authority over the governance of the institution, meaning more autonomy, and the selection of staff members and students is open and based on merit rather than using a quota system. The Apex Universities will recruit their management and academic staff, including the VC, from top performers in HE institutions worldwide, and are willing to give necessary remuneration to attract them. It will also impose rigorous assessment in student intake that requires a personal interview, to ensure the retention of the best and brightest. The actions taken by the government indicate that Apex University is adapting to the practice of the world’s top HE institutions, and will eventually achieve its own world-class universities.

In late 2007, at the time this text was written, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) or the University of Science Malaysia had just been awarded Apex University status by the MoHE. With the new status and privilege that has been offered, USM will have to prove it is capable of carrying the national inspiration to put its name in the top 200 universities in the world by 2010. The Malaysian Government will no doubt closely monitor the progression of the university, as this will be the benchmark to measure the success of the National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010. UPSI, on the other hand, aspires to attain the Apex ‘green field’ university status, a new category that has been offered by the government to all new Public Universities to encourage excellence in research performance.

From the literature on the current situation in HE around the globe, it is becoming clear that HE providers are under more pressure than ever before, especially in dealing with high expectations from the government, stakeholders, staff and students. As HE providers are striving to meet these expectations, there is a notion that ‘it is not enough just to be good but there is a need to be seen as good’, and ‘perception is the reality’. This study will investigate whether or not HE providers have adopted branding and to what extent they are willing to improve their ‘appearance’ in order to be seen as good.
Malaysian Higher Education

To gain a better understanding of the development of Malaysian HE, the study will commence with an overview of the history of HE in Malaysia and the Malaysian Government policies towards HE in the national context. Although the relationship between the government policies and the development of HE is inextricable, the political motives for the government actions are beyond the scope of this research. For this topic, the author has designed a timeline to map events, in order to visualise events and to make a connection between events and government policies (see table 2.1). There is no indication whether the Malaysian Government or Malaysian HE providers adopted any branding into the system during this periods presented in this timeline.

**Consolidation period**

The earliest evidence of the founding of institutional HE in Malaysia was by the establishment of the School of Medicine in Singapore, which dated back to 1905. This School became known as the King Edward VII College of Medicine in 1926. During this time, Singapore and Malaysia were politically inextricably linked. Another significant event in the establishment of institutional HE was the founding of the Sultan Idris Training College for teachers in Tanjong Malim, known as the SITC, in 1922. In 1987 the College became an institute, and in 1997 was given university status and changed its name to UPSI. The founder of this institution was a prominent figure in the pre-independence period in Malaysia, Sir Richard Winstedt, who was the Deputy Director of Malay Schools during that time (Zain & Kadir 2003).

The first step towards the establishment of a university in Malaysia began a year after independence, when a branch campus of the University of Malaya (UM) was created in 1958. UM had been formed in 1949 with the merging of King Edward VII College of Medicine and Raffles College in Singapore. Three years later in 1961 this branch campus was elevated to the status of a fully-fledged university, retaining the name UM, while the parent body in Singapore was renamed University of Singapore (Ministry of Higher Education 2006).

After gaining independence from the British, the Malaysian Government was formed with a racial integration political party called ‘Parti Perikatan’ or the Alliance party, which was later changed to Barisan National (BN) or the National Front in 1974. This party consisted of political parties from the three major races; Malay (UMNO), Chinese (MCA) and Indian (MIC).
Table 2.1: Timeline for related policies and events in Malaysian education and HE

Sources: Composed by the author, adapted from multiple sources published by MoHE, Malaysia.
One of the most significant events in the context of national education building during that time was the Razak Report, 1956, which became the basis of the Education Ordinance in 1957. The main agenda involved formation of a single system of national education, recognition of the eventual objective of making Bahasa Malaysia or Malay language the main medium of instruction, commencement of a Malaysia-oriented curriculum and the conception of a single system of evaluation for all (Ministry of Education 2008). Three years later, the Education Act, 1961, was introduced, based on the Rahman Talib Report. The act underlined the basis of the national education inspirations, which emphasise the 3R basic education (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic), the stress on a strong spiritual education and the desired elements of discipline, a Malaysian curriculum, the upper secondary education of two streams (academic and vocational), the opportunity to continue education to be extended from 9 years to 11 years, and the facilitation of educational management procedures to improve the overall quality of education (Ministry of Education 2008). It is also safe to say that the British education system had substantial influence in reforming the ‘Malaysian style’ education.

Providing More Opportunities

The establishment of Institut Teknologi MARA (ITM) in 1967 was a government initiative to help the Malay ethnic population to equip themselves with necessary skills and academic qualifications to be more competent and eventually improve the ethnic economic status. This institution was initially established in 1956 as the Rural Industrial Development Authority Training Centre. It became the MARA College in 1965 and gained university status in 1999, when it became known as UiTM.

The New Economic Policy (NEP) was introduced in 1969 to ease tension caused by economic imbalances between the races and ethnic identification with poverty, and at the same time, to foster national unity with the introduction of the Rukunegara or National Ideology. The strategy of the policy was to reduce and ultimately eliminate poverty by increasing employment opportunities for all citizens, regardless of race, and restructuring society to reduce and ultimately eliminate identification of race with economic function (Economic Planning Unit 2008a).

This policy also a big impact on the development of national HE, which led to the establishment of another four Public Universities, USM, UKM, UPM, and UTM, in the late 60’s and early 70’s. These universities were open to all Malaysian citizens, meaning those of the three major ethnicities, such as Malay, Chinese, and Indian, as
well as the Bumiputra, embracing those of other ethnic origin, for example Javanese and Bugis, and indigenous ethnic groups such as Orang Asli, Dayak, and Kadazan.

Since the late 1980s many local universities and colleges have opened their doors to ‘intellectual’ collaboration with foreign universities. This intellectual collaboration means that the local HE institutions offer programmes that are linked with foreign universities, which sometimes are known as transnational education programmes and include twinning, credit transfer, external degree, and distance learning programmes.

The twinning programmes offer split degrees, where the students study a part of the degree in a local institution, before proceeding to the foreign university to complete the qualification. Typical twinning arrangements are either ‘2+1’ (two years in the local college and one year in the overseas twinning university) or ‘2+2’ or ‘3+0’, which means that Malaysians can obtain a foreign degree without having to go abroad (Lee 2004). For some, these flexible programmes have given huge opportunities to further their studies through a Western style of education but within a local environment. However, in the mid 80s and late 90s, Malaysia suffered from the Asian economic crisis, which eventually affected the opportunities for young Malaysians to pursue their education overseas. These twinning programmes then became the perfect solution, especially when the fees involved were only a fraction of the actual cost of studying abroad.

Nevertheless, despite the benefits that the country and students could gain from this intellectual collaboration, Altbach (2004) argued that there was some conflict pertaining to these practices:

Sometimes foreign academic degree programmes are simply ‘franchised’ by local institutions. The foreign university lends its name and curriculum, providing some (often quite limited) supervision and quality control to a local academic institution or perhaps business firm. The new institution is given the right to grant a degree of the foreign institution to local students. These franchising arrangements have led to many abuses and much criticism (p. 18).

The comments made by Altbach show the possible damage that could attach to Malaysian reputations in providing quality tertiary education to both local and international students
through such twinning arrangements, especially in the private universities and colleges. However, the Public Universities have not been significantly affected by the issues raised by Altbach, since only a small number of the Public Universities have offered twinning programmes with foreign HE providers.

The National Aspirations

In the early 1990’s, Dr. Mahathir Mohamed, the fourth Malaysian Prime Minister, vigorously promoted Malaysia as a model for developing countries. This model emphasised technological advancement, coupled with ‘moral’ values consistent with a moderate Islamic state. Underpinning this, as a national strategy, was ‘Vision 2020’, which was established in 1991, and which aimed for Malaysia to become a developed nation and industrial based economic country by the year 2020 (Economic Planning Unit 2008b). The National Development Policy (NDP) was introduced in the same year as a backbone to support the national vision. One of the significant projects from this vision was the creation of the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC) major projects in 1995, which had similarities with Silicon Valley in the US. Physically, the MSC project is a 50km radius high-tech zone, encompassing Putrajaya, the newly developed administrative headquarters of the Malaysian Government; Cyberjaya, which acts as an IT hub and centre for foreign multinationals and export oriented domestic firms; KLIA (Kuala Lumpur International Airport), a world-class airport; and the Petronas Twin Towers at the heart of Kuala Lumpur. MSC under the management of Multimedia Development Corporation (MDC) was intended to offer benefits to both global and domestic Malaysian companies focused on multimedia and communications products, solutions, services and R&D.

Vicziany and Puteh (2004) argue that the creation of MSC has had very little or no impact on the development of HE in Malaysia:

We were very puzzled by the failure to develop a tertiary educational component in the original flagship projects of the MSC...Malaysian Government did not have an IT policy for the college sector. Nor did any of the five-year plans set out any strategies or budgets for developing IT approaches in tertiary education (Vicziany & Puteh 2004 p. 10).
However, the author argues that in the same year as the establishment of MSC, the *Education Bill 1995* was introduced, which clearly stated that the national education system was designed to produce world-class education from the aspect of quality to archive the nation’s aspirations. It also hinted at two significant actions; Technical and Polytechnic education would be upgraded, and allocations were made for the supervision of private education. This was followed by the introduction of three education policies a year later: the *Education Act 1996*, *Private Higher Educational Institution Act 1996* and *The National Accreditation Board Act 1996*. The Education Act 1996, replacing the previous Education Act 1961, encompassed all education levels in the national education system, including HE (Ministry of Higher Education 2006). In this Act, the education policy was consolidated and broadened in line with current and future development.

The *Private Higher Educational Institution Act 1996* and *The National Accreditation Board Act 1996* were implemented to strengthen the private sector of HE that lead to private education continuing to grow at a rapid pace. Eventually, the figure rose from 156 private HE providers in 1992 to 354 by 1996 (Ministry of Higher Education 2006). The *Private Higher Education Institutions Act 1996* states:

> Whereas higher education plays an important role in realizing the vision towards academic excellence and professional and technical enhancement whilst meeting the manpower needs of the nation;

> And whereas it is imperative to facilitate and regulate private higher education institutions so as to ensure its healthy development and the provision of quality education… (Ministry of Higher Education 2006 p. 33).

Both Acts acknowledge the importance of human development in knowledge and technology to achieve excellence in nation building. The MSC project may not have had a clear impact on the physical development and IT development of HE, but these Acts have enabled the establishment of private universities with some fully-funded by the Government-Linked Companies (GLC) including UNITEN by Tenaga National Berhad (National Electricity) in 1996, Multimedia University also known as MMU by Telekom Berhad (National Telecommunication) in 1997, and UTP by Petronas Berhad (oil and energy) in 1997. Two of the university campuses (MMU and UNITEN) were in fact located within the MSC zone along with other MSC status private colleges.
As part of jump-starting the MSC initiative, the government set up seven innovative flagship applications in the MSC. These projects aimed to raise the level of technology adoption within Malaysian society by introducing technology applications for government, healthcare, education and business services. These applications covered initiatives in the following areas; Electronic Government, Multipurpose Card, Smart School, Tele-health, R&D Clusters, E-Business and ‘Technopreneur’ Development (Shikoh 2005).

In 1997, the government agreed to extend the MSC status to local and foreign HE providers who complied with the MSC requirements. One of the advantages that HE providers could gain from the MSC incentives was to allow unrestricted employment of local and foreign knowledge workers. This meant that people from industrial backgrounds and specialists in their fields could teach in Malaysian HE institutions even though they did not hold the appropriate academic qualification. With this flexibility, HE institutions not only could overcome the shortage of lecturers but also secure a strong link with industries. To boost the number of local students enrolling in HE institutions, especially from middle class families, the government set up a national low-cost educational loan schemes for HE called The National Higher Education Fund Corporation (PTPTN). The National Higher Education Fund Corporation Act 1997 outlined the responsibilities of PTPTN to obtain and disburse education loans and financial assistance to HE students, to recover loans and to set up a HE loan scheme. Thus, enabling the local students who enrolled in most of the HE institutions in Malaysia to easily access the loans.

The 1996 Legislation Acts was the key revolutionary change in the history of Malaysian HE. Foreign universities had been invited to take full advantage of the opportunities in the borderless world to open their offshore campuses in Malaysia. The government acknowledged the synergy between the government, the private sector, and strategic foreign academic partners in achieving Vision 2020. The first foreign university to capitalise on these opportunities and open their branch campus was Monash University of Australia. The university formed a strategic partnership with the Sunway Corporation based in Malaysia and established Monash University Sunway Campus Malaysia (MUSCM) in 1998.

According to Banks and McBurnie (1999), the characteristics of a branch campus in the new Malaysian model would appear beneficial for both local and international students, who were studying at the tertiary levels, as well as to staff members, which
included academic and non-academic staff in administrative, teaching and research areas. Further, Banks and McBurnie (1999) also listed the benefits that both Malaysia and the foreign institution, in this case, Monash University, Australia, would gain through this strategic partnership. The benefits to Malaysia included assisting the government to provide educational infrastructure at a minimal cost and at the same time to nurture university creations and foreign intellectual capital, including research and community services functions in addition to teaching.

The introduction of foreign programmes could be focused on disciplines that were in line with the national goals towards Vision 2020. Offering foreign degrees at home provided lower cost education without compromising the quality of education to local students and, in addition, attracted international students to Malaysia. Monash University would also benefit in this strategic collaboration, through enhancing its regional and international profile and expanding the number of students and student exchanges, alumni, academic networking and research and development. In addition, the campus structure would serve as a pilot project for the university that would be useful to be adapted by other countries, thus offering more opportunities for staff to gain international experiences (Banks & McBurnie 1999).

After the successful establishment of Monash University in Malaysia, other foreign universities, which had initially probably been slightly sceptical about the idea of opening Malaysian branch campuses in the first place, felt that they too should take advantage of this new legislation. At the beginning of the millennium, a number of foreign universities opened their branch campuses in Malaysia: the University of Nottingham from the UK in 2000, Swinburne University of Technology in 2001 and Curtin University of Technology in 2002, both from Australia.

In 2001, the government announced a new national development policy called the National Vision Policy (NVP) for 2001 to 2010. The objective of NVP was to increase the stability and competitiveness of the country and place more emphasis on the development of human resources. The intention was clear that in order to attract more international High-Tech-based-companies and nurture the technology transfer to the country, Malaysia had to have enough human capital. This meant that HE institutions needed to play an important role in producing more quality graduates and offering more technological and industrial related courses that could serve the nation’s demand. The strong pressure from the government for HE institutions, especially the Public Universities, to play a major role in NVP may challenge some conservative views of a
university's role amongst HE top management. To push change, the government has created a sense of urgency in the HE environment, by promoting more private universities and allowing foreign universities to open branch campuses. This will eventually push the Public Universities to become more competitive in the open market condition.

Another concern in Malaysian HE is the mastering of English language by students and lecturers. Since English is accepted as the international medium of communication, it is vital for Malaysian graduates to be able to use the language in their work places. There has been a long discussion on the language of instruction in the education system; on the one hand, there has been a need to shelter and uphold the Malay language as the national language, while on the other hand, to adopt English into the education system. The government has acknowledged the importance of English language and has decided not only to support it at tertiary level, but also to start at a much earlier stage. To do so, the Malaysian Minister of Education (MoE) announced plans to instigate English in Mathematics and Science subjects at primary school levels starting in 2003. This dictum has caused polemic amongst academicians, parents and those who have a strong sentiment of nationalism toward the national language. However, it was a firm decision from the government, despite some of the raised issues concerning Malay pupils, who already struggle to study these subjects in their mother tongue, and who would not be able to learn them at all in English.

Late 2003 saw Malaysia giving way to a fifth Prime Minister, Abdullah Ahmad Badawi. Quoting his early speech as Prime Minister on HE at NEAC Dialogue Forum, 13 January 2004:

I believe we will need nothing less than an ‘education revolution’ to ensure that our aspirations to instil a new performance culture in the public and private sectors is not crippled by our inability to nurture a new kind of human capital that is equal to the tasks and challenges ahead <http://www.pmo.gov.my>.

With the fifth Prime Minister, the national education constitution and HE underwent a revolution by restructuring the MoE and the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) as a separate entity from the MoE in 2004. This means that all public and private institutions of HE, including polytechnics and community colleges, are now under MoHE, while the predecessor, MoE can now concentrate on the
development of primary and secondary education levels. The establishment of a new ministry, which is devoted to improving the quality and excellence of HE, indicates that the government is serious in preparing Malaysian HE to be more appropriate to meet future challenges.

A year after the founding of the new ministry, an independent committee was commissioned by the MoHE to make recommendations on the future direction of HE in Malaysia. Their report, the *Wan Zahid Report 2005*, put forward 138 recommendations for consideration by the MoHE and the government. These recommendations were grouped under five different categories (Ministry of Higher Education 2006 p. xxvii):

I) Excellence in teaching and learning.

II) Excellence in research and development.

III) Excellence in the capability of institutions of HE to make contributions to the economy and society.

IV) Excellence in capacity of institutions of HE to fulfil their core functions.

V) Excellence in initiating the democratization of education by ensuring access and participation of all Malaysians irrespective of race, colour, or political loyalty.

To keep up with the fast pace in the global demand for HE, the Malaysian Government adopted a variant of the UK Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) for its Public Universities and designated the top four as Research Universities. In 2006, four universities were awarded Research University status: Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), and Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). Accompanying this came additional funding of RM 153 million each per-annum over five years from the *Ninth Malaysia Plan* (9MP) to encourage R&D and commercialisation (Azizan 2007). In the same year, two of the RUs, the UKM (185th rank) and the UM (192nd rank) were listed in the THE – World Universities Rankings top 200 (Ince 2007).

However, this was later found to reflect an error in two of the measures: the number of international students studying there, and the number of international staff. The
The compilers of the index had failed to notice that many staff and students, especially the Chinese and Indian, were in fact Malaysians. Since these figures were rectified, no Malaysian university has been included in either index in recent years, much to the consternation of the government. The intention is that the new funding regime for Research Universities will remedy this.

To monitor and raise the quality of national HE institutions and to secure world universities ranking, the MoHE has reshuffled units within the ministry, formally known as LAN or the National Accreditation Board and Quality Assurance Division, to merge and form a new entity, which has also lead to a new name; Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA) in 2007. This entity is responsible for quality assurance practices and accreditation of HE for both the public and the private sectors. The main role of the MQA is to implement the *Malaysian Qualifications Framework* (MQF) as a basis for quality assurance of higher education and as the reference point for the criteria and standards for national qualifications.

Since all Public Universities rely heavily on government funding, this situation has not only put significant pressure to the Research Universities, but also on the rest of the universities to prove to be or be seen as highly competitive. The diasporas become more obvious, not only amongst the university top management and academia, but to the public as well.

In 2007, a special report called Academic Reputation Survey (ARES) was conducted by a team consisting of academicians from two top Research Universities (UKM and UM) and organized by the Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA) body, a sub-department under the MoHE. The purpose of the ARES research was to analyse perception of the academy, corporate sectors and employers toward Public Universities.

The ARES questionnaires were sent to 954 parties, comprising Public Universities (272), Asian universities (two), corporate companies (nine) and professional and certification bodies (19). Respondents were asked to assess universities under ten domains on a six-point Likert scale. The domain included research quality, academic resources and reputation, quality of programmes, and graduates. Refer to figure 2.1 and 2.2.
In sum, USM was chosen as the overall top university, and none of the universities were listed in the outstanding level. As for UPSI, the university was perceived as satisfactory within the domain of ‘overall respondent perception’. However, in the ‘perceived research performance’ domain, UPSI scored the lowest scale – unsatisfactory.

With the same notion, the MoHE had formed a committee to incorporate the relevant elements of the Ninth Malaysia Plan (9MP) and the recommendations from the Wan Zahid Report 2005, and issued the Transformation of Higher Education document in January 2007. These reports later became the basis to form two important documents that outline the government plans and actions for the future of HE in Malaysia. The two blueprints are: the National Higher Education Strategic Plan outlining the long-term

With high confidence that Malaysian HE will prosper and be capable to compete within the local, regional, and international markets, in 2007 the government announced its plan for Malaysia to become an International HE hub, aiming for 100 thousand international students by 2010 (Chapman 2007). In late 2010, at the time this thesis was written, it was reported that around 80 thousand international students were currently studying in Malaysia at the tertiary level (Kumar & Ahzan 2010).

**Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris**

As stated above, Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI) or Sultan Idris Education University, is amongst the oldest HE institutions in Malaysia (Zain & Kadir 2003). UPSI has undergone constant change from its founding as SITC in 1922 to the granting of university status in 1997 when it became the Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris. Currently, UPSI has approximately 15 thousand students and its main focus is to provide pre-service teacher education in a wide range of subject areas (Ayob 2007). UPSI also assists the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MoE) to upgrade existing teachers and headmasters to degree levels in order to meet the targeted 100 per cent and 50 per cent graduate teachers in secondary and primary schools, respectively by 2010 (Ayob & Tek 2006). Current graduate teachers can also upgrade themselves academically and professionally by registering for full-time or part-time post-graduate programs offered by UPSI.

With a new VC, Professor Aminah Ayob, elected in late 2007, UPSI has been inspired to be the leader in innovating national and international education. It has a new mission of ‘educating the nation’, becoming a ‘world-class university’ and a ‘referral & repository centre’ in education knowledge (Ayob 2007). To achieve the new vision and mission the new VC presented her strategic plans to staff and the Board of Directors (BOD) to gain their trust and support. This matter is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.
Evolution of Brand in Higher Education

This section on branding first discusses the published literature on branding in the commercial sphere, and then focuses on more direct comparison with the branding of HE, which includes services and non-profit organisations.

The Meaning of Brand

There is no single definition to explain the meaning of the term brand, as it depends on which discipline or perspective is the focus area including, psychology, marketing, history, linguistic or a more nascent discipline like design. Many authors and scholars or so-called ‘brand gurus’ have come out with myriad explanations to unfold the true meaning of brand. The word ‘brand’ is derived from the process of marking cattle with a burning iron to mark ownership (Mollerup 1997). However, the meaning of brand itself has evolved in a more complex form and has become as debated as the word culture in the English language (Allen et al. 2008).

In general, brand can help to establish and communicate a set of values, a vision and an attitude, thus differentiating one thing from others (Davis 2005). A brand is intended mainly to resolve differences between products in the mind of the prospective buyer (Ries & Ries 2005). However, brand also can be associated with a service, organisation, person or symbol, and is more likely to intertwine each other (Aaker 1996). Brand and the activities behind it have been embedded in the robust world of capitalism and consumerism. The development of modern branding has risen along with the industrial revolution in Western countries especially the US (Low & Fullerton 1994). The rise of middle classes created by the industrial revolution promised a growing group of more prosperous and better-educated consumers craving for better products and services. The implementation of legal factors, such as the recognition of trademarks and copyrights, along with improvement in distribution and communication have nurtured brand building (Roper & Parker 2006).

The Brand Review

As brand occupies a greater role in modern human life, it has become a focus for scholars and researchers to study and add to the body of knowledge on branding. While brand may have started with the notion of selling products and services, it has been expanded in other related and often more intangible areas such as corporate branding (Balmer 1995; Harris & de Chernatony 2001; van Riel & Balmer 1997); brand
identity (Wheeler 2003), brand equity (Aaker 1991; Keller 1993); brand personality (Aaker 1997; Keller & Richey 2006); brand values (de Chernatony, Drury & Segal-Horn 2004); Brand experience (Norton 2003); brand co-meaning (Allen, Fournier & Miller 2008); ‘Lovemarks’ (Roberts 2004); and internal branding (Interbrand 2004; Thomson et al. 1999); which constitute some of the many examples of how brand can be considered.

Brand has also extended beyond profit driven consumer goods and services to non-profit sectors like health care and Higher Education (Hayes 2007; Roper & Parker 2006); to countries or nations (Olin 2002; van Ham 2008); to cities (Greenberg 2000); and also to people and celebrity (DeSarbo & Harshman 1985; Schroeder 2005). In some cases, these entities have evolved to become commercial commodities.

With the advancement of communication technology and media, the brand has a quick passageway to deliver the message. Hatch and Rubin (2006) have argued that brand is mediated through media. However, traditional media advertising through television is now facing big challenges. Product placements in movies and television mini-series have been infused into the sales of products and services. Furthermore, product placement can become the centre of attention in a movie so that it blends in as a key character in the story like *The Italian Job* (Car – Mini Cooper), *The Devil wears Prada* (Fashion – Prada), *I am Sam* (Coffee – Starbucks), and *Cast Away* (Courier – FedEx). Other utilisation of media and technology capacity is the Internet. The new web 2.0 applications offer huge opportunities, especially to add another dimension of interactivity and consumer engagement with the brand. These are some of the many examples that demonstrate how brand is mediated through media.

Based on recent brand tenets on commercial branding, issues regarding consumer participation in meaningful brand experiences, the consumer as co-creator of brand meaning, and brand personality have clearly emerged as important matters worth discussing and some lessons can be learnt concerning the branding of HE.

**Meaningful Experience**

Figure 2.3 shows how Norton (2003) has provided a useful insight on how brand has evolved from the 1980s to the start of the 21st century as a reaction to fulfil the needs and desires of modern society. Norton has presented three categories underpinning the motivation behind brand evolution: I) evolution in consumer demand, II) successful brand strategies, and III) design solutions.
Norton (2003) argues that underlying the growth and transformations of consumption in the past two decades were powerful shifts in cultural forces that affected not only what we consumed but also how we lived. At the core of this shift was the decreasing of cultural capital in larger society. Cultural capital refers to intangible benefits derived from the most meaningful experiences in our lives, including the people that we care for (e.g. family and friends), our beliefs (e.g. government and religion), and the path that we form based on our repertoire of knowledge. The more meaningful ‘an experience’ is, the more cultural capital we associate with that experience.

Norton (2003) argues there are five factors to determine success. This includes: learn how to get consumers to want to spend time with the brands, identify the brand truth, design to allow consumers to produce their own meaningful experiences, measure the cultural capital created, and care deeply.

1) Learn how to get consumers to want to spend time with the brands
   The distinguishing feature between selling things and providing experiences is whether consumers are willing to spend their precious time with the offering; the longer time they spent, the greater opportunity for the brand to make profits. Many successful companies have adopted this approach. For example, Starbucks has successfully created what they call ‘the third place’ that is neither home nor workplace but Starbucks – the place, where people can meet, socialise and perhaps enjoy their coffee. Nike has changed the interior of their worldwide franchise retail shops to offer the same ‘ambience’ for the consumer, and has not focused so much on selling the products but on offering shopping experience, so that the consumers will spend more time in it. With the Internet, many have adopted free membership or storage to induce people to stay longer on their site. Yahoo has raised the storage limit for their email users. Companies like Youtube, Facebook, and Flickr share similar successful stories.
2) **Identify the brand truth**

Over the past decades, consumers have been bombarded with promises through advertising. Brands need to stand for what they have promised and deliver it. A good starting point is to determine the issue or cause that is unique to the company, which some may call the Unique Selling Proposition (USP), that matters to the consumer and can be sustained. One example shared by Norton is the story about a brand in the US, called General Mills who identified their brand truth as: ‘Supporting a child’s education matters to mothers and General Mills’. The brand successfully delivered their promise by donating ten cents to schools for each box top collected. Consumers, especially mothers in California, could feel good about themselves by contributing something meaningful to their children’s schools when they bought the product. Significantly, billions of box tops are collected each year and delivered to General Mills and millions of dollars are donated (Norton 2003). Adding to the story, brands like Milo have established a sports partnership with the Malaysian government in promoting sports development and young athletes’ programmes for school. Other brands like Benetton and Bodyshop use cultural or environmental issues as the means to sell their brand truths.

3) **Allow consumers to produce their own meaningful experiences**

To cope with modern society, brands need to leverage their community-building efforts to suit the needs and desires of their target audiences, so that consumers can also participate in doing good deeds. What consumers really want from brands is a means of turning their everyday interactions with products and services into time well spent. For instance, Chad Hurley and his friends founded a very successful non-profit web-based company called Youtube in 2005. Youtube is a video sharing website where users can upload, view and share video clips without worrying about the type of media player and video format. Users can literally upload any type of video format and let the service provider worry about the rest of the process. A year after establishment, the company revealed that more than 100 million videos were being watched every day, and the number remarkably increased to 2.5 billion in June 2006. The key behind the success is simply providing a user friendly, hassle free format that permits users to share their personal or favourite videos.

4) **Measure the cultural capital created**

Creating truly meaningful experiences requires a significant amount of investment and funding. A brand needs to understand how cultural capital creation builds demand. Nevertheless, to sustain investments in things as intangible as philanthropy
may require new measures of success. Many discussions related to this issue can be found in other brand tenets such as measuring brand equity and brand value (see Aaker 1997; Keller 1993).

5) **Care deeply**

Nothing motivates employees and customers more than knowing the brand they work for, buy or use is doing the right thing and not just making profits. Brands have to show their passions by caring deeply, which affects every aspect of the product process and the society in which that product is made and used. Norton shows how a non-profit organisation called ‘Share Our Strength’, dedicated to relieve hunger in the US, has managed to raise $46 million since 1998 and has convinced tens of thousands of people to participate. Bill Shore, the founder of the organization, developed a winning idea after his first attempt to get donations from famous chefs around the country failed. He wrote instead asking chefs not just for funds, but also for food, equipment, and staff, which was very successful (Norton 2003). Under the notion of ‘giving is the new taking’, many for-profit companies are willing to spend a substantial amount of annual budget to show their compassion.

The examples given have demonstrated that when consumer demand and brand assistance are correlated with each other, both parties – consumer and producer – will gain a great advantage. In the end, both are willing to give in order to gain something. Consumers will eventually participate in order to have the opportunities that will give purpose to their life and make connections among them, and on the other hand, brands will have to invest in order to provide meaningful experiences to gain consumers’ trust and later to make profits.

**Consumer as Co-creator of Brand Meaning**

Allen, Fournier and Miller (2008) argue that the information-based conception of the brand, focusing on the creation and sensible management of brand equity, has become the centre of academic discourse, but this represents only one side of the nature of brand and the process of branding. Allen, Fournier and Miller (2008) have proposed an alternative view and the need to extend the research area on brand as meaning making:
Consumers were re-conceptualised as active meaning makers rather than passive recipients of marketing products and communications. Founding interpretivists emphasized the need for consumer researchers to go beyond the study of individual consumers to consideration of consumers operating in cultures and social collectives (p. 784).

The search into the process of brand meaning making is still in its early stages and needs to be addressed more fully. McCracken (1986) has introduced a refinement to the basic framework of cultural branding and the concept of co-creation in his model for the movement of meaning into consumer goods (Refer to figure 2.4). The foundation of the original source and location of meaning is derived from the culturally constituted world, which brands ultimately draw on.

In his model, McCracken (1986) has pointed out how two mechanisms or brand authors, which shared cultural meanings, were translated and transferred to the product or brand. First was the firm, in which marketing departments and creative directors captured brand meanings through marketing communication tools. Second was the broader cultural production system outside the firm’s control that created, clarified and sorted these meanings over time. This model also suggests that the brand intrinsically possesses two distinct meanings. Firstly, the shared meaning created by the marketing systems and cultural traditions and secondly, the more personalised meaning constructed by the individual.

Figure 2.4: Model of meaning transfer
Source: McCracken, 1986
An example, which demonstrates how brands can evolve outside the control of the firm is that of the Coca-Cola Company, when they decided to change their traditional Coca-Cola name and ingredients to create the ‘New Coke’ in 1985. This company decision created havoc amongst their consumers, even though the Coca-Cola Company had undergone a substantial investment in market research and over 200 thousand blind taste tests to support the decision. A group called Inspirational Consumers formed ‘the Society for the Preservation of the Real Thing’ to make a protest. In Texas, a local man drove to the town and bought $1,000 worth of ‘real’ Coca-Cola, and there were many other similar cases, a reaction from panic buyers. In less than three months, the company decided to return to the original ingredients and retain the name Coca-Cola on the bottles (Roberts 2004). The Coca-Cola Company learnt a valuable lesson, that it was not only the company who owned and shaped the brand, but also the consumers.

Brands are required to be addressed as a dynamic and active form of interaction between consumer, culture and owner/firm, and need to be nurtured and treated as a uniquely individual entity. Allen, Fournier and Miller state that:

The emergent view accepts brands as dynamic, co-created entities, and brand meaning as neither inherent in the product nor constant across individuals, but rather derived from the ‘context’ in which brand ‘resides’. As such, brands present themselves not as static, pre-formulated management construal – ideally guided with consistency tenets in mind – but as dynamic and actively co-created entities that evolve with the consumers and culture in kind (Allen, Fournier & Miller 2008 p. 787).

The ability to engage deeply with the mind of the consumer and to acknowledge the important roles of both individual and cultural construction of meanings, in the process of creating positive connotations toward the brand, are the important ingredients for any brand either for-profit or non-profit, to succeed. Ultimately, the crucial moment for brands to make contact with the consumers has taken place long before the process of purchasing, and it is an infinite term of commitment.
Brand Personality

The term ‘brand personality’ was first introduced by Aaker (1997), as she attempted to discover the basis of personality dimensions for brand and product. Brand personality can be described as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker 1997 p.347). This proposition, which is linked to early studies by personality theorists on unfolding the foundation of human traits or dimensions of personality, has led to the creation of the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality or also known as the Big Five (Barrick & Mount 1991; McCrae & Costa 1987; Norman 1963).

Although there is consensus among researchers concerning the numbers of factors, there are some disparities regarding the names that best represent each factor. In most cases, the Big Five personality dimensions are referred to as: extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and open to experience (Barrick & Mount 1991).

As for the brand personality, Aaker (1997) identified five dimensions of personality: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness (refer figure 2.5). Brand personality can help consumers to differentiate between brands of products based on their unique personality, thus simplifying their decision-making process. Brand personality scales have been cited widely in marketing and branding literatures, and arguably have became one of the key features in measuring brand performance (Donahay & Rosenberger 2007; Grohmann 2009; Mulyanegara, Tsarenko & Anderson 2009; Rajagopal 2006).

Figure 2.5: Brand Personality framework
Source: Aaker, 1997
However, despite being widely cited by researchers, Aaker’s brand personality scales have been criticised as being too loose and conceptually confusing (Azoulay & Kapferer 2003). According to Azoulay and Kepferer (2003), despite the fact that the concept of brand personality is very useful, its definition and measurements must be clearly identified and discrete from other facets of brand identity. For this reason, they proposed a stricter definition; “brand personality is the set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands” (Azoulay & Kapferer 2003 p. 151).

Further critique has denoted Aaker’s brand personality dimensions as merely focusing on products and failing to include non-profit brands in developing the scales (Bennett & Gabriel 2000; Venable et al. 2005; Voeth & Herbst 2008). This indicates a new set of scales is needed in this uncharted area. Venable et al. (2005) for example, have identified four scales of personalities in charitable organisations. In their study, only two scales were consistent with Aaker’s original brand personality, sophistication and ruggedness, while two additional scales emerged: integrity (e.g. honest, positive influence, committed to the public good, reputable, and reliable), and nurturance (e.g. compassionate, caring, and loving).

In a study related to HE, Opoku et al. (2008) used brand personality scale to explore the positioning of the market of Swedish universities via their official websites. Using computerised content analysis software, this research analysed the word content of seventeen selected Swedish universities’ English websites that were synonymous with items from Aaker’s brand personality scales. The result revealed that these universities’ websites could be grouped into four principle clusters that best represented themselves, namely: sophistication, competence, ruggedness, and sincerity (Opoku, Hultman & Saheli-Sangari 2008). The study also revealed that dimension of the scales for sincerity, excitement, and to some extent, sophistication seemed closer to one another than competence and ruggedness.

**Branding in Non-profit Sectors**

Non-profit branding and services branding, such as for charity or fund-raising, government service, health and cultural institutions such as hospitals, post offices, and museums, are being seen as parallel to the nature of branding in HE. These entities are not for-profit oriented, instead focusing more on the services and development of good customer relationships in order to gain a profit.
To investigate this sector is essential in the context of this study. Literature on this brand tenet is still in its early stages, but does include discussion relating to the practical implementation of brand into non-profit area (Chiagouris 2005); the charity sector (Stride & Lee 2007); health care (Berry & Seltman 2007); museums (Caldwell & Coshall 2002); commercial and non-profit partnerships, and alliances (Dickson & Baker 2007); and branding labour-intensive services (Berry & Lampo 2004).

The motivation that has lead non-profit organisations to adopt branding can be traced to several factors: 1) achieving visibility in the expansion of local and global markets 2) competing for resources, such as funds, donations, supports, and volunteers, and 3) innovation in media and communication, such as mobile internet and satellite television, which has provided bigger opportunities for brands to reach the consumers.

Hayes has detected a similarity in terms of trends that are happening in health care services with HE providers that lead to marketing and branding (Hayes 2007). The trends include demographic changes, increased operating costs, and resistance within the organisation itself.

I) **Demographic changes**
Increasing numbers of health care and HE providers, along with increasing numbers of middle to upper middle class families, are demanding better service quality.

II) **Increased operating costs**
Implementing new technology for better diagnosis and treatment has become crucial for health care providers. However, this requires a huge investment to replace and maintain equipment. Likewise, installing computer networking, software, and other hi-tech devices in the classroom and within campus is also affecting cost for HE institutions.

III) **Resistance within the organisation itself**
Some of the providers are afraid that adopting marketing and branding into their services may impose negative impacts on the nature and integrity of the institution. This is perhaps the greatest challenge to marketing and branding for both health care and HE.
There is a significant growing interest from the non-profit sectors to embrace branding models, which are mostly being used as a descriptive and tactical approach, as well as for strategic application. The phenomenon probably came from the increasing demand and competition in this market segment. Stride and Lee (2007), argue that the non-profit sectors need to establish themselves by concentrating on and communicating their vision and core values, to stand apart from their competitors, but they emphasise that this topic is still not fully utilised. Stride and Lee (2007) also argue that further investigations for better understanding of the values dimension within the non-profit sectors can prevent inappropriate perception of branding.

People participation, a tendency towards cultural inclusiveness and mutual respect for personal and organisational values, is regarded as the foundation to develop effective branding strategies for the non-profit sectors. Chiagouris (2005) has added that brand mission, Unique Selling Proposition (USP) and reason to believe, personality, and visual identity have emerged as significant components for branding in a non-profit context. Making both staff and clients aware of and believe in what the organisation stands for, for example mission statements or core values, can eventually lead people to invest, donate, participate or become members in the non-profit sectors. This can be achieved only when the messages are delivered clearly through proper branding management and strategies. Stride and Lee (2007) argue that branding in the non-profit sector is more complex than simply satisfying donor needs, and should address a number of additional organisational objectives, including lobbying, educating and communicating, and managing image reputation.

How non-profit organisations can build a strong brand by implementing clear and consistence core values is demonstrated by probably one of the greatest brands in health care institutions – the Mayo Clinic. An independent research project in 2003 revealed that American consumers preferred the Mayo Clinic to any other health care service provider, if they or their family members had a serious medical condition and if money was not an issue (Berry & Lampo 2004). The Mayo Clinic has successfully built its strong brand by spending only a small budget for advertising, and instead concentrating on delivering exceptional service worth talking about, carefully expanding the brand, and persistently protecting the brand (Berry & Seltman 2007).

The Mayo Clinic introduced salary compensation for its staff, to remove any economic impediment to physicians’ collaboration and teamwork. To ensure that all the staff shared the same motivation, a document called ‘Mayo Clinic Model of Care’ was
introduced, explaining the Mayo Clinic's values, culture, and expectations (Berry & Seltman 2007). According to the Chair of the Clinical Practice Committee for the Mayo's Rochester campus:

We use the document as a country would use a constitution. It is the articulation of the principles that make the Mayo Clinic the Mayo Clinic. It is a rare meeting of the Executive Board or the Clinical Practice Committee [in which] the document is not specifically mentioned (Berry & Seltman 2007 p. 203).

As a result, not only have the staff embraced the core values of the institution, but the clients who are satisfied with the services also cherish them. Thus, positive attributes of the brand experience have been created amongst consumers, which has encouraged external word-of-mouth marketing. Based on the Mayo Clinic case study, Berry and Seltman (2007) have illustrated a services branding model (figure 2.6) to explain the relationships among the principal components of an organisation.

![Figure 2.6: Model for services branding](source: Berry and Seltman, 2007)

The model shows that the dotted lines represent secondary influence, while the bold lines represent primary. The organisation's presented brand has more control in terms of presenting their desired image, through advertising, logo, name, and website to influence the brand awareness and brand meaning, although it has little control of what the audience may think about the brand. The external brand involves mainly publicity and word-of-mouth communication, which has less influence on the brand. However,
these communications can be useful, especially for potential customers to form their opinion prior to their purchase.

The consumer experience is the important component for shaping positive brand meaning and ultimately adds up to positive brand equity. The perceived experience, from presented brand and external brand, and actual experience of the consumers, need to be correlated to ensure favourable experience. This model emphasises consumer experiences rather than manufactured goods, and the source of experience will determine the brand. For example, if the experience comes from using a product, then the product is branded, or if the experience comes from an organisation, then the organisation is branded (Berry & Seltman 2007).

**Branding in Higher Education**

There is a close relationship between branding and marketing, and these two areas may interchange. The literature on marketing as a general topic incorporates branding as a part of marketing activities. In fact, some studies use the two terms marketing and branding interchangeably, while other studies emphasise branding as a manner of managing reputation and strategic planning. The following discussion also includes samples of marketing in the context of branding in HE.

Other topics of discussion relate to branding in HE in both theoretical and empirical papers. Although in some cases brand is not the key topic, it can be traced from issues such as: the study of articulation and meaning (Lowrie 2007); brand harmonisation (Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana 2007); service quality perceptions and students' satisfaction (Athiyaman 1997; Ford, Joseph & Joseph 1999); marketing HE (Brookes 2003; Gibbs 2007; Nicholls et al. 1995); visual identity (Baker & Balmer 1997); the notion of significance and insignificance of brand implementation (Bunzel 2007; Chapleo 2006; Temple 2006).

According to Hamsley-Brown and Oplatka (2006), there are many issues relating to marketing and branding in HE that need to be resolved and very little evidence to show that marketing strategies have been implemented by HE institutions. Based on their study; *Universities in a Competitive Global Marketplace – a Systematic Review of the Literature on Higher Education Marketing*, their findings have shown the lack of clarity on the nature of the service and theoretical models in the context of marketing in HE. In addition, they also argue that:
...The research on HE marketing draws its conceptualisations and empirical frameworks from services marketing, despite the differences in context between HE institutions and other service organisations (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka 2006 p. 3).

A recent study conducted by Hayes (2007) used the Delphi technique, borrowed from qualitative methods, to gain an insight into the future of HE marketing. This study included a panel comprised of a significant number of individuals from the field of HE marketing, including practitioners, consultants and professors to answer three important questions in relation to marketing in HE: 1) What role do you see marketing taking in the next five years or ten years? 2) How and where do you see marketing fitting into the organisational chart? And, 3) What is the next ‘big thing’?

The last question gives a clear indication that integrating communication and branding has emerged as a ‘big thing’ that is happening in HE across the board. The notion behind this is the belief that an institution of HE should effectively communicate the same message internally and externally. It is crucial for institutions to integrate their communication and projection of a consistent and relevant brand image. The study by Hayes also indicates the possibility of merging strategic planning units and the marketing departments within HE institutions (Hayes 2007).

The question then is why does the above study show that some marketers and scholars strongly believe that HE institutions ought to co-ordinate their communication efforts and branding themselves? The plausible answer could be because the increasing demand for HE and the increasing number of HE providers has saturated the tertiary education market place. The increasing demand means that an increasing number of middle class families, especially in developing countries, can afford to send their children to further studies at tertiary levels (Margison & McBurnie 2004). At the same time, there is a massive increase in student mobility allowing students to study overseas (Atlas 2007). This applies to a range of universities, as well as to the ‘status quo’ universities that have been established by the emergence of the league tables. The total value projected for this ‘industry’ is worth trillions of dollars.

It has been estimated that the number of HE providers worldwide is about 11 thousand and in the US alone there are 3,600 universities and still growing. Within this current circumstance, there is a need for universities to distinguish themselves and create a strong brand identity. Bunzel (2007) quotes a senior VC in the US as saying:
...Even as a member of the academy, how many can you name?
How many can your prospective students name? Or prospective donors? Can they name yours? Will they? (p. 2).

Following are some examples of universities implementing their so-called branding strategies. The School of Business at the University of Texas conducted a broad survey to gather information and to better understand the perception of top universities, their characteristics and effective ways to communicate information about the university (Bunzel 2007). A focus group survey was conducted by the University of Ottawa called ‘Qualitative Imaging Research’ to examine the proposed new university logo, which resulted in a media relation guide to ensure effective external communication <www.brand.uottawa.ca/templates/media_relations.php>.

Some universities are willing to change their names in order to promote good connotations toward the institution. Trenton State College in New Jersey changed its name to College of New Jersey; Beaver College near Philadelphia had to change its name to Arcadia University in reaction to a survey that showed the prospective students did not apply to the university because of the name (Bunzel 2007); a university in London changed its name from Queen Mary & Westfield College to Queen Mary, University of London, knowing that the word ‘London’ may give a good impression of the institute.

Another visible way of rebranding that has been adopted by many universities is through the CVI. Baker and Balmer (1997) suggested that the CVI in HE, especially in the UK context, has emerged as one focus in reaction to the Jarratt Report in 1985, which called on UK universities to become more accountable for their expenditure of government subsidies. This was pushing the universities to develop their own strategic plans by adopting from the robust strategy of commercial organisations, clearly defining their vision and mission and starting to measure their performances through appropriate Performance Indicators (PIs). Another significant move from UK HE policies during that time was the upgrading of polytechnics to university status and the creation of the Higher Education Funding Councils (HEFCs) to increase competition amongst HE providers in order to get public funds. CVI has become a tool to communicate the changes within universities, especially amongst new universities upgraded from the old polytechnics (Baker & Balmer 1997).
Creating and implementing a strong CVI has offered something that universities cannot ignore in their branding exercises. The University of Manchester underwent a rebranding exercise in 2004. They described their new CVI by stating:

We had to be absolutely sure about how we want people to think and feel about the University. To accomplish this, the University undertook one of the most thorough reputation management exercises ever conducted by a British university. The process involved extensive market research among important audiences outside the University, consultation and creative sessions with university staff, the development and testing of creative ideas and the crafting of a robust platform for the University's reputation as well as the new visual identity system <www.campus.manchester.ac.uk/brandingandmarketresearch>.

There is also evidence of resistance and negative feelings within HE institutions from academics who argue that the introduction of business models, including branding, and marketing forces in education is morally contradictory to education values (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka 2006). For example, some may argue that branding in HE is merely illusion, and there has been little evidence to support branding in HE that really creates a change in perception or ranking of a university (Temple 2006; Bunzel 2007). For example, Bunzel (2007) argues that universities should rethink the financial implications of branding and whether the benefits of branding justified the cost.

Another common resistance to the acceptance of branding has come from the people who govern HE institution such as the VC, BOD, Chief Executives and internal or external stakeholders, who sometimes misunderstand the meanings and functions of the brand (Bunzel 2007; Chapleo 2006). For instance, Chapleo (2007) argues that for some Chief Executives, the language of branding is seen as incompatible with the 'culture' of their organisations, and they reject the idea of commercialisation within HE. Furthermore, universities have not historically had a commercial focus and have not been good at selling themselves, because they never had to.

Despite the resistance surrounding the notion of branding in HE, there are some positive aspects that can be put forward as academic discourse to develop a foundation for conducting more research in this subject. As Hayes (2007) argues:
Additional research and discussions may aid in the development of strategies and tactics involved in integrating marketing... exploration of organisational structures and the impediments to change may provide insights for implementing marketing to guarantee a successful future (p. 930).

In the same argument, Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2006) also indicate that more research is needed to study the notion of ethical perceptions, personal and moral philosophies, ethical values and social responsibility, in order to validate the important role of branding in the context of HE. There are a small number of scholars and researchers who are interested in developing marketing models and branding in HE and discussing other issues related to the topic. Conferences such as the International Conference of Higher Education Marketing (ICHEM) are one of the active platforms within Europe that gather marketers, scholars and researchers to promote the notion of branding in HE.

**Brand as Identity and Reputation Management for Higher Education**

Discussions in recent literature of brand identity and reputation management is evenly divided on these issues (Bosch, Jong & Elving 2006; Melewar & Jenkins 2002). Several papers have provided a good insight on the topic of brand identity in HE including, Baker and Balmer (1997); Melewar and Akel (2005); Hemsley-Brown and Goonawardana (2007); and Lowrie (2007); as well as integration of reputation management in HE including, Alessandri, Yang and Kinsey (2006); Athiyaman (1997); and Richardson, Nwankwo and Richardson (1995).

According to Baker and Balmer (1997), and Hemsley-Brown and Goonawardana (2007), HE providers have adopted or at least accepted a certain use of brand identity for universities. In most cases, there are three salient domains of brand identity in HE, which have been identified as monolithic, endorsed, and branded:

1) **Monolithic**

A single brand – the university – has become the centre of attention throughout all the communication tools to promote the programs and services offered by the university. Other operational units such as school, faculty or department may not be seen as important in terms of promoting their identity, but significantly as part of their holistic approach.
II) **Endorsed**

Each of the operational units such as school, faculty or department has developed their own unique identity as a part of their promotion, but this will be endorsed by the corporate brand – that is the university. In this case, both unit and university will help each other in their branding exercise. The ‘parent’ normally has developed a strong brand, and uses association with their good reputation, by endorsing the newer or smaller units.

III) **Branded**

Each of the operational units is individually branded for the specific target market. Each of the schools, faculties or departments has their own autonomy to brand themselves, without concerns of the ‘parent’ brand. People may or may not see the relationship between both, and in some cases the operational units may also gain better recognition in comparison to the university.

Certainly, there are no right or wrong ways in implementing these identities. Each offers a unique way of solving the communication and promotion problems for universities, which are more likely influenced by the social and economic aspects of the institution. As Lowrie (2007) argues:

> In university marketing practice, the social and economic world equates to a fearful place with the university brand as the solution to that fear and as economic and social good ...which becomes part of its identity (p. 997).

In the same note, Melewar and Akel (2005) contend that apart from the increasing global competition among universities, universities are keen to develop a strong brand to attract international students for the sake of prestige and profit. Brand along with CVI has found its purpose within HE in order to attain a positive image with public perceptions. Empirical evidence exists suggesting a close link between a university’s CVI and its reputation (Alessandri, Yang & Kinsey 2006). Alessandri, Yang and Kinsey (2006) argue that since information, which is important for reputation formation, can be retrieved through symbols such as logos, architecture, and other visual applications, CVI appears to be significant to the development of the reputation of universities.
Summary

Clearly branding in HE is still at a relatively pioneer stage. However, recent studies in branding, especially in the non-profit sector, could provide some insight for implementing the concept of a brand in HE. Branding in HE involves both tangible dimensions such as visual identity, including – but not limited to – its logo, name, and architecture, and intangible dimensions, for example values, reputation, and emotion, and both dimensions are most likely to intertwine.

Although a university's performances cannot be judged superficially through its CVI, the development of its image and reputation should not be less but should be consistent with its achievement in academic and research excellence. Ideally, a preferable reputation should start by optimising the use of CVI during the early stages of strategic planning in order to communicate a clear image of the institution and eventually to gain a positive perception of the public (Alessandri, Yang & Kinsey 2006). Thus, policies should be made to allow more involvement from the corporate communication and marketing departments within HE administration. From the Malaysian HE context, any tactical advantage that could help to promote the country as an education destination should be taken seriously, and this may involve revamping the existing government policies, repositioning the universities, or perhaps changing a university’s CVI.
Chapter 3
Design Context

This chapter synthesizes the relationship between researchers’ initiatives to set up a live research project with Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI) and the newly elected Vice Chancellor’s (VC) strategic plan to secure the university’s reputation as having international standing. To carry out this task, this research is focused not only on responding to the problems in design practice, but also on conducting research grounded in thorough academic research methods. Literatures in relation to design topics, both practice and theory, including CVI are discussed in this chapter.

This research starts by considering the standpoint of relevant practice-based research for an academic research project, particularly in the design discipline. Describing the role of the practice-based researcher, Gray and Malins (2004) state:

...Subjectivity, involvement, reflexivity is acknowledged; the interaction of the researcher with the research material is recognised. Knowledge is negotiated – inter-subjective, context bound, and is a result of personal construction. Research material may not necessarily be replicated, but can be accessible, communicated and understood. This requires the methodology to be explicit and transparent and transferable in principle (p. 21).

In practice-based research, especially in the design context, the researcher/designer has to be able to work as part of a team, or at least be able to work with other project participants throughout the duration of the project. This is one of the areas that demands significant attention in practice-based research in the design discipline and is referred to as design management (Best 2006). In this area, a dedicated non-profit organisation known as the Design Management Institute (DMI) has become a leading resource and international authority in design management. DMI has provided a useful platform for designers, researchers, educators, and leaders to discuss and amplify knowledge in this area. Moreover, there has been an increasing amount of research interest in this topic, including: design management as a vehicle to enhance organisational, business or product performances (Chiva & Alegre 2009; Løvlie, Downs & Reason 2008; Vazquez & Bruce 2002); design management as a substantial
course, subject or training module in design curricula (Bibby, Austin & Bouchlaghem 2006; Hales 2006; Little 1998); and design management as policy driven (an interesting example is provided by ‘Dori’ Tunstall in promoting design through the US National Design policy. See her personal blog site via <http://dori3.typepad.com/my_weblog/design_policy/>).

Mozota (2003) has summarised the objective of design management as primarily two-fold; first to familiarise managers with design and designers with management, and second to develop methods of integrating design into the corporate environment. In this particular design project, there were several critical stages that entailed the researcher/designer confronting design management problems, which included initiating, implementing, collaborating, organising and communicating the design project with different groups of people. These matters, along with other similar concerns, will be further discussed in later sections of this chapter. However, first the next section will discuss the evolution of designers’ roles from simply designing an artefact to managing the entire design process.

Evolution of Designers’ Roles

During the increased industrialisation of the design profession in the early 20th century, designers were regarded primarily as craftsmen or skilled workers. This traditional model has continued, and has emphasised that designers primarily work in a linear process within the operational system, which most of the time sits at the lower level of the organisational hierarchy. In the current working environment, this model is no longer relevant. Nowadays, design plays an increasingly important role in shaping new directions for the 21st century by generating new products, systems, and services in response to rapidly changing market conditions and opportunities (Best 2006). This signals that designers ought to step out from their comfort zone and play an active role, not only at the level of implementing design outcomes, but also at the level of developing strategic plans.

A new proposed operational model for designers puts more emphasis on an integrative process, rather than on the traditional linear interaction model. This involves working at different levels within the organisation and thus claiming more roles for designers on the management side or high-end side (refer to figure 3.1). This model also emphasises a holistic approach and multi-disciplinary collaboration between designers and project participants from other disciplines. In order to accomplish this model, designers need to equip themselves with design management skills (Bibby, Austin & Bouchlaghem 2006), whilst not forgetting their main aspiration as a
designer, which is to enrich human life by designing something practical and functional yet visually and emotionally pleasant.

Another challenge for the designer is to ensure that non-designers understand what designers really do and at what levels within the organisation designers can offer their contributions. In the recent corporate environment, Human Resources departments are now offering designer-related posts at the managerial level or in job descriptions, for example a brand manager, a project manager, a head of design, a design consultant, or an advertising planner (Best 2006). However, the real question is whether or not designers have taken full advantage of these available posts. It is possible that a person without any design background or qualification, but with understanding of how designers work, may be employed in the above-mentioned posts. In this case, one has to seriously consider whether this situation has a positive or negative affect on the career prospects of designers in today’s working environment, as well as on the quality of design outcome.

Li (2002) has demonstrated how designers’ roles have become more complex, evolving from the early generations to more contemporary generations, the first to the fourth generations, as these are described in an early work by Banathy (1996). Li has extended Banathy’s concept with fifth-generation designers’ roles (refer to figure 3.2). Li (2002) has also predicted that current designers’ roles will not be confined to working closely with the clients but will also include cultivating the user-designers’ design competence. This proposition sees designers engaging with
their clients and other project participants to share their critical thinking and design processes in order to foster designer-client emotional and mutual growth, referred to as the state of ‘design mind’ (Li 2002).

![Diagram of evolutionary roles of designers](image)

- Enters a system as an outside expert
  - Create an image of the future system
  - Hand in over to the clients for implementation
- Has slightly more interaction with clients.
  - Asks clients for feedback on the final draft before turning it over to them for implementation.
- Enter an organization as outside expert.
  - Draft plan for the design or redesign of a system with considerably more interaction with clients.
  - Invites input and feedback from the clients throughout the design process and possibly assists them with the implementation.
- Assumes a radically different role in the design process.
  - Functions primarily as a facilitator to help clients learn to design for themselves.
  - Shifts primary responsibility for learning and designing to the clients.
  - Shoulders responsibility for fostering participants design competence.
  - "Does with" the clients, instead of "does to" or "does for" the clients.
- Enters the design systems by treating themselves, other design participants, and the social systems as a "systemic oneness".
  - Cultivates all design participants’ inner and mutual growth.
  - Engages all design participants in reflective and critical thinking about their habitual thinking and action about design.
  - Function as learning enablers by transforming design into an inner and social learning process.
  - Shift design focus from design product to design process to “design mind”, a truly humanistic-based design.

Figure 3.2: The evolutionary roles of the designers

Source: Li, 2002. Illustration by the author

Li’s work expands the roles of the designer with words like ‘flexibility’ and ‘diversity’; however, there is a danger that these words will only be interpreted as managerialism and that designers will not understand their real impact on the design environment. The following diagram (figure 3.3) demonstrates the positive aspects of flexibility and diversity in design practice, which designers can engage with:
According to Best (2006), there are three primary levels of skills required for designers in any organisation: operation, tactics, and strategy. At the basic or the operation level, designers are operating on what most designers are trained for or required to do – to produce design outcomes – whether on papers, computer screens, or in 3D forms (Junginger 2007). At this level, designers are able to visualise and produce tangible outcomes, which could either be the main purpose of the entire task or simply solving a small problem from the whole operational processes. At the tactics level, designers could help to establish design systems that address matters of sustaining productivity, for example, time, energy, and cost efficiency. Perhaps these can be replicated or the processes adapted to suite other facets of the operational units. At the higher strategy level, where the overall policies, agendas, and missions for the organisation are defined, designers’ involvement is imperative. Therefore, it is critical that design should be a part of strategy, and embedded into every aspect of strategic planning and decision making, thus emphasising a holistic approach.

The proposed model advocates designers viewing a design task and its impact at macro and micro levels within the operational system of any organisations, just as an economist would project the macro and micro impact on the economy system of any nations. The following section will further discuss the notion of enriching designers’ professionalism through methods such as design thinking. However, as this is such a broad area of discussion, not all aspects of this topic could be included in this study, and design matters such as participatory design and user-centered design were outside the scope of this research.
Design Thinking

The term ‘design thinking’ was first articulated in a publication entitled *The Art of Innovation* by Kelly in 2001. This term was then propagated by Brown, the President and CEO of IDEO, a renowned Silicon Valley-based innovation design consultant, shared insights of the company’s unique method in solving their clients’ problems. This method was not limited to product development and marketing strategy, but encompassed a holistic approach using the method they referred to as design thinking.

The notion of design thinking as a practical approach for solving business problems has sparked interest amongst both design scholars and practitioners. The discourses of design thinking include defining the meaning of design thinking (Brown 2008; Poynor 2008; Wylant 2008); proposing models or methods that are aligned with the nature of design thinking (Junginger 2007; Lawson 2006; Li 2002); and implementing this new thinking method into the operational systems of companies and school curricula (Dunne & Martin 2006; Hempel 2007; Monson 2005). According to Brown (2008), design thinking can be described as:

A methodology that imbues the full spectrum of innovation activities with a human-centered design ethos – innovation is powered by a thorough understanding, through direct observation, of what people want and need in their lives and what they like or dislike about the way particular products are made, packaged, marketed, sold, and supported (p. 86).

Design thinking allows us to embrace a wide-range context of thinking in nurturing continuous innovation, thus influencing the way we generate new ideas (Wylant 2008). Although the concept of design thinking perhaps has a longer history than the term itself, it is only recently that the concept has emerged and been accepted as a way forwards to solve business problems (Brown 2008). Referring to the famous inventor, Thomas Edison, Brown (2008) argues that the invention of the light bulb was merely ingenious, but the real measure behind his success was the invention of a holistic system that included the electric power generation and transmission, which enabled the bulb to be commercialised. In this case, the ability to create solutions at micro (bulb) and macro (electrical system) levels was a perfect example of how design thinking operates.
A more contemporary example of how design thinking operates in modern business operational systems is the company Apple. Apple Inc. was established in 1976 and is now a multi-national company focusing on computers and consumer electronics with an annual revenue of billions of dollars. Names such as MacBook, iPhone, and iTunes, are some of Apple’s most successful products in the current market. Apple has been operating somewhat differently compared to other conventional high-tech companies, who normally focus only on one or two market sectors. Apple, on the other hand, does everything. They build their own hardware, such as the iMac, iPod, and iPhone; their own Operating System (OS) that runs in the hardware as Mac OS Snow Leopard; and even their own softwares that is compatible with the OS in iTunes, iWork, and Safari. In addition, they have managed to produce desirable products. Accordingly, Apple does not only create the micro solution to its product development by producing the hardware or the OS, but also crafts the macro solution by integrating the hardware, the OS and the software all at once to make it successful.

Furthermore, according to CEO and Apple co-founder Steve Jobs, the secret behind Apple’s success is collaboration and control in their operational system (Grossman & Cupertino 2005). It means the system in product development is not discrete but is running concurrently within all operational units, which are consistently being monitored by personnel who understand the company vision, and often operate in multi-disciplinary conditions such as product designer, product engineering, consumer psychology, and anthropology. Hence, Jobs believes that in order to produce a better product, the system should allow product development to operate simultaneously within all operational units in flexible conditions (Grossman & Cupertino 2005).

Neither Thomas Edison nor Steve Jobs was a designer, yet they demonstrated how anyone can think like a designer. Brown (2008) argues that anyone could unlock the personality of design thinking, even those who are from outside the design professions but who possess a positive attitude coupled with the right development and experiences. Characteristics of such people include empathy, integrative thinking, optimism, experimentalism, and collaboration.

On the other hand, despite arguments about what design thinking could offers for designers and businesses, Poynor (2008), argues that designers and non-designers should not be confused by simply believing that good strategy can substitute for good design. He argues that the discourse of managerialism trivialises design practice:
Belittling language of this kind suggests that the visual is inherently trivial, easy to do, and beneath consideration, that form is not a powerful medium of expression and carries no meaning for the viewer (Poynor 2008 p. 44).

Poynor (2008) also argues “there is bound to be a relationship between impoverished ways of (design) thinking and impoverished visual form” (p. 44). This proposition explains the obvious distinction between what is called design process and design outcome. In other words, design thinking seems likely to improve the way designers operate but does not necessarily help designers to produce better design. Hence, Poynor rejects the notion that anyone can become a designer and that intangible strategic planning could suppress the power of expressive form-making.

Although some of the principles of design thinking appear to contradict with what designers should do, considering the ways new markets and businesses are operating nowadays, design thinking clearly has a major influence on the way designers are operating (Fraser 2007). Consequently, this way of operating demands more active participation from the designers than they normally offered in the past. This may seem to be a hard task to ask from designers in their pursuit of professionalism, but it is achievable and worth aiming for as it is a great advantage for designers to be able to evolve and assimilate with every new work environment.

The above arguments indicate that these intentions provide positive prospects for design to be accepted as a valuable component in business operational system. However, despite designers seeing themselves as having active roles at the managerial level, they should also focus on their existing strengths, such having the ability to create a powerful visual form that can move beyond consumers’ basic needs. This task seems to be an admirable goal for designers to accomplish and one that no other groups or individuals can take responsibility for besides the designers themselves.
Initiating a Live Design Project with UPSI

In late 2007, the newly appointed VC of Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI), Professor Aminah Ayob, presented a vision, which consisted of short (2007 - 2010), medium (2011 - 2015) and long-term (2016 - 2020 and onwards) strategic planning, as a blueprint to secure and uphold the university's reputation (Ayob 2007). The plan was presented to the stakeholders of UPSI and was forwarded to the MoHE, before it was submitted to Parliament.

The VC then published a document entitled: *Reengineering an Esteemed University of Education*, outlining the new vision and future directions for UPSI, in order to share her vision with the staff of the university. This document has become an important source of reference for this research along with other publications by the MoHE. The following are some of the key discussions extracted from the strategic plan document.

**UPSI Strategic Plan**

(Excerpt from an official document titled; *Reengineering an Esteemed University of Education*, in January 2008, published by UPSI)

This document was aligned with the future development and direction of HE in Malaysia, and supported the national aspiration to become a regional education hub for Asian. Similarly, there were two significant documents put forward by the MoHE, few months before the publication of this document, which provide the basis for the content. These two documents were; 1) the National Higher Education Strategic Plan outlining the long-term plan, and 2) the National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010 for the short-term plan (Ministry of Higher Education 2007a).

There were three major discussions in this document, which included the discussion on the current position of the university in both local and international standing (by reflecting the strengths and weaknesses), preparing for further improvement (reversing the threats and capitalising the opportunities), and planning for future development (proposing new directions and the timeframe). The essence of these discussions was important for all (the government, HE governances, staff, students) to accept the challenges in the new HE market and for HE providers including UPSI to be able to adapt and respond to the new demands in order to survive. The VC stipulated on changing the way the university should operates, by stating:
In order to improve, we have to undergo restructuring, changing our mind set and attitude. We need to re-engineer and transform UPSI becoming an institution that is more efficient and effective, producing new ‘product’ along with a new brand, operates like a business company – in order to survive – they have to be responsive (p. 30).

Acknowledging how important it was for the university to be responsive to the presence of the new demands and challenges in HE, a new vision for UPSI has been put forward: **To become a comprehensive education university that has international reputation in providing human capital for the country and global market.** A comprehensive education university in this sense refers to the ability that UPSI has for offering new programs in multi-disciplinary or double-degrees, with education as a core. This will give a value added to UPSI graduates; therefore they will become more competitive. The following table (3.1) is the list of current and future programs that UPSI has and intends to offers:

**Table 3.1: UPSI current and future main niche**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UPSI main niche (current)</th>
<th>UPSI main niche (future)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher education</td>
<td>• HE &amp; colleges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pedagogy (curriculum &amp; instruction)</td>
<td>• Curriculum development/ comparative study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Counselling</td>
<td>• Psychology of human behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Education management</td>
<td>• Sociology of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Malay language and TESL</td>
<td>• Philosophy and education policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Early child education</td>
<td>• Education leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Special need education</td>
<td>• Psychometric &amp; evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sports science education</td>
<td>• Language development and communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Arts education</td>
<td>• Cognitive science and ‘brain science’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Science and tech. education</td>
<td>• Smart learning education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Math education</td>
<td>• Economics of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Business &amp; economic</td>
<td>• Technical &amp; vocational education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• IT education</td>
<td>• Health education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Islam &amp; moral education</td>
<td>• Life-long learning education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Malay civilization studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59
Beside the suggestion for UPSI to revamp its niche programs to be offered in the future, there were ten key areas proposed by the VC to secure the university reputation. These ten key areas were:

1. To be an innovative leader in teaching and learning process for future quality teacher.

2. To offer double-degree programs (e.g. BSc (physics) with education).

3. To establish new and competitive faculties (e.g. Faculty of Technology & Vocational and Faculty of Global Education & Peace Study).

4. To strengthen the post-graduate study department (increase number of intake to 20 per cent by 2010, or more than 2600 students).

5. To reach the new frontier in educational studies (e.g. applying for more research grant and collaboration with both international and local university).

6. To build up the new niche for UPSI by establishing new research centre or ‘centre of excellent’ (e.g. Neuro-science, and Socio-emotional development), and two more scholar posts (Aminuddin Baki – Basic education & literacy, and Tun Ghaffar Baba – Multicultural education).

7. To focus on Internationalisation.

8. To generate income for the university by introducing professional development programs for lecturers, private collages, and community collages (e.g. collaboration with Roehampton University to develop these programs).

9. To upgrade community education (e.g. out-reach programs and society education programs).

10. To establish a lab school for training and research development.
In order to attain these key objectives, there were three different stages of development: a short-term plan (Phase 1: three years), an intermediate plan (Phase 2: five years), and a long-term plan (Phase 3: ten years and more). These plans were:

**Phase 1: 2008 – 2010**

- Built a new campus.
- Set up a new faculty (technical and vocational).
- Structure new programs – ‘with education’.
- Built up academic excellence amongst lecturers and students.
- Enhance research culture.
- Enhance lecturers’ performances.
- Built programs and courses for the society.
- Establish international networking.
- Set a standard for teachers’ education.

**Phase 2: 2011 – 2015**

- Establish new faculty and centre of excellent for research.
- Strengthen university’s publication.
- Accreditation from MQA and other world professional accreditations bodies/organisations.
- Establish a professional body for teachers’ education.
- Built research labs for new programs.
- Focus on post-graduates studies.
- Built education repository centre.
- Establish a hub for education to exchange ideas and publications.

**Phase 3: 2016-2020 and onwards**

- Phase two for new campus.
- Attain 20 per cent international students and 10 per cent international expertise.
- UPSI as world-class education repository centre (education museum and international networking).
- Established few well known research centres and centre of excellent.
- Established as a leading ‘Graduate Education Hub’ in Asia.
• Established as a national referred centre for education, and managing programs for teachers’ professional development.
• Established offshore affiliates.

The strategic planning document has clearly captured the essence of what UPSI is and what UPSI should be in the future. The main challenge then for the VC was how to implement and communicate this new vision within the complex world of academia. She could have exercised her authority to implement the plan but this would not have guaranteed that the vision was clearly communicated and understood by multiple layers of people, both internally and externally. Also, limited resources meant it was difficult to optimise the effect on the marketing and promotion of the university. This research project was not intended to provide an absolute answer to these issues. Nevertheless, if this research could respond to them in the existing plan, it could provide the VC with knowledge to make better decisions. The following section will discuss on the responses that the researcher/designer has made to the strategic plan.

Signalling the Designer as a Facilitator

As a live research project in response to the new strategic plan, the challenge of this project created an opportunity for the designer, in this case a graphic designer, to actively participate in terms of both strategy and design. Although the strategic plan was put forwarded by the VC to set a clear direction for UPSI, its implementation was still quite broad and ambiguous. There are many ways of achieving the goals, mostly depending on what area of interest and expertise individuals can offer (Adler & Hayes 2008), which also involves interdisciplinary collaboration between the staff and other project participants (Best 2006). The scope that was of most interest to the researcher/designer came from areas of design and branding. This research project first studied the content of the strategic plan, and then extended it by making suggestions in terms of repositioning and branding to the VC and BOD. As the research project progressed, a new CVI was designed to symbolise the new changes.

Eventually, this research project evolved into three different levels of engagement. Based on strategy proposed by Best (2006), these engagements can be defined into three levels: strategy, tactics, and operation. The following section describes the responses of the researcher/designer at these three levels:
1) Strategic level – Rebranding and repositioning UPSI

At this stage, the researcher/designer was involved in the strategic planning by first examining the official documents from both the VC and the MoHE, and later through an in-depth observation of the current global trends and best practices for marketing and branding in HE. Discussions at this stage involved the VC, BOD, and several influential figures from the university to initiate the research project and set up a committee. Based on the preliminary research that followed, a number of matters were identified and suggestions were put forward to communicate the changes, which would be necessary in order to reposition the university. In this case, both internal and external communication was crucial. However, there was already an internal programme for staff being conducted by the Human Resources department called BITARA to inform staff and impose the new plan. The assumption was that BITARA would function as was expected for internal communication, and therefore this research project would only cover the external matters. Three key areas were put forward to UPSI for effective external communication: management, technology, and promotion. The following diagram (figure 3.4) illustrates these:

![Diagram of UPSI strategic plan for effective external communication]

Figure 3.4: UPSI strategic planning proposal for effective external communication
Source: Author’s own illustration, which was apart of a presentation material presented to the VC and BOD of UPSI, August 2008

I) Reposition

To understand where UPSI wanted to position itself was important to help establish the core value (or values) for the university, or vice-versa. This in turn determined how UPSI should brand itself or what kind of unique image the university wanted to convey and to whom (Adler & Hayes 2008). The intention also included the process of developing a new CVI, as well as renaming for the
The basis of the change of name came from a long discussion between the researcher/designer and other project participants including the VC. Some of the highlights in the discussion were: the name ‘Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris’ was too long and difficult to pronounce (especially the word ‘pendidikan’) or to be remembered by the Westerners, hence the importance of having the name in English as well as the Malay version in promoting the university internationally. There was also a suggestion to drop the word ‘pendidikan’ or education from the name because of this difficulty. However, constraining factors of bureaucracy and resistance from the university’s alumni meant the committee could not adopt this measure.

As for the proposition for the English version, the committee was to choose between Sultan Idris University of Education (SIUE), and Sultan Idris Education University (SIEU). Interestingly, the first option has an acronym of SIUE, which sounds like ‘suwey’, in Chinese a word that refers to a manner of cursing. Given that Chinese is the second largest ethnic group in Malaysia, the committee decide to take the second option.

II) Restructure

To create a new unit along with a new position in the organisational structure, which included the external communication and marketing department, and a Brand Manager. It was important for UPSI to have a dedicated unit in producing and monitoring the external communication materials. Failure to initiate this would almost certainly have cost the university in terms of budget, time, energy, and even its good reputation. By the time this thesis was completed, UPSI had already taken a positive step by establishing a new unit and appointing a new head for marketing and external communication.

III) Web site

To redesign the official website in order to utilise web 2.0 technology and thus enhance creativity, information sharing, and collaboration between the lecturers, students, and researchers as users. As the Internet is becoming more significant in daily life, the university’s websites have played an important role not just as a formal communication tool but also as a valuable vehicle for marketing (Adler & Hayes 2008). It was important for the website to improve in terms of the navigation and design, as well as standardising the look and feel.
between the main page and individual faculties’ web pages such as colour, font type, image, and layout. Below (figure 3.5), are some of the examples from websites of other universities (Harvard, Pittsburgh, and Swinburne) as a comparison to UPSI, the last image. It was clear from the websites from UPSI that there was no similarity whatsoever between the main UPSI web page and its faculty web pages.

One study has shown that Internet users can determine their first impression of a website within only 50 milliseconds (Lindgaard et al. 2006). Therefore, it is crucial for UPSI to keep information brief and standardise the ‘look and feel’ to attract users, as well as maximise the functions of the website. A new website for UPSI was launched in 2009, replacing the old website. Although there were many improvements needed before the new website could fully optimise its usage, most of the design and technical problems from the previous website were solved.
IV) Second Life (virtual campus)

To build a virtual campus in Second Life, encouraging UPSI to invest in the new 3D web technology by exploring its potential, and engaging with students, staff, and the rest of the world virtually, without boundaries. Second Life has become one of the successful virtual reality tools since its establishment in 2003, and has attracted educators all over the world to use it for interaction, to establish a sense of community, and for users’ self-building capabilities (Zhang 2007). More than 700 educators from around the world currently use Second Life for education (Antonacci & Modaress 2008), and no less than 300 universities around the world teach courses or conduct research in Second Life (Michels 2008). Some of the universities in the US, UK, and Australia including Harvard, Stanford, Griffith, Bradley, and RMIT have already conducted classes and even bought ‘islands’ in Second Life, offering new experiences of their virtual universities to their users. The following (figure 3.6) are some of the examples taken from the existing virtual campuses in Second Life.

Figure 3.6: User exploring universities' virtual environment
Source: Multiple screen shots from user's experiences using Second Life
V) **Print advertisement in Times Higher Education**

To expose the university to the rest of the world by having a presence in one of the most respected HE international magazine. Aligned with the new plan to increase the number of international students and scholars, having advertisements in this magazine would not only help UPSI reach the right target audiences, but would also act as a self-promotion material for the university. It would be a good opportunity for UPSI to be seen ‘side-by-side’ with other established universities who also advertised in the magazine.

![Figure 3.7: An example of THE magazine cover and insert](image)

**Source:** Photographed by the author

VI) **City Campus**

Finding an alternative location for UPSI to operate was the major consideration in this proposal. The main campus is located at Tanjong Malim, about 60 kilometres North from Kuala Lumpur, where is a lack of good public transport and hotels, which means there were not enough amenities being provided in that area to support the new vision. Organising international conferences, seminars and other academic related events, as well as getting expatriates to come to the university, was becoming more difficult. Therefore, having UPSI situated in a fully-developed location like Kuala Lumpur or the nearest town next to the city would not only provide a strategic location for academic and business meeting points, but would also be a potential venue for the marketing office in promoting postgraduate courses. Further, it could include exhibition and café areas to attract not only students, but also the public as patrons and eventually familiarise them with UPSI and its brand.
The responds to these proposals received from the VC were very promising, and some of the suggestions were implemented and began to show some good results. Streamlining with the way UPSI presented itself through the proper channels of external communication influenced a positive attitude on how stakeholders, government, alumni, prospective benefactors, staff, and students judged and perceived the university’s performances. Thus, it helped the VC gain more support to continue implementing the new vision.

2) Tactics level – Modelling and testing the new CVI

At this stage, the researcher/designer’s duty was to find the means to implement the new CVI for the university. This meant integrating the corporate identity management into the university’s operational system. The objective was to acquire a favourable corporate image from the client, in this case, the VC and the BOD. Eventually, this would lead to the acquisition of a favourable corporate reputation and a propensity to use the services, or to work, or invest in the organisation (Baker & Balmer 1997). To demonstrate the proposition, the researcher/designer adapted a model called the corporate identity formation developed by Balmer (1995). This model (refer to figure 3.8) could be used as a general guideline to implement the new CVI, and at the same time it provided opportunities to introduce both qualitative and quantitative methods into this project. Further improvement and changes are expected in the future, since this project is still at the pioneering stage.

Figure 3.8: Model for university corporate identity formation
Source: Adapted from Balmer (1995), corporate identity formation
Managing the CVI also lead the researcher/designer to work in collaboration with project participants, including the head of external communication, and other designers, including graphic and web designers. This section below reflects on some of the collaborative works done during the period of this research project:

I) **A new head of marketing and external communication**

Having a new person in charge during an ongoing project could either make the job easier or jeopardise the whole initial strategic plan. Therefore, it was crucial to understand who the person in charge was, and whether he or she would translate the vision into practice and carry out the existing plan. At the same time, the researcher/designer could share the information about the proposal whilst building a good long-term relationship with the new personnel. Delivering a brand guidelines document would be the next stage of this affiliation.

II) **The web designer – UPSI website**

In this collaboration, the researcher/designer and the web designer discussed some thought on what the university's website should look like, in term of the 'look and feel' and layout, and also shared some examples of design process from other established design consultants that could be a useful source of reference. Meetings and discussions were held with the web designers on making the website easier to access in usability and navigation, as well as to integrate with the applications of web 2.0 in sharing information and collaboration between users. It was essential to make sure the new CVI would be incorporated into the new website.

III) **The web designer – Online survey**

A part of this research project was to put forward a method for evaluating the new CVI and logo. Eventually, this research employed a quantitative method by conducting an online survey for data collection. Collaborating with the web designer to develop a web link from the existing free design tutorial via Swinburne University of Technology's website was a part of the process. A central element of this collaboration was to ensure the website was working properly and attracting the users to participate in the survey without compromising the research's ethics protocols.
Other tasks undertaken by the researcher/designer during this stage were: preparing and negotiating a budget proposal for the whole project to the VC; dealing with the advisory committee; and scouting of potential consultants and developers on some of the proposed projects. In most of these situations, the researcher/designer had to facilitate the projects to ensure they run effectively and efficiently.

3) Operation level – Exploring and designing the new CVI

At this level, the designer’s duty was to design a new CVI. The logo design started with a manual process of sketches using pen and paper, which were later was converted into digital format using design software such as Adobe Illustrator. The researcher/designer has produced 50 initial logos, before reducing these into five comprehensive logos for presentation to the VC and the BOD. Details of the logo design process can be found in the next chapter – Design Process and Outcomes.

Design Guidelines and Evaluation for Corporate Visual Identity

This section explores the literature pertaining to Corporate Visual Identity (CVI), particularly in relation to logo design guidelines and evaluations. Most of the relevant scholarly literature is found in design and marketing publications, however other ‘soft’ sources such as design magazines, business periodicals and related organisational websites were also consulted for this project. Discussions in the literature, both scholarly and otherwise, cover a range of topics including: function, value, and meaning (Balmer 2008; Bosch, Elving & Jong 2006; Hynes 2009; Melewar & Akel 2005; Orend & Gagné 2009; van Riel, Ban & Heijmans 2001); design guidelines (Henderson & Cote 1998; Henderson et al. 2003; Jun & Lee 2007; Kohli, Suri & Thakor 2002; Melewar, Bassett & Simões 2006); and evaluations (Baratis, Petrakis & Milios 2008; Hall et al. 2004; Hummer & Maripalli 2008; Olson 2003; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons 2007).

According to Balmer (1995), CVI has been defined as the “way in which an organisation uses logos, type styles, nomenclature and architecture and interior design in order to communicate its corporate philosophy and personality” (p.26). Elements of CVI include name, tag line, and graphics, incorporating logo and/or logotype, typeface, colour, image both static and non-static, and to some extent, aspects beyond the visual such as ambience. These are applied to corporate facilities, media advertising, and various operational areas and devices. In the context of HE, CVI is an important aspect of Corporate Identity (refer to figure 3.9), acting as an effective and
consistent communication tool for conveying the unique characteristics of a university to improve competitiveness (Melewar & Akel 2005).

![Diagram of corporate identity model](image)

*Figure 3.9: The corporate identity model*

*Source: Melewar and Akel (2005)*

Logos are often regarded as the single most important element in CVI because they are able to transcend international boundaries and language barriers (Henderson et al. 2003; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons 2007). According to van Riel, Ban and Heijmans (2001):

> Symbols, more specifically logos, are a more efficient management tool to orchestrate the desired features that the organisation wants to express towards its stakeholders (p. 428).

Organisational symbols or logos may take distinctive forms, such as figurative, typographic and abstract, or contain a combination of these elements. For instance, Shell’s logo, a stylisation of a seashell, may be classed as figurative; Yahoo! exemplifies the typographic; Nike employs a highly abstract symbol that refers to the wings of the Greek goddess of victory; and the UPS logo combines both figurative (a shield) and typographic elements.
**CVI – Function, Value, and Meaning**

The logo finds its origin in marks historically used to signify personal characteristics and identification, such as trademarks, heraldry, coats of arms, monograms, brandmarks, and hallmarks (Mollerup 1997). Marks of identification extend even more broadly, to the cuts to parts of the ears or branding on the flanks of cattle made by farmers, the signatures or initials on the works of painters and potters, and the unique tattoos of North American or African tribes. Even the common act of providing a signature on an official document carries a similar function. The modern logo belongs within this broad tradition of identification.

According to Mollerup (1997), three distinctive statements underlie the act of identification: 1) social identity: who is this or who says that, 2) ownership: who owns this, and 3) origin: who made this. These statements, coupled with two types of motivation: need and desire, give six possible combinations of motive and statement (refer to figure 3.10). In the current business-driven environment, a single logo cannot adequately convey the complexities of corporate identity. The decisions made by many corporations and organisations to spend thousands or even millions of dollars on brand development through CVI and logo must be well informed and strongly motivated. For instance, in their ‘beyond petroleum’ rebranding campaign in 2000, the multi-billion dollar oil-based company BP (formerly known as BP Amoco), reportedly spent around $7 million developing a new brand, and a further $100 million a year on signs, advertising and the introduction of a new logo (Maclean 2000).

![Figure 3.10: Six possible combination of motive/statement for identification](image)

*Source: Mollerup, 1997*
BPs new vibrant green and yellow sunburst logo *Helios*, which named after the ancient Greek sun god, replaced the classic ‘green shield’ logo designed by Raymond Loewy in 1979 (figure 3.11). As a company that has repeatedly changed logos, BP is not alone; major brands such as Apple (computers), Coca-cola (soft drinks), Ford (cars), Nike (sports apparel), UPS (parcels), and Unilever (household products) have done the same. The giant oil-based company Shell, established in 1891, has released around 10 iterations of its original logo design.

According to Wheeler (2003), at least five situations can require a change in CVI and logo: re-positioning, starting over, modernising, promoting growth, and managing change. The degree of change to a CVI or logo depends on how spectacularly the company intends to rebrand and re-position itself (Davis 2005), although rebranding commonly involves just a slight alteration to the original logo. CVIs and logos can support, express, communicate, synthesize, and visualize brands. Hence, they are the most rapid and ubiquitous form of communication available (Wheeler 2003).

In recent years, the value of a corporation or organisation no longer depends entirely on tangible quantities such as sales revenue and physical assets, such as buildings and machineries, but also intangible values or brand value, such as patterns and management strengths. For instance, in the food and beverage industry, McDonalds has become one of the world’s leading brands in fast food and franchising, boosting the value of its almost universally recognisable name and ‘golden arches’ logo to $27.9 billion (Kohli, Suri & Thakor 2002). Similarly, Starbucks coffee (refer to figure 3.12)
has successfully promoted their coffee shops as a ‘third place’, between home and the workplace, opening more than 15 thousand stores in 50 countries and creating a brand worth $3.63 billion (BusinessWeek 2010).

Figure 3.12: Left – one of the many Starbucks franchise stores. Right – imitation of the Starbucks brand, ‘Setarbak’ found in a rural area called Alor Setar, Malaysia
Source: Multiple web sources via Google image

Managing a company’s intangible assets, including its image and reputation, is increasingly important. The larger the scale of operations and number of stakeholders in a company, the greater the responsibility for management to maintain the company’s reputation. The success of a company over time depends not only upon the efficiency of its operations but also upon the general opinions of stakeholders and the public. Reputation requires serious attention for its ability to influence attitudes of stakeholders, including investors, employees and potential employees, customers, and the media (Bosch, Jong & Elving 2005).

The role of the image and identity of organisations would benefit from greater interest from researchers and scholars, particularly in understanding the relationships between individuals, their organisations and the broader society (Ravasi & Rekom 2003). In the context of non-profit organisations, and more specifically HE, universities do not have a full understanding of the value of intangible in brand value. Institutions such as Harvard, Cambridge, Oxford, MIT or UCL undoubtedly have a greater impact in terms of market leadership, stability, and global reach compared to some other universities. Current university ranking systems, such as the THE, SHJT indexes, and other publications including U.S News & World Report and Guardian could conceivably be extended and refined. Along with merely evaluating academic and research performances, intangible assets such as intellectual patterns, marketability, and
trustworthiness of universities could be included as relevant to judgments and projections of the success and reputation of universities.

Alessandri, Yang and Kinsey (2006) describe reputation in relation to HE as “collective representations that the university's multiple constituents, ...hold of the university over time”, which “can be significantly related to visual identity of the university” (p. 261). Empirical data have established links between university CVI and reputation (Alessandri, Yang & Kinsey 2006). Studies have also demonstrated interactions between the added value of corporate logos and reputation (van Riel, Ban & Heijmans 2001), as well as correlations between CVI and management characteristics (Bosch, Elving & Jong 2006).

From the other side of the story, as explained in a classic work entitled The Theory of the Leisure Class written by Veblen over a century ago in 1899, the objects that we possess communicate aspects of personality, class of society, and aspiration. Veblen who also invented the term 'conspicuous consumption' referring to the lucrative cultural unproductive consumption of goods, which is regarded as honorable, especially in order to establish a sense of self-confidence and self-respect. In short, the ability to indulge in luxury products, brands or services is highly regarded.

A later advocate of this theory was Goffman (1959) in his book; The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life, where he identified the role of objects in socially positioning people, in his case, in a living room setting. Goffman (1959) employed the term ‘performer’ to portray the person in the situation, and ‘setting’ to describe the scenery or stage props of furniture, décor, and object arrangement. Such coherence between setting, appearance, and manner represents an ideal condition that provides the audience with a means of stimulating their attention and interest (Goffman 1959). Empirical evidence exists for this (Canter, West & Wools 1974; Laumann & House 1970), and theorists of the materials culture fraternity have since extended the proposition.

This theory could simply explain why consumers are willingly to spend such a great amount of money for mundane products like t-shirts, handbags or sun glasses, in order to have them printed with brand logos like Ralph Polo, Louis Vuitton (figure 3.13), or Ray Ban. These brands are among many others that have successfully positioned themselves as top-of-the-range products, thus justifying their hefty price tags. Their brand names and logos have distinctly turned into a statement of socially high class and affluence.
Similarly, some universities charge more than others for tuition. Harvard Medical School, for instance, charges around $45 thousand per-annum for a Medical Degree course, while the same course at Monash University in Australia costs under $30 thousand per-annum, and just $2,500 per-annum at USM (University of Science Malaysia). Although it could be argued that a degree is a degree irrespective of university, outcomes for graduates from top universities suggest otherwise. Paton (2008) reported that students from a top university can earn at least six per cent more than other graduates, and from ten to sixteen per cent more if they graduate from Oxford, Cambridge or LSE. Top universities are in high demand not only because they are able to provide tuition for the brightest and most talented people, but also because they guarantee future advantages for their graduates. This indicates that university degrees are rapidly becoming a commodity, and universities a place of intellectual consumption (Shapiro 2009; Usher 2008).

It is reasonable to say that both students and scholars can heighten their financial and social status according to the institution to which they belong. Wearing university t-shirts (see figure 3.14) or uniforms, giving out personal name cards printed with a glossy university logo, hanging a graduate certificate on an office wall, or having photographs of oneself taken in front of university landmarks or buildings, are commonly performed acts of social identification and can garner prestige. As explained by Orend & Gagné (2009):

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Figure 3.13: A Louis Vuitton handbag and one of the many Louis Vuitton franchise fashion boutiques

Source: Multiple web sources via Google image
...As individual identities develop and people are influenced by the commodification of everyday life, they learn that they can purchase cultural products that will give them a certain appearance, lifestyle, and identity and provide them entrée into certain consumer tribes (p. 512).

Figure 3.14: University logos on t-shirts as an act of social identification and prestige
Source: Multiple web sources via Google image

CVI – Design Guidelines and Evaluation

There is not a single, specific rule for developing CVI or designing a logo, however some simple guidelines can be followed to fully utilise their potential and avoid pitfalls. Generally, CVI should be able to portray a distinctive, positive image of an organisation. Wheeler (2003) outlines three separate steps involved in the recognition of a CVI, which include recognition of the shape or logo, colour, and content or name, respectively. This is because shape is easily detected and remembered by the brain, while words must be decoded to reveal their meaning. Shape also bypasses language barriers. The second sequence – colour – can trigger emotions and brand associations, as well as differentiation from similar competitors. The importance of colour is exemplified by the fact that brands and products such as Kodak (yellow), Tiffany (blue), and Cadbury chocolate (purple) have trademarked their core brand colours, thereby preventing their competitors from using them. Content constitutes the third step because the brain simply takes more time to process language. For instance, in some of their international markets, Coca-Cola must rely on the consistency of logo shape (ribbon) and colour (red), along with other distinctive elements such as bottle shape and tagline, rather than language (see figure 3.15).
Henderson and Cote (1998) maintain that a good logo should be recognisable so that there is correct identification of the company, with a meaningful image that generates positive affect. Additionally, one of three strategic methods of implementation can be selected depending on a company's budget and direction, namely:

I. High-recognition logos: generate high levels of correct identification, lower levels of false identification, and high positive affect.

II. Low-investment logos: generate positive affect, but tend to create false recognition.

III. High-image logos: generate the strongest positive affect but with less reliable recognition (p. 24).

Standardisation of CVI is a common strategy adopted by transnational companies (Melewar & Saunders 1999) in the global market. Consistency between logo and name is imperative for precise communication of the intended brand image (Klink 2003). Studies also confirm that colour can encourages differentiation, thus increasing brand memory (Hynes 2009; Tavassoli 2001).

In the context of logo design, the divine proportion of 1:1.618, inspired from natural forms, has universal appeal and positive affect across cultures (Pittard, Ewing & Jevons 2007). This is particularly true for Asian cultures with their focus on elements of nature or feng shui (Henderson et al. 2003). Apart from shape, colour, and name,
Adam and Morioka (2006) also include historical continuity, emotional resonance, and learned response as additional elements for consideration in logo design.

Olson (2003) suggests a number of points to take into account when evaluating CVI. These include: personal preferences should not suppress design objectivity; a design should be able to attract positive attention, convey desirable perceptions and be easily remembered; logotype should be easy to read and complement the logo; and a design should avoid triggering negative memories.

A small number of studies offer insight into some of the practical as well as technical aspects of logo recognition. For example with regards to road safety, Hummer and Maripalli (2008) argue that due to small differences in correct response rate for logo recognition, the number of logos on each road signs at highway interchanges can be increased from six to nine per panel, thus helping to reduce the number of road signs and increase the safety of the drivers. Another example for optimising media coverage from Hall et al. (2004) indicate that the current generation of microprocessors for full PAL video format can only effectively capture two logos per second. Thus, quickly and reliably capturing sponsorship logos during Formula One races or football matches may require more advanced video systems.

Summary

This chapter has articulated the need for extensive engagement between a university administration and designers when developing a live design project. Furthermore, design should be seen to offer effective methods for managing the reputations of universities, without neglecting the substance of academic and research contributions. Simply producing ‘glossy’ promotional materials does not address broader problems of marketing and branding. Rather, a thorough understanding of what to communicate, to whom, and by which means (medium and media) is crucial, as is standardising internal and external communications in line with an intended image in order to optimise resources.

Designers are trained to solve problems by observing them from different perspectives, and using imagination and visualisation to create ideal solutions. Rigorous research should be part of this process of fostering innovative work. Most importantly, designers should build bridges between designers and non-designers, particularly with the leaders of organisations, for example the VC in the context of HE, to collaboratively solve managerial, tactical, and operational problems.
Design needs to be accepted as integral to an organisation, and central to the development of an intended image and maintenance of a positive reputation. Similar to many other organisations, universities can only benefit from a CVI if its potential is fully understood, and if they are willing to invest in and sustain the long period of its development. Over time universities would certainly benefit from this investment. Given that a substantial amount of money is invested in this area, design must no longer rely purely on creative intuition but also on scientific explanations and rigorous evaluations.
Chapter 4
Method and Qualitative Enquiry

This section will discuss the research framework, including the employment of research methods used to explore the research question, which later lead to the formation of the additional research questions. This study is conducted under a social science research model to explore social phenomena within the field of HE in relation to design. Several questions regarding research methodology in the design context have been discussed, which were inspired by earlier texts including Cross (2001); Hanington (2003); Gray and Malins (2004); and Haylighen, Cavallin, and Bianchin (2009).

Research Methodology

The research methodology involved two research strategies in two different stages. These are presented in two separate chapters. This chapter presents the qualitative enquiry methods used to gain deeper understanding of the organisation visual identity as well as to inform design processes. The next chapter presents a quantitative approach used to validate the research question. This chapter commences by discussion of the adaptation of research methods and techniques to suit the nature of a live design project.

Research-led-design and Research-in-design

To begin with, it is important to distinguish between the concepts of ‘research-led-design’ and ‘research-in-design’. The former refers to design projects by practitioners or design students, which utilise research methods and findings at certain stages of their design processes to support design outcomes. The latter refers to purely research projects conducted in relation to the design discipline. Both areas of research-led-design and research-in-design are currently attracting more and more attention from researchers and designers (Cross 2001). This can be traced from the emergence of design journals such as Design Issues and Design Studies, design magazines such as Eye, Creative Review, and Design Week, and also formal design organisations, for example Design Council – British, Design Research Society, and the American Institute of Graphic Arts (AIGA).
Arguably, research-led-design is replacing the traditional approach to the design process, which is primarily based on the designers’ intuition (Heylighen, Cavallin & Bianchin 2009). Moreover, research-led-design in general is more ‘friendly’ to design practice and for solving clients’ problems – the classic task for the designer, in terms of delivering both convenient and reliable ‘fast’ results. These attributes are crucial for designers in order to meet the needs of clients. In design practice, time efficiency is everything. Designers can produce award-winning design outcomes, but if they cannot deliver these on time, there is no merit to the project. According to Cross (2001), in design practice designers have to face and deal with ‘messy’ and problematic situations, and often confront situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value conflict.

Despite the range of complex demands created by design projects, Heylighen, Cavallin, and Bianchin (2009) consider that designers should utilise research methods in order to find new or better solutions in their everyday design problems, and acknowledge change as an essential part of the design process, thus, dismissing the notion of single or rigid solutions. Furthermore, there are no true or false answers in relation to proposing design solutions, as such intentions will likely be influenced according to group or personal interest, special values, and ideological preferences (Heylighen, Cavallin & Bianchin 2009). Research-led-design permits designers to make informed communication choices, rather than rely solely on intuitive decisions (Grady & Grady 2006).

Both research-led-design and research-in-design involve complex activities, yet are vital for the creation of new knowledge in the design discipline. As mentioned above, in this particular research study, such considerations were taken into account in order to develop a balance between client expectation and academic contribution. The research-led-design approach was used in the first stage of this study in order to deliver a convenient and reliable ‘fast’ result to the client, which in the case of this research was the governance of the university. This stage was crucial for the researcher/designer to gain the client’s trust and support.

The second stage involved research-in-design by adapting methods from other well-established disciplines. In the second stage, time constraints were not a major concern because the client, in this case UPSI, was not involved in the research process, thus enabling the researcher to conduct a more rigorous and time-consuming study. In the research-in-design stage, the research was conducted in a more structured manner to obtain ‘hard’ numerical data, while the former stage can be considered as ‘soft’ and
more flexible. The latter stage involved an on-line quantitative survey as a tool for validation. Overall, understanding the nature of research-led-design and research-in-design helped the designer/researcher to develop a suitable research strategy for this study.

**Mixed Methods Research**

To combine both qualitative and quantitative research methods, this research embraced a mixed methods research strategy. This research model has become increasingly accepted among researchers since the 1980s (Bryman 2008; Creswell & Clark 2007). However, not all researchers are impressed with the idea of integrating both quantitative and qualitative research in a single study (Bryman 2008). Thus, adopting this research strategy requires knowledge of both quantitative and qualitative research methods, as well as ways of combining them. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), mixed methods research can be defined as:

As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of the data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method; it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (p. 5).

This research is mixed methods research combined with a live design project. According to Bryman (2008), there are many ways of combining quantitative and qualitative research, including offset, completeness, instrument development, and credibility. The weight of the two approaches may differ as the research progresses as one became more dominant in relation to the other (Creswell & Clark 2007). In this particular approach, the mixed methods research strategy was applied when qualitative data were used to set the foundation, that is the additional research questions and stimuli, while quantitative research was used to test and validate the research question and additional research questions.
As part of the requirements for this research as a Professional Doctorate Degree, problems including managing a live design project, client and designer relationships, designing preferable outcomes, time constraints, and contribution to new knowledge all needed to be considered in order to achieve a reasonable outcome. Given that complete objectivity is almost impossible in the role of practitioner-researcher, certain qualities, such as being reflective towards the process, and acknowledging the complexity, dynamism, and unpredictability of the real world, are significantly important aspects in this research (Gray & Malins 2004). Thus, a model was designed to manage these requirements, to achieve an adequate result and to fulfil the desired goal. The following is a diagram (figure 4.1) that explains the research strategy, using the mixed methods research methodology:

Working with the real client of a Malaysian Public University, it was important for the researcher/designer to understand the organisational culture, which in this case was structured from ‘top to bottom’. Therefore, understanding the viewpoint of the top of the organisational hierarchy, in this case the VC, BOD, and perhaps the alumni, was crucial. Several meetings and discussions with the top management team, including the VC, were conducted before the research could be initiated. However, with the limited time and resources available to achieve a holistic design solution for the branding exercise (refer to the Design Context chapter), a more specific task was chosen to be the focus. Thus designing a new CVI to symbolise the change became the central theme later in this research. The research question was then formulated as:
**Does a Corporate Visual Identity (CVI), as the most visible tool in branding, have an effect on the perception of people associated with it?**

This research began by adapting qualitative methods in order to assist the designer through the design process. The qualitative methods in this research were designed to be brief and flexible in developing a new CVI for UPSI, which eventually led to a series of CVI proposals that were presented to the VC and BOD. Later, two of these CVIs were selected for evaluation and the additional research questions were formulated as part of the evaluation process.

**Qualitative Enquiry**

**Stage 01 – Exploration Phase**

The following section discusses the methods applied in the development of the new CVI for UPSI. Case study was selected as the method in the qualitative research. Stake (2000) has identified three types of case study: 1) intrinsic case study, 2) instrumental case study and 3) collective case study (p. 437). An intrinsic case study is a study of a particular case where the researcher desires a better perception of a specific case (Stake 2000). As the particular case here was UPSI, and as the researcher needed to have a better overall perspective of the specific case at UPSI, the intrinsic case study was applied in this research project.

**Triangulation in Qualitative Research**

In order to begin the design process of the new CVI for UPSI, this exploratory research chose three different methods as part of the case study and for data gathering and data analysis (figure 4.2). Data triangulation was employed in order to gain richer data and credibility for the study (Lincoln & Guba 1985). The chosen methods for data collection were:

I) Content analysis (official documents produced by both the Malaysian Government and UPSI, regarding future direction of HE),

II) Semi-structured interview with the VC of UPSI, and

III) Observation (emphasising visual observation).
Content Analysis and Semi-structured Interview Methods – Identifying the Brand Value for UPSI

To design a new CVI for an organisation, first the designer should understand what its core values are, and the information that needs to be communicated and to whom. This will determine the corporate strategy and positioning of the organisation. Balmer (1995) emphasises the importance of responding to the corporate strategy and positioning:

...Senior managers and corporate identity consultancies tackle organizational concerns of the highest order e.g. articulating an organization’s central idea, mission, and philosophy...the strategic visual school employs graphic design to signal a change in corporate strategy: the symbol acts as a rallying point for those within and outside the organization (p. 32).

Establishing the brand value is the most important phase for designers, before they can create a new logo or CVI. The brand value will determine what style or design elements are to be used in the design process. However, there is no particular method to generate the brand value, which in addition can be constructed in many forms; it can be in a full sentence, a word or several words (brand values). Thus, designers often rely heavily on their intuition, which sometimes can be proved wrong.
Content Analysis

In this study, in order to establish the brand value for UPSI, the designer adopted content analysis, which analysed two significant strategic planning documents in relation to Malaysian Public Universities, and in particular UPSI. Bryman (2008) describes content analysis as:

...An approach to the analysis of documents and texts to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner (p. 275).

Both the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE), and UPSI recently published strategic documents on the future direction of Malaysian Public Universities. These documents are: 1) Re-engineering an Esteemed University of Education, produced by UPSI in January 2008, and 2) National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010: Triggering Higher Education Transformation, produced by the MoHE in August 2007. Both documents offered valuable supplements to this research, in order to understand and identify the variables or key areas concerning Malaysian Public Universities. The key areas were presented in the form of single words, which were later identified as the brand value.

For this research, key words were extracted throughout the texts from both documents, commencing with page one and then every fifth page (1,5,10,15, etc.). The objective behind this technique was to highlight the words most frequently used as description of, or in association with, the direction, aspiration, and standards that Malaysian universities, especially UPSI are required to meet. These words could be taken either directly from the text, or by subjective interpretation of a section by the researcher, to identify a theme or central concept. This enabled the researcher to identify key words that could be put forward as the proposed brand values.

Based on this technique, 17 key words were identified and extracted from the strategic documents as the brand values for UPSI. The key words were: comprehensive, effective, education, entrepreneur, creative, innovative, international, professional, research-driven, specialized, human-capital, leadership, competitive, branding, excellence, lifelong-learning, and world-class-university.
To include all these 17 key words as the brand values for UPSI was obviously overwhelming, since the brand value needed to be simplified and easy to remember. Therefore at this stage the researcher pre-selected nine potential brand values to be discussed with the VC, in order to get her feedback. The selected brand values were: international, comprehensive, innovative, research-driven, education, specialized, professional, entrepreneur, and heritage. The following section will elaborate the discussion.

**Semi-Structured Interview**

The interview with the VC was focused upon the general topic of the future direction in HE, Malaysia and UPSI. Responses were recorded in brief notes by the interviewer. Later in the discussion, the VC was asked to express her opinion on the university image, and also to identify the brand values. In order to assist the VC, the interviewer presented an example of what brand value is and how it works within the university context, taken from the corporate communication website of another university (the Manchester University rebranding program). Retrieved from: <www.campus.manchester.ac.uk/marketing_services/brand_and_reputation_management/the_university_of_manchester_brand/>.

In order to identify the brand values for UPSI, the interviewer presented the list of potential key words to the VC (outlined in the previous content analysis) to be discussed. In doing so, the interviewer decided to use ‘Sorting’ and ‘Ranking’ techniques. First, the VC was given nine pre-selected key words taken from the documents published by herself and the MoHE. As the VC was already informed and familiar with all the key words, she was then asked to elaborate, sort, and rank these nine key words. In the process, some of the key words were identified as insignificant or redundant, and were eliminated. The following table (4.1) indicates how the data were recorded:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Word</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>- Inspired to have international standing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Increasing the number of international staff and students and also collaboration between foreign universities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Reflecting more on future direction for the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- Rejected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Contradicted the idea of becoming specialized in providing education programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovative</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>- Applied to all staff, graduates, courses, and research outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research-driven</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>- Important area that needs to be strengthened by the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Reflecting more on the future direction of the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>- The core value for the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Inspired to become a regional centre - as a repository and database for education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>- Become the best and be recognised locally and internationally in the field of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Also implies professionalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>- The only public university that has been bestowed the ‘heritage university’ title by the Malaysian Government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- One of the earliest HE institutions in Malaysia (est. in 1922).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- Rejected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Excessive use as a key word in both government and private sectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- To be included in the ‘specialized’ category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneur</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>- In favour of developing and offering more competitive and profit-driven short courses, as well as commercialising research outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- In line with the establishment of a special unit called UPSI Holding, focusing on commercialisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- In line with the idea of ‘Democratisation’ of HE, or giving more autonomy to the governance of university.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In general, the key words were ranked by the VC, based on what the university already had, and their strengths in relation to what the university needed to improve and its aspirations for the future. Table 4.1 explains why the key words 'specialized' and 'education' were ranked at the top, while 'international' and 'research-driven' were at the bottom. It also indicates that the VC formed these brand values according to realistic, attainable, and inspirational assessment. Based on the content analysis and semi-structured interview, the seven selected brand values identified for UPSI were:

1. Specialized
2. Education
3. Entrepreneur
4. Heritage
5. Innovative
6. International
7. Research-driven

Observation Method – Designers as an Active Participant

In this study, the observation method was performed by participating in a series of meetings and consultations with the VC and BOD. Acknowledging the nature of the organisation’s culture, it was crucial to get approval from the VC and the BOD before any plan could be put into action. However, in this observation method, visualisation happened to be the main research instrument adopted in this research.

In general, designers are more familiar with language associated with design processes and some research methods including mind mapping, SWOT analysis, focus group, survey, and case study. Although these do not form a comprehensive list of the techniques and methods that have been adopted by designers, it is most likely that this list is quite influential for designers in developing and supporting their design decision. The most commonly used method or technique in relation to the designer’s work is visual exploration (Grady & Grady 2006). The visual exploration method permits the designer to explore possibilities in solving initial design problems, like colour, typography, imagery, and space, by utilising tools that they are familiar with; from a simple tool like the pencil, to a more complex tool like 3D software.

This study explored the use of visualisation as a research technique to help the designer in their research activities. Visualisation has a long history in the design discipline as a tool for designers to explore ideas, for example the sketch is one of the essential tools for designers and artists to express their thoughts, to solve problems, and to implement solutions. Visualisation has also become a tool to evaluate design outcomes (Al-Kodmany 1999; Dwyer...
In design schools, starting at the foundation level, students are commonly trained to do sketches and to develop skills in visualisation such as illustration, photography, video, and computer-generated images. As a result, designers are able to utilise these skills in their research activities.

**Visualisation and Aesthetics**

In terms of the relationship between visualisation and aesthetics (the motivation behind many design decisions) according to Whitfield (2005), the visual as a vehicle to knowledge existed in human history long before we developed language skills. The word ‘aesthetics’, tracing back to the original classical Greek (aisthêsis), means ‘sensory-perceptual knowledge’, which is distinct from the meaning of ‘intellectual/linguistic knowledge’ (noêsis).

This notion suggests that designers, as well as artists, with their visualisation capabilities, can produce knowledge through a process of refinement, elaboration, and construction of a range of sensory-perceptual experiences for the audience (Whitfield 2005). In other words, the human brain is the fundamental agent required in order to understand the aesthetic function. Furthermore, not all knowledge can be achieved or understood by using text or words. For some, the visual dimension can offer a richer and more meaningful explanation as well as other senses including touch, taste, and hearing. Added to his framework, Whitfield (2005) has suggested a model called the *categorical-motivation model* as a key to access knowledge, and to acknowledge the cultural domain as an added value.

An empirical study that considers a similar notion was conducted by McDonagh, Bruseberg, and Haslam (2002) entitled: *Visual product evaluation: exploring users’ emotional relationships with products*. In this study they argued that applying visual techniques in order to evaluate products with regard to less tangible issues, such as emotional bonding between user and product, is very valuable for gaining insight and access beyond linguistic restrictions. They suggested three qualitative techniques in their study, namely product personality profiling, mood boards, and visual product evaluation, to be considered by designers as their toolkit.

In this qualitative research, visual methods became the main tools for data collection and analysis. The following explains how this research explored the use of visualisation as a research technique within the observation method.
**Visualisation in the Observation Method**

The use of visual methods has been largely discussed in ethnography and has been explored in marketing studies. The visualisation method is used in order to understand cultural production, social interaction and individual experience (Pink 2001). It has benefitted from the emergence of new technologies in visual recording, such as photography, video and electronic media. An early example in marketing study was by Nyman (1944), which proposed the use of visual analysis in agriculture as a preliminary method to study the major factors of influence between tractors and mechanised equipment, and the size of farms. In this study, Nyman adopted an exploratory technique using cards to represent one case or unit of observation. These cards were used to define patterns and explore the relationships between categories found, based on desired characteristics.

A recent study by Pullman and Robson (2007) suggested using the photograph as a data gathering technique to capture customers’ experience of design and a hotel interior. In this participatory case study, guests in a hotel were each handed a camera to photograph anything in the hotel that attracted their attention, including both likes and dislikes. For example, they liked the homelike design attributes in their rooms, but disliked the bathroom phones that they kept bumping into and the tangle of cords in the outlet behind the door (Pullman & Robson 2007).

The appropriateness of using photography, as well as video recording, as tools for data collection has also been discussed in the ethnographic literature, including the relationship between images and image producers. Arguments arising in the social science literature on photography tend to distinguish between the snapshot amateur and the professional photographer. Problematic matters regarding these categories may imply that individual skills in both photographic techniques and subject matter are being examined (Pink 2001). However, this is not the major problem in the design discipline when adopting photography as a data gathering technique, since designers have been trained and have developed mastery in both skills of the application of photographic techniques and the choice of subject matter within the design curriculum.

However, visuals alone should not necessarily replace words as the source of knowledge; both should equally provide meaningful elements of research study (Pink 2001). Thus, any visual representations need to be accompanied by some explanation or analysis in the form of text. Both should compliment each other to optimise data collection and analysis, in order to support the visual observation method as a research technique.
Visual Audit as Data Gathering Technique

In this research, using observation, visual artefacts were gathered as a set of categories. All images in the same category were juxtaposed to represent the set. Several categories were identified:

I) Existing external CVI (e.g. logo, brand name, and colour). Photographs were used to collect real images at locations, to show how the existing CVI applications, for example signage, way finding, and livery were presented.

II) Photographs of everyday events taking place in the university, selected from the UPSI photo archive.

III) External promotional and corporate communication print materials produced by UPSI.


For the first two visual categories, a photography technique was used for data gathering, to obtain a representation of the ‘real’ environment. Data for the other two categories were collected through the reproduction of images taken from the Internet and print materials. Data for the second category were selected from the university photo archives. These images were taken by official university photographers and design students to represent daily events happening inside the university. With the exception of the second category, all images were focused on the applications of the university logo, and a comparison of logos taken from the THE – World Universities Rankings in 2007 as well as Malaysian Public Universities.

These visuals were crucial for the designer to understand the context and the scale of the project before any design process could take place. As designers tend to think visually (Grady & Grady 2006), these images helped the process of designing to become more efficient. The following are examples of the visual audit and their categories (Figure 4.3 to 4.7):
1) External applications of the CVI

Figure 4.3: Visual audit from existing external CVI applications
Photographs taken by the author
2) Everyday activities in UPSI

Figure 4.4: Visual audit from everyday events and people in UPSI
Photographs taken with permission from UPSI photo archive and personal collection
3) External promotion and corporate communication

Figure 4.5: Visual audit from university promotional and corporate communication materials
4) University Logos

Figure 4.6: Visual audit of 200 logos of the THE – World Universities Rankings in 2007
Sample taken from number 1 – 21

Figure 4.7: Visual audit of logos of Malaysian Public Universities
Not according to rank
Analysis of the Visual Audits

The photographs in figure 4.3 and 4.5 show the consistency of the logo application in external communications, by maintaining the logo and colour scheme of red, navy blue, yellow, and white. However, some variety is introduced in terms of logotype and graphic representation, which sometimes unintentionally replaces the original logo. The inconsistent use of the logotype is a major setback in CVI for the university, since maintaining the logotype is as important as maintaining the logo itself. It can be observed that because of the use of a single logo throughout the CVI, including all the faculties and units within the university, a monolithic approach is being applied. Baker and Balmer (1997) describe a monolithic approach as a single brand that becomes the centre of attention throughout all the communication tools involved in the process of promoting programs and services offered by the university. Other operational units within the university, like schools, faculties or departments, may not be seen as important in terms of promoting their individual identity, but are significant as part of a holistic approach (Baker & Balmer 1997). Considering the operational size of this university, the monolithic approach is an appropriate way for the CVI to be implemented. This way the university can focus their CVI on just one brand image, thus, maximising their effort and budget.

Historically, both the traditional Islamic school and the British education system have had a significant influence on the Malaysian education system. The image in figure 4.4 demonstrates this by showing moderate Islamic Malaysians working or studying in the university, including a woman, who is the VC, thus rejecting the misleading perception that in the Islamic world women are not permitted to work or certainly not hold an important position. On the other hand, figure 4.4 also indicates that most of the staff and students are Malaysian, which includes those of Malaysian, Chinese and Indian background, with no international image of staff or students from the university.

Although the number of international staff and students is small, the university aspires to have an international standing and aims to increase the number of staff and students from overseas (Ayob 2008). Both the MoHE and UPSI have recognised the importance of positioning within the international league tables emerging from the UK and China. The THE – World Universities Rankings lists the top 200 universities based upon performance on a range of measures (Ince 2007). The SJT – Academic Ranking of World Universities does the same, although the measures and their weightings differ (Shanghai Jiao Tong 2008). Both predominantly measure research performance, and
they equate research standing with international standing. This intention to become an international university has become one of the significant elements of the brand values focused on during the design process of the new CVI for UPSI.

Visual audits of both the international and Malaysian university logos (figure 4.6 and 4.7) indicate that the majority of logos of well-established universities use heraldry or traditional emblems to represent their CVI. However, there are still a significant number of university logos that use more contemporary images and sometimes use only logotype. These contemporary logos are usually either from ‘new’ established universities, which have been upgraded from polytechnic or institute to university status, or are associated with technology-driven universities like MIT and ETH Zurich.

Based on the visual audit, it is clear that the MIT logo indicates a slightly different approach, by introducing a more modern and audacious design in comparison to other renowned universities. It is hard to overlook how different the MIT logo with its combination of thin and thick lines to form an image of a circuit and the acronym M.I.T. appears in comparison to other university logos.

There is no clear indication why particular universities have chosen to use either logo or heraldry, or both, for their CVI. In a case study on Strathclyde University, Baker and Balmer (1997) reveal how important it is for the university to maintain their external communication and image through a proper management of the CVI, by reflecting:

At Strathclyde University the issue was crystallized when the Chairman of the University Court (the governing body in Scottish universities, and usually known as ‘the Council’ in England and Wales) complained that the university was receiving very little public recognition for the great majority of the work it was doing. Essentially, this was due to the fact that most of the university’s operational units – departments, research units, etc. – had developed a branded identity rather than an endorsed identity (p. 371).

As a consequence, Strathclyde developed a new CVI. During the process of development several matters were resolved, including whether or not to introduce a logo in addition to heraldry, consistent use of the name of the university, choice of the personalised typeface, and practical implementation and consistency of the CVI. The decision to adopt a logo, while still maintaining the university’s heraldry, was made by the development
committee almost without discussion because most of the well-established universities used heraldry in their CVI. Baker and Balmer (1997) stated “to adopt a logo might signal that the university was different from its sister institutions for the wrong reasons” (p. 376).

**Visualisation in Data Analysis**

Visualisation, at certain stages, has been used in almost every research discipline from physical and natural sciences, social sciences to humanities in order to gather or generate data, organise and communicate ideas, explain or understand phenomenon, and also to evaluate and analyse (Gray & Malins 2004). The following section will demonstrate the extensive use of visualisation in this present study for data analysis during the process of designing a new CVI for UPSI.

**Visual Analysis – The Logo Mapping**

Multidimensional Scaling or MDS has been widely used in quantitative research as a technique to analyse statistical data, by exploring similarities and dissimilarities between data and clusters. In marketing, MDS has been adapted in a qualitative method, which is also known as ‘Perceptual Mapping’. Although the application of Perceptual Mapping may not be as complex as MDS, it does serve as a tool for marketers to visually display the perceptions of clients or potential clients, in order to understand the market or the competitors.

As a tool for visualisation information, Perceptual Mapping enables researchers to map the underlying dimensions, which are normally presented in two-dimensional space, of respondents’ perceptions of their preference for one brand or the similarity of products or brands. The proximity of the items, that is products or brands, to each other will indicate how similar or different they are. The dimensions are normally predetermined and commonly identified by the use of different axes set between bi-polar adjectives, derived from the Semantic Differential method, developed by Osgood (1952).

Potential application for Perceptual Mapping is also found in the design area, whereby the designer can adopt or innovate from a similar technique in order to identify patterns or clusters in design objects, for example logo, chair, and car. Most importantly, because it is based on judging the data in relation to object distribution within the space, and visual interpretation, designers may find it ‘friendly’ to adopt these methods in their design processes.
An example of a similar technique can be found in a study called: *User information for designers: A visual research package* (Antikainen, Kälviäinen & Miller 2003). In order to develop a flexible and visually based on-line research package to study users’ emotional and social responses toward design objects, Antikainen, Kälviäinen, and Miller developed software that enables the users or potential users to give their emotional responses by clicking on design items to answer questions (refer to figure 4.8). This interactive visual-based research package helps to create a better atmosphere for both the producers – to obtain quick feedback from the users, and the users – to be able to respond easily.

![Figure 4.8: Model for Perceptual Mapping](source)

A similar technique was used by the designer in this study, as a self-exploratory tool in the design process to gain better understanding of logo cluster and to make informed decisions on the CVI design. The Logo Mapping (see figure 4.9) illustrates how the designer in this particular research adopted the technique. The logos of over 100 universities taken from the THE – World Universities Rankings, top 200 in 2007 were compiled and mapped against two predetermined dimensions. The vertical axis is icon verses text, and the horizontal axis is heraldry (traditional) verses logo (modern). The map produced four possible sets of domains: Domain 1 – Heraldry with icon, Domain 2 – Heraldry with text, Domain 3 – Logo with icon, and Domain 4 – Logo with text. Besides showing the similarities between logos that are positioned closer together, this map also shows how the individual logo design will determine their position within the respective domains.
Figure 4.9: Logo Mapping

Figure 4.10: Logo Mapping and the clusters
The logos that are more distant from the axis demonstrate the extreme representation of each domain, indicated with clusters A, B, C, and D. For example, Stanford and Uppsala University represent the most extreme in Domain 1 – Heraldry with icon (cluster A); while MIT and QUT represent the most extreme in Domain 4 – Logo with text (cluster D) (refer to figure 4.10). Through the Logo Mapping technique, the researcher/designer found significant patterns in the university logos, including:

I. The majority of these universities were represented by or at least included heraldry in their CVI (Domain 1 and 2). This supports Baker and Balmer’s (1999) suggestion that universities should maintain their traditional emblem so that the new CVI will not be seen as different from other institutions.

II. Most of the top 20 universities were in cluster E, with five out of six top ranked universities including Harvard, Cambridge, Oxford, Yale, and Princeton all within the same cluster. Thus, the use of heraldry gave a sense of prestige, superiority, and continuum.

III. The top technology-driven universities tended to dominate cluster D, and embraced the most audacious logo design for their universities, for example MIT, Tokyo Tech., QUT, and TUM. These universities were seen to detach themselves from the impression of being ‘traditional universities’, thus hinting at a bold move in their CVI.

IV. Cluster F pointed towards the more contemporary logo designs or recent trends in university logos, with most of the logos redesigned within the last 15 years.

Apart from helping the designer to understand the context of the university logos in terms of clusters and trends, the map also helped the designer choose a desirable direction for the new CVI. The following diagram (figure 4.11) demonstrates the extended use of the logo mapping to identify the current position of the UPSI logo, and to propose the repositioning for the new one.
At present, the logo for UPSI is presented in the same cluster as the logos with heraldry. Being in this cluster, with the majority of the university logos, might be the safest approach for UPSI. However, the university might find that the impact of their logo could be hindered by myriads of other university logos, which have used the same approach. In order to be noticeable, it would be advantageous for the new logo to be repositioned in a less congested cluster. At the same time, it is crucial to consider which new potential position is appropriate. Consequently, the designer identified two potential positions to be explored:

**Proposed new position (i):** Will enable the new logo to maintain or retain most of the significant imagery from the heraldry, while introducing a new logotype as complementary to the whole CVI. In this approach, a personalised typeface will be designed that will convey the new brand values. The new logotype will have a bigger impact on the CVI, and eventually replace the heraldry.

**Proposed new position (ii):** Is applying a total makeover to the university's CVI by introducing more contemporary design elements. There is a possibility that some of the icons in the new logo will be developed, based on the existing heraldry. This approach will give more room for the designer to explore new possibilities in order to communicate the brand values through a modern logo. However, this approach might also include a risk of overdoing the changes and losing the established essence of the university's image.
These were the two approaches that provided the general guidelines and directions for the designer to use in the design process. This technique allowed the designer to explore as many design options as possible, while at the same time acknowledging design limits. Hence, this technique not only helped the designer to be informed about the design decisions, but also to be efficient in terms of both time and effort.

**Visual Analysis – The Mood Board**

Similar to Logo Mapping, the ‘Mood Board’ technique also relies on emotional judgments, either from the participants or from the designers’ themselves. The Mood Board is a technique whereby all sorts of imagery, including photographs, illustrations, typefaces, colours and patterns are collected, positioned, and juxtaposed, in order to express the range of emotion and mood associated with the design objects. There are no limitations or rules on how the Mood Board can be presented, but printouts from the Internet and paper cuttings from magazines are the most popular approaches.

For designers, this technique is mainly used as an expression beyond the linguistic boundary, in order to clarify and to show how designers have interpreted the design brief and applied it to the wider context of the design project (McDonagh, Bruseberg & Haslam 2002). Engaging with this technique will help the designer to set the ‘tone of voice’ for the design direction, as well as to capture the essence of the design elements before the actual process of design takes place. Designers also frequently combine this technique with selected words describing the brand values or personas.

According to McDonagh, Bruseberg and Haslam (2002), the benefits from this technique include: economic and easy to generate; communicates beyond linguistic boundaries; provides visual stimuli that encourage discussion; stimulates emotions and ideas for designers. However, there are limitations to this technique which include image use can be too literal and misunderstood, heavy reliance on availability of images and prone to bias, and also may seem strange to non-design participants (McDonagh, Bruseberg & Haslam 2002). The following (figure 4.12 and 4.13) are some examples of how the Mood Board can be presented:
Figure 4.12: The Mood Board containing brand values
Source: Taken from a previous design project by the author, unpublished material

Figure 4.13: The Mood Board visualising personas
Source: The Glasswall project for the BBC website, unpublished material
In this research, the Mood Board was used as an expression of what ideas the designer had acquired during the preliminary research in order to design the new CVI. Expressing personal response and ideas by visualising them through this method not only allowed the designer to obtain visual clues, but also to develop a desirable design style and to analyse its appropriateness based on the designer’s personal judgment, or in collaboration with other individuals such as fellow designers, respondents, and clients. The following is the example of the Mood Board created during the design process:

![Mood Board Image](image)

**Figure 4.14: The Mood Board for UPSIs CVI design**

This Mood Board (figure 4.14) was composed based on the newly identified brand values for UPSI of international, research-driven, specialized, education, innovative, entrepreneur, and heritage, as well as a collection of images selected from the image bank and the designer’s personal collection, colours, and pattern. The structured layout using the grid system and the simplicity of the design elements in this Mood Board reflect a contemporary design approach for the new CVI.
Summary

The qualitative methods and techniques discussed in this study including observation, content analysis, semi-structured interview, Visual Audit, Logo Mapping, and Mood Board were crucial to the development of the new CVI for UPSI. However, the range of methods and techniques mentioned above only contributed to the designing process, but did not provide answers to the research question. Thus, some assumptions were identified during the process, which needed to be further investigated. These assumptions included the notions of heraldry as presenting a sense of prestige, superiority and continuity when associated with a university, and the naming of a university as having a big impact on its image and reputation. Both of these assumptions were identified as the basis to form further research questions. Essentially at this stage, the qualitative methods and techniques provided the basis for this study to continue with quantitative research in order to investigate the research question and the additional research questions.
Chapter 5
Design: Process and Outcomes

This chapter describes the design process involved in developing a new CVI for UPSI. The preliminary study conducted in the qualitative research helped the designer, in consultation with the university authorities, to identify and establish the brand values for UPSI: international, research-driven, specialized, education, innovative, entrepreneur, and heritage, and also to identify the new proposed positioning for the logo (refers to the Logo Mapping method).

A Brief History of the University’s Logo

Historically, the logo of UPSI has undergone a number of changes since its establishment in 1922 (refer to figure 5.1), when the original logo was created. These changes were mostly due to expansion of the institution. Formerly known as the Sultan Idris Teachers College or SITC, it had to change its name to completely Malay language, after independence was achieved in 1957 and was then known as Maktab Perguruan Sultan Idris (MPSI). This change was also accompanied by a new logo. Thirty years later in 1987, the college was upgraded to an institute and was known as Institut Pendidikan Sultan Idris (IPSI), with a name change only on the logo at this stage. The institution was then bestowed university status in 1997 and changed its logo again. The current logo has undergone a minor change since the 1997 version, with the name of the university being included in the logo, and the year of establishment (1922) being excluded. The only element that has remained consistent in all these logos is the motto – ‘pengetahuan suluh budiman’ or ‘knowledge leads wisdom’. With a new direction for the university, aspired to by the recently appointed VC, UPSI decided it was time to revive its logo again, in order to communicate the changes.

Figure 5.1: Logo evolution for UPSI from the establishment in 1922 to 2009
Source: UPSI archive, used with permission
Design Brief

There is no official design brief produced by the university for this project, however, based from the preliminary discussions through the committee and the VC, there are some considerations to be made during the development of the new logo and CVI. These considerations include creating a university’s logo that consists of two versions; in an original name (native language) and an English name. Both versions need to be consistent and have the same ‘look and feel’, therefore creating a new design of logotype that can fit both characters. This is not a big problem for the designer since both languages are using the same ‘letterform’ or characteristics of the letters. This task is the essential part of the development of the new CVI.

In term of the corporate colour, although colour is regarded as one of the central elements in introducing the CVI (Balmer 1995; Grady & Grady 2006), the committee has no intention to introduce a new colour scheme and favour to maintain the existing colour. The corporate colours for the university are: Navy blue, Red, and Royal Yellow, and White. The year, which the institution was established, that is in 1922 was brought back as part of the important elements in the new CVI. This is to emphasis the long history and legacy of the institution as well as the Malaysian tertiary education.

The Logo Design Process

The process of designing a new logo starts with the most commonly used technique by designers called the Visual Exploration or Sketchbook (Grady & Grady 2006; Gray & Malins 2004). This technique often relies on self-exploration by designers to develop ideas through visualisation. Sketches, thumbnails, and drafts are often used as the terms to describe the process. Particularly in this project, the designer has used both manual (pencil sketches) and software (Adobe Illustrator) to explore the ideas and develop the new CVI. There are a few stages in this design process, namely: rough sketches, semi-comprehensive sketches, comprehensive sketches, and final outcomes. However, all these processes and stages presented here were merely a series of design snapshots and not explicitly discussed, since the designer was more often focused on exploring ideas, rather than trying to give detailed explanation. In relation to how brain works during the state of designing, Whitfield (2007) denotes that:

Given its evolutionary priorities, it is less concerned with us understanding the process of decision-making than the actual decision and the consequent action. For this reason, we know the decision and the prescribed action, but not the decision-making process (p. 5).
Furthermore, Whitfield (2007) also argues that in relation to memory and recall, scientific research in neuroscience has suggested that “the brain that does the remembering is not the brain that formed the initial memory” (p. 10). This proposition has suggested that designers have no capability to accurately describe the state of design decision-making.

In this research project, the initial methods and techniques in qualitative research have provided a plausible design direction, including brand values and positioning, but have not necessarily facilitated the design decision-making for the logo outcomes. Thus, it has not been appropriate to explicitly analyse the use of design elements such as line, shape, colour, and composition in the development of this new logos. The whole design processes will only be explained through the documentation of photographs and digital snapshots. The following illustrates the stages and processes undertaken in this design project:

- **Rough sketches – Pencil**

  The advantage of this tool is that it provides a fast and easy way to start visualising the idea. The design does not have to be completed and is often very rough. Like many great visual artists, designers, and inventors including Pablo Picasso and Leonardo de Vinci have used this technique in order to express and explore their creative thought before the actual masterpieces or inventions were being made. Although the sketches can be done on any piece of paper, it is wise to have it all in a workbook format for record purposes and future references as shown in figure 5.2.

![Figure 5.2: Example of pencil sketches photographed from designer’s workbook](image)
Semi-comprehensive sketches – Computer software

Designers often start constructing a logo after they have done the initial sketches in their workbook. The idea eventually evolves during the process of transferring the logos into the software and constructing and refining them in digital format. There are many software applications available to choose from, and in this project the designer has used Adobe Illustrator. Designing through this software gives more freedom for the designer to explore different options of the design elements such as lines, shapes, and types, enhancing the logo from the initial sketches. Another advantage of using computer software is that it allows the process to be recorded through screen snapshot or multiple files. This advantage is crucial because it permits the designer to easily record stages of the process as they revise and develop their work.

In this semi-comprehensive stage, apart from the regular group meetings and discussions, an expert in this field was also brought in to provide a consultation for the designer. The following (figure 5.3 to 5.6) demonstrates this process in the semi-comprehensive sketches stage:

Figure 5.3: Example of a logo constructed using Adobe Illustrator CS3 software
Figure 5.4: Exploring the use of typeface

Figure 5.5: Examples taken from the semi-comprehensive sketches
Figure 5.6: 30 selected semi-comprehensive logos design
• Ten possible directions put forward for comprehensive sketches
The comprehensive logo design stage

In this stage, ten logos were chosen from the semi-comprehensive stage for further development. Logos and logotypes were refined and variations with colours were added. While the former stage (semi-comprehensive) was more concerned about the form of the logo such as organic and geometric shapes, positive and negative space, and the typeface, this stage, however, emphasised the composition and colour combinations of the logos (refer to figure 5.7 to 5.11). At the end of this stage, some of these logos were selected and presented to the VC and BOD.

Figure 5.7: Examples of logo variations in the comprehensive stage

Figure 5.8: Examples of logo variations in the comprehensive stage
Figure 5.9: Examples of logo variations in the comprehensive stage

Figure 5.10: Examples of logo variations in the comprehensive stage

Figure 5.11: Exploring logo patterns in the comprehensive stage
The following will illustrate the samples of logo proposals presented to the VC and BOD. In this stage, the logos were presented along with the rationales. Based on the feedback, some modifications of the logos were made, while others were dismissed. To keep track, all proposals were dated during the presentation. Because of the nature of this project, the whole process at this stage took about three months to be completed.

- Logo directions and combinations presented to the VC and BOD
  Date: January 25th 2009
Five possible logo directions and combinations presented to the VC and BOD
Date: February 2nd 2009
Four possible logo directions and rationales presented to the VC and BOD
Date: March 15th 2009

1. [Image of logo 1]

2. [Image of logo 2]

3. [Image of logo 3]

4. [Image of logo 4]

**Logo Considerations and Rationales**

The new logos and logotypes above are designed to be visible at significantly small reproduction and versatile for most applications. The desirable brand values to be communicated in these logos are: international, specialized, educational, heritage, innovative, research-driven, and entrepreneurship.
Inevitably, one logo may reflect one or more of the values above, compared to others and vice-versa. To be seen as ‘international’ is the major consideration in the whole design process. Versatility becomes imperative, to insure the logo can be implemented throughout any application and constraints.

The logos proposed utilise serif fonts i.e. Trojan (01 & 02) and Bookman Old Style (04), to accentuate the ‘heritage’ value of the university. 1922 is highlighted for the same purpose. In addition, the fonts selected possess an ‘educational’ look, suitable for the symbol of the institution. The following will explain the logo rationales:

**Logo 01**

This logo is a version of the old logo, retaining the icons found in the existing logo, i.e. the book, the ‘keris’ (the Malay dagger), the Islamic geometric motif, and the atom. These icons represent the core elements of knowledge, wisdom, and morality, while embracing technology and advancement.

**Logo 02**

This is a logo and logotype, which utilises a minimalist approach, with economy in colour and shape, making it highly legible and versatile even in small proportion and application. Maximising the use of positive and negative space to gain visual impact, the strength is in the elegance and simplicity, while still retaining the existing core elements found in the old logo.
This logo design takes a more modern look. The icon (three books) represents three eras for the institution, evolving from a teacher training college to an institute and then a university. The formation of the ‘book’ is based on the letters S. I. (papers), U. (cover) and E. (negative space between the papers), which is the acronym of Sultan Idris Education University.

This logo design is an adaptation from a typical king’s insignia or coat of arms, as an official emblem found in nations ruled by a monarch (e.g. England, Sweden, Malaysia, and Brunei). The logo is designed to highlight the heritage of the university, through the classical rendition of the image and type while retaining a modern and progressive look.

The Logo Selection

Along with the logo rationale, the following figure (5.12) illustrates the relationship between the proposed logos and the brand values for UPSI. As an evaluation tool, the brand value analysis table provides a simple and quick solution in order to make an association and comparison between the logo and the brand values. Using this technique has also allowed the designer to systematically judge the logos, based on his own emotional responses and also to include other evaluators as well. This self-exploratory technique has enabled the designer to visually indicate which logo out of the four options best represented for each of the brand values.
Using the brand value analysis technique, two most distinctive logos emerged (logo 2 and 3) that best represent the new brand values. However, instead of moving to the completely new stylised logo and logotype (logo 2), the committee decided to choose the first option (logo 1), which only has a new logotype, while still retaining the existing logo/heraldry. It was rather a safe option to decide on, in order to avoid negative responses, especially from the alumni, due to radical changes of the university image. Thus, still having logo 3 as another option has lead to two possible logo positions for UPSI, which was indicated in the initial stage (refer to the Logo Mapping in the qualitative chapter). The following (figure 5.13) demonstrates placement of the proposed logos.

Figure 5.13: Using the Logo Mapping to indicate the new logo positioning for UPSI
The two contrasting approaches of the new CVIs have provided an opportunity for the designer to conduct further research in order to validate the usage of these CVIs. The next stage in this research is to find out whether the CVI has an immediate effect on people associated with it. Thus, a quantitative research strategy was adopted to discover the plausible answers.

Summary

Meeting a client expectation in relation of designing a new CVI seems an ordinary task any designer can do. While most of designers or design consultants are quite secretive about their processes and methods, others are willing to share their design 'journey' through books, magazines, and websites. Often designers came out with their own design style in order to complete their task with a very limited knowledge on some of the important matters, like how effective the design in term of conveying positive attitude and reaching the right audiences or market segment.

Scientific research in design, especially graphic design seems practically being neglected. Perhaps due to the notion that graphic projects in general dealt with short-term and low risk solution for the clients. Thus, there is no real threat for graphic designer not delivering an effective design solution, accept the fact of losing a client. This is not the case of designing a new CVI, since clients are investing a substantial amount of their valuable resources. In most cases, introducing new logo also requires a change for other CVI devices including signage system, promotional item, and livery design.

The clients should be able to get the right advice at the very start and meaningful result when they decided to invest their money to develop a new CVI and logo. However, there are limited number of literatures in the area of CVI and logo evaluation, and virtually none in relation to perception towards people associate with the CVI. The following chapter will test two of the final logos presented in this chapter and proposing a new method of testing the effectiveness of the CVI.
Chapter 6  
Quantitative Research  
Stage 02 – Validation Phase  

This chapter suggests a new evaluation method for CVI. A method derived from environmental psychology, investigating a phenomenon called the Room Effect (Canter 1977; Canter, West & Wools 1974), was adapted for this research. Discussions of this method, along with the reasons for choosing a survey method for data collection, are presented in this chapter. The outcomes from this initial qualitative phase of research included two newly designed CVIs as part of the visual stimuli, and the development of additional research questions from the main research question (figure 6.1).

![Research Strategy Diagram](image)

Figure 6.1: Mixed methods research strategy

Research Question and Additional Research Questions

As indicated in the previous chapter, the research question is:

**Does a CVI, as the most visible tool in branding, have an effect on the perception of people associated with it?**
The additional research questions and the discussions are as follow:

1: Does the influence of the logo on perception of the university differ according to whether it is traditional (heraldry) or modern?

Organisations are strongly motivated to generate a positive image through their CVI (Balmer 1995, 2008; Bosch, Elving & Jong 2006; Melewar, Bassett & Simões 2006); including their logo (Henderson et al. 2003; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons 2007; van Riel, Ban & Heijmans 2001). This applies also to the HE sector (Baker & Balmer 1997; Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana 2007; Melewar & Akel 2005). The preliminary finding of this research (qualitative) indicates that the vast majority of universities prefer logos associated with the traditional (heraldry) rather than the modern style. There is also a tendency to modernise traditional logos by combining contemporary style and digital rendering with heraldry, whilst retaining most of its original form (e.g. Melbourne University, University of Copenhagen, and University of Bristol, have revived and modernised their universities’ heraldry – see figure 6.2). Furthermore, the CVIs of most high-ranking universities (see THE – World Universities Rankings) such as Harvard, Cambridge, Oxford, Yale, and Princeton have always been associated with heraldry. Applying the same approach to the CVIs of other universities could strengthen perceptions of their prestige, superiority, and historical continuity.

Baker and Balmer (1997) described a UK university, the University of Strathclyde, process of rebranding. They reported that the basis for the university committee’s decision to maintain heraldry was to avoid being seen as too different from other universities, given that the majority of well-established universities use heraldry.

![Examples of modernised heraldry for university logos](Source: Gathered from multiple sources via the university websites)
The preference for heraldry should be understood in the context of its history. In his book entitled *Marks of excellence – The history and taxonomy of trademarks*, Mollerup indicates that the tradition of heraldry began as early as the mid-twelfth century. Heraldry provided visual identity and recognition for kings and knights during the medieval period, before gradually expanding into other facets of social identification such as ceremonial and diplomatic, and eventually corporate identity (Mollerup 1997). The use of heraldry as part of CVI acts as more than simply a sign of identification for a university; it refers also to the high standard and legacy of the institution.

Apart from Mollerup’s extensive study, a number of significant studies have emerged that contribute to discourses regarding the form and purpose of logos, and their applications (e.g. Henderson & Cote 1998; Kohli, Suri & Thakor 2002; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons 2007; van Riel, Ban & Heijmans 2001). This study takes the further step of investigating the effect that heraldry (traditional) and logo (modern) have upon perceptions of people that they are associated with, rather than simply looking at the heraldry or logo per se.

A study on clothing labels by Fennis and Pruyn (2007) found a significant correlation between brand ‘personality traits’ and the perceptions of the personality of the brand’s owner. They argued that although a competent brand may impose a competent personality on its owner compared to someone wearing an incompetent brand, a consistent situational context would strengthen the association. This indicates that the personality traits of the brand owner should not contradict their background setting. Fennis and Pruyn (2007), however, failed to link their results with other studies from the field of environmental psychology that have found effects of characteristics of a setting on perceptions of a person in that setting. For example, an executive office setting conveys social standing, intelligence, and power upon its occupant (Canter 1977). This effect is substantiated in related studies conducted by Canter, West and Wool (1974); Campbell (1979); and Wilson and Mackenzie (2000).

The discussion above highlights two key points; the assumption that heraldry has a larger positive effect on a university’s reputation than a modern logo, and the instrument that may be used to evaluate the effect of a logo by creating an artificial environment as a setting (stimuli).
Does the influence of the logo on perception differ according to the name of a university?

Marketing and branding literature indicates substantial evidence that naming is an essential part of brand recognition and brand memory (Aaker 1991; Baker 2003; Buttle & Westoby 2006; Meyers-Levy 1989; Robertson 1992). Names that are consistent with brand mark and type (Klink 2003), as well as colour (Hynes 2009; Tavassoli 2001), better communicate intended brand meaning. Names that are difficult to pronounce may result in awkwardness, and some names may be difficult to remember, thereby eliminating the opportunity for consumers to engage with the brand. Major brand names often consider their names valuable brand assets as they are immediately recognisable and provide endorsement for brand extensions (Aaker 1991; Meyers-Levy 1989). In the context of HE, universities are becoming more inclined to operate according to marketing models (Hayes 2007; Hemsley-Brown & Goonawardana 2007). Some HE institutions have not only changed their logo but also their name. These include Trenton State College (New Jersey) to College of New Jersey, Beaver College (Philadelphia) to Arcadia University, and Queen Mary & Westfield College (London) to Queen Mary, University of London.

Globalisation and student mobility have significantly increased the number of international students, who have attracted substantial interest from universities, particularly in the US, UK, Australia, and other parts of Europe (particularly following the Bologna Declaration of 2005). This phenomenon extends also to countries in Asia, such as China, Singapore, and Malaysia (Altbach 2004; Margison & McBurnie 2004). English has been increasingly accepted and implemented as the lingua franca for academic activities all over Europe and Asia (Altbach 2004). This has resulted in the addition of university names in English alongside the native language. From a marketing perspective, Luna and Peracchio (2001) found that for an advertisement targeted at a bilingual market, consumers with English as a second-language show similar levels of recall to native English speakers when both image and text are congruent. With regard to logos, both logo (image) and logotype (text) should be cohesive.

In the case of Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI), it was concluded that the university should also carry an official English name, Sultan Idris Education University (SIEU), for international audiences (and in this thesis, the name SIEU will be replacing UPSI from now onwards). In the previous discussion (chapter 3: Design
Context) this researcher has expressed concerns about including the word ‘pendidikan’ or education in the name, as it may be difficult to pronounce and remember. The term may also imply a teachers’ college, which is misleading and may convey negative connotations, possibility damaging the university’s reputation.

Previous studies of the degree of influence of brand names show that some names are easier to remember than others (Baker 2003; Meyers-Levy 1989). Meyers-Levy (1989) argues that two equally important factors engage consumers’ memory of a brand: 1) Set size; and 2) Word frequency. These refer to the length or the word count (e.g. four words) of a brand name, and the prevalence of word usage or occurrence in a particular brand segment (e.g. high and low frequency) respectively. Meyers-Levy’s study shows that consumers exhibit different levels of recall for products similar in all aspects except their brand names, according to set size and word frequency.

Robertson (1992) has suggested that additional properties optimise brand recall including a simple brand name, distinctive and meaningful words, verbal and sound associations of the product segment, the ability to elicit mental images, and the utilisation of sound qualities (e.g. resonances, morphemes, and phonemes). Universities worldwide belong to an increasingly saturated marketplace (Altbach 2004; Bunzel 2007). Therefore, it is imperative to employ high frequency words in the university marketplace, particularly for mid-level as opposed to high-level universities like Harvard, Cambridge, and Yale. Prospective students may experience difficulties remembering a university’s name if it has a longer set size.

Based on these findings, this research incorporated a new logotype with the actual name of the university (SIEU) for comparison with a fictional name as part of the visual stimuli in order to examine the effect. It is inappropriate for an average university such as SIEU to be compared with well-established names like Harvard or MIT. Thus, it should be clear that the aim of this study is to explore significant differences in perception when applying different names to an identical university’s logo and logotype, and not to explicitly compare two distinct universities with their actual names.

Although the literature discussed previously indicates that a shorter name potentially increases brand recall, retaining the authenticity of the university's name is imperative for a live research project such as this one. Another important reason for this is the historic significance of this university to many senior people within Malaysia. Not only was it instrumental in their education, it was also a key focus of Malay nationalism that led to the rebirth of modern Malaysia. In brief, removal of the term ‘education’ would
be politically unacceptable. Thus, the researcher has no intention of excluding the word ‘education’ from the logotype while maintaining the same ‘look and feel’ of the logos used as visual stimuli in this study.

3: Does the influence of the logo on perception differ according to gender?

The third research question is supplementary to the two previous research questions. Selecting the right human model for the pre-selected technique (Room Effect) is crucial, and the effect of the background setting (university’s logo and name) should be tested on both males and females.

Buss (1989), in an influential cross-cultural study across a large sample of 37 different cultures in six different continents, including five islands, intended to unfold the human mate preferences theory. He observed that females rate male resource acquisition higher than males as a desirable quality in a potential mate. In contrast, males rate female reproductive capacity higher than females as a desirable quality in a potential mate. In other words, women are more concerned with the material status and stability of men, while men are simply attracted to the physical characteristics and youthfulness of women. Additionally, women have a higher preference for long-term commitment in a mate because they are largely responsible for producing and nurturing offspring, while men are less invested in parenting and prioritise producing more offspring. Therefore, men are biased towards having short-term mates and multiple partners (see more about parental investment theory by Fisher (1930); Trivers (1972); and Williams (1975)).

Contradictory to the argument of biological evolution, social role theory has raised the criticism that the former neglects the interaction between the broader functions of the social and cultural environment (Eagly & Wood 1999; Johannesen-Schmidt & Eagly 2002). According to social role theory, the motivation underlying mate preference reflects efforts to maximise social and financial stability, as constrained by gendered social roles, including marital roles (Eagly 1987). Thus, men and women inhabit marital and family roles with different responsibilities and obligations, and a mate would be chosen according to these social pre-requisites (Eagly & Wood 1999). Eagly and Wood (1999) also argue that there is a significant interaction between social constructions and biological conditions that may influence the roles held by each gender given that men and women have different capabilities in relation to particular activities. For example, the mediation of occupational distribution by social stereotypes may mean
that males are more likely to be successful in economic wage-earning roles and women are more likely to be successful in domestic roles (Johannesen-Schmidt & Eagly 2002).

This research does not intend to extend debates on the theory of human mate preferences, either from evolutionary or social structure perspectives. Both theories have reasonably established different bases for gender-differentiated behaviour based on biological and environmental factors. In the context of higher education, substantial evidence indicates that universities have changed the way they operate (Armstrong 2001; Brookes 2003; Gibbs 2007). Universities are fast becoming a commodity; a place of intellectual consumption (Shapiro 2009; Usher 2008). It is reasonable to say that both students and scholars attempt to increase their financial and social status by belonging to a particular institution. As a catalyst for employment and social positioning, occupations within universities may at times contain gender-biases.

Given these complexities, it was apparent that both genders should be included in the survey. The differences that could emerge as a result of gender, as respondents would be asked to report their perceptions of models associated with the university in terms of the degree of intelligence, attractiveness and trustworthiness, could contribute to some interesting outcomes and discussions.

These additional questions are most likely to be interwoven and need not tested separately. There may be a main effect for each item or an interaction between the logo and the name, as well as a gender effect; this research sets out to explore plausible answers.

Quantitative Survey Method

Prior to the selection of a preferred research method, the researcher identified the key related theories and formulated the additional research questions. Surveys are commonly used for gathering data in quantitative studies, particularly in the social sciences. In this research, a pilot study using a paper-based survey was conducted to determine feasibility and to improve research design before carrying out a large-scale survey. The pilot study is a valuable tool to establish “the face validity of an instrument and to improve questions, format, and scales“ (Creswell 1994 p. 121). Furthermore, administering a pilot study with a small convenience sample can provide a snap shot of the final result, as well as a set of data for comparison with the actual test.
The pilot study sampling was based on a potential international student population, to measure their attitudes towards the CVI of SIEU. Thus, prospective foreign students for a Malaysian university with a minimum age of 18 were recruited. Malaysian students were excluded, as they would be considered local respondents. Participants were all first year undergraduate students in the Faculty of Design, Swinburne University of Technology, Australia.

Once the research instrument was deemed feasible, the actual study (online survey) was administered via the Swinburne Faculty of Design website. An introduction section containing a consent letter, a brief research description, contact details, and instructions for answering the survey, accompanied in both surveys. Empirical evidence shows no significant differences in terms of respondents’ preferences for paper-based or online surveys (Hancock & Flowers 2001). However, the online survey offers advantages such as access to a wider range and larger number of respondents as it has few geographical and physical limitations. Chapter Seven contains further discussion of participants, procedures, and analysis for both the paper-based and online survey.

Research Instrument

A self-completion questionnaire was selected as the research instrument. Two types of questionnaire were administered, a paper-based questionnaire for the pilot test, and an online questionnaire for the actual study. A postal questionnaire was deemed unsuitable. Self-completion surveys reduce the risk of a ‘social desirability bias’ from respondents, which can distort answers if people attempt to conform to social norms in the presence of an interviewer (Bryman 2008; Neuman 2003). However, it should be noted that a disadvantage of the self-completion questionnaire is that it provides no assistance, and confusion and low response rates may occur (Bryman 2008).

Essentially, questions are generated by conceptualising and operationalising the variables emerging from the research questions (Neuman 2003). In this research, questions were closed-ended to encourage participants to fully complete the survey, and to avoid lengthy responses and extra pages. Other areas requiring consideration were question sequence, including organisation of the overall questionnaire, and potential question order and context effects (Neuman 2003).

Questions in this survey were mainly developed from the four pillars of Times Higher Education (THE) – World Universities Rankings methodology (figure 6.3), along with selected items from brand personality scales for non-profit organisations.
The brand personality scale was first introduced by Aaker (1997) and based on earlier psychological studies that defined basic human personality traits, also known as the ‘Big Five’. The brand personality model reduces the large number of possible adjectives for human characteristics associated with a brand to five basic traits – sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness (while the ‘Big Five’ personality traits are extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness). This scale offers a reliable, justifiable, and generalisable dimension for brand measurement (Aaker 1997).

Brand personality has been cited in much marketing and branding literature and arguably become a key feature for measuring brand performance (Donahay & Rosenberger 2007; Grohmann 2009; Mulyanegara, Tsarenko & Anderson 2009; Rajagopal 2006). However, Aaker’s brand personality scale has also been criticised as being too loose and conceptually confusing (Azoulay & Kapferer 2003). Other studies have argued that Aaker’s brand personality dimension failed to include non-profit brands in developing the scale, thus calling for the development of a new scale (Bennett & Gabriel 2000; Venable et al. 2005; Voeth & Herbst 2008).
Venable et al. (2005) thus identified four-factor scales in the non-profit sector, more specifically charitable organisations. Two were consistent with Aaker’s original brand personality scales – sophistication and ruggedness - and two new scales emerged – integrity (e.g. honest, positive influence, committed to the public good, reputable, and reliable) and nurturance (e.g. compassionate, caring, and loving).

Empirical evidence found Aaker’s scale inadequate when applied to brand personalities tested on a number of different non-profit organisations in Germany (Voeth & Herbst 2008). Neither Aaker’s brand personality scale nor the existing non-profit scale can provide clear measurements in relation to HE. Therefore, as indicated earlier, questions in the survey were developed according to THE – World Universities Rankings evaluation scales, such as teaching quality, research quality, graduate employability, and international outlook, with the exception of three additional questions adopted from brand personality items; trustworthiness, intelligence, and attractiveness.

**The Room Effect**

Research in environmental psychology indicates that the characteristics of a room setting are transferred onto its occupant. An old room would be associated with an elderly occupant and a stylish room with a trendy occupant. Canter, West, and Wools (1974) originally established the term ‘Room Effect’ by conducting a series of experiments using graded stimuli starting from simple line-drawings, followed by coloured slides, and finally complex superimposed photographs (figure 6.5). These experiments led to the conclusion that the judgment of a person differs according to the room in which a person is seen.

Maslow and Mintz (1956) observed a similar result in an earlier study, linking the characteristics of a room with judgments of people’s faces associated with the room. Similarly, a close relationship was found between the interior appearance of a professor’s room and the presumed characteristics of the professor who would be located in that room (Campbell 1979). Later, Wilson, and Mackanzie (2000) noticed that people infer the social and personal characteristics of a person (e.g. age, occupation, wealth, hobbies, and lifestyles) simply from his or her living room interiors. People search for cues from the surroundings to form judgments about a person with whom they are unfamiliar, and people’s interactions within an environment are congruent with the expected behavior of others in that environment.
Over a century ago, Thorsten Veblen wrote, in *The Theory of the Leisure Class* (1899), that the objects we possess communicate aspects of personality, class, and aspiration. He invented the term *conspicuous consumption*, remarking that the “unproductive consumption of goods is honorable, primarily as a mark of prowess and a perquisite of human dignity...[and] in itself” (p. 43). Goffman was later influenced by this view, publishing a book entitled: *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* in 1959. He described the role of objects in social positioning, and saw the living room as a stage in which people performed for their guests. For Goffman the person in this situation is a ‘performer’, and the scenery or stage props (e.g. furniture, décor, and object arrangement) the ‘setting’. Goffman argued that consistency of setting, appearance, and manner is required for the ‘performance’ to be successful. Such coherence represents an ideal condition that stimulates the attention and interest of the audience (Goffman 1959).

However, the above-mentioned studies were largely interested in the formation of first impressions, relying on only two of these factors (setting and appearance) and omitting the third – manner. Empirical evidence exists for the importance of all three factors (Laumann & House 1970), and theorists of the materials culture fraternity have since extended the proposition. Such theories support the phenomenon of the Room Effect.

Although the Room Effect has been extensively investigated using photographs of interiors and architecture, to determine the effect of surroundings on the perception of the person appearing in a given photograph, the effect of other forms of association, including with CVIs, has not been studied. Given that CVIs or logos can be seen almost everywhere including name cards, stationery, liveries, periodicals, and other promotional items, as well as the environment, such as signboards; it is highly likely that CVI also acts as a setting. Using similar methods to those originally employed in this field, the focus of this research will be upon the effects of university CVI on the people associated with it.
Stimulus Material

The independent variables are: logo (traditional and modern); name (fictional and actual); and gender (male and female). Therefore, eight possible combinations can be made. Two key visual attributes were identified as prerequisites to the formation of the visual stimuli: 1) Background/physical setting; and 2) Human model. CVIs were selected and incorporated as the background/physical setting. These CVIs were designed in the first phase of the study (see figure 6.5). Another set of CVIs, identical to the originals but using a fictional name, were added to the test. For the human model, a male and female were selected with Asian ethnicity and physical appearance to suit a Malaysian context, of appropriate age, and depicting a typical lecturer (refer to figure 6.6).

The lecturers (human models) were carefully selected by the research team for an average level of attractiveness; an overly attractive or handsome model will most likely confer good impressions regardless of environment. Substantial empirical evidence demonstrates that a single attribute, including glasses (Thornton 1944); lipstick (McKeachie 1952); types of clothing (Gibbins 1969); or brands of clothing (Fennis & Pruyn 2007); or multiple attributes including makeup and glasses (Hamid 1972); and glasses, facial expressions and photographic quality (Thornton 1943); can manipulate impressions. Ideally, in this test, the lecturer should not confer any additional or unnecessary attributions onto him or herself; lecturers should be as equal as possible in terms of age, outfit, and attractiveness. Each of the selected lecturers, both male and female, was shown from head-to-shoulder and superimposed on a number of different backgrounds/settings, which consisted of different sets of university's logos (traditional vs. modern) and names (fictional vs. actual).
Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations reflect a researcher’s sensitivity and professionalism with an emphasis on honesty and openness (Neuman 2003). Ethical issues can occur at any stage of a research project. As per common research practice, all research conducted through Swinburne University of Technology must first gain ethics approval from the university’s ethics committee, and this research was no exception. Several ethical matters arose in this research, such as clarifying the relationship between the two universities involved in the research – SIEU and Swinburne University of Technology, with the former university the subject of the survey, and the latter where the survey was administered.

Indeed, this research involved not just two universities but also two countries, Malaysia and Australia. Thus, it was crucial to explain that this research was part of a live project (as part of the Professional Doctorate requirement) supported by the Vice Chancellor (VC) of SIEU, and did not involve any research or government collaboration. This was to avoid any confusion or legal action between both institutions and countries. Any ethical matters that could potentially
adversely affect either the institutions or the countries while conducting this research needed to be avoided.

Permission to use the university’s logo (SIEU) in the survey was granted by the VC (see appendix A), along with the SUHERC ethics clearance (appendix B). Bryman (2008) highlights four major areas from which ethical misconduct potentially arises, particularly in the data collection stage, including harm to participants, lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy, and deception (p. 118).

To minimise these risks and follow standard ethics protocol, participants were reassured of their anonymity, that their participation was voluntary, and that they were free to stop at any stage of the survey. The required age of the respondents for the survey was set at 18 and above. Instructions on how to complete the survey and a brief description of the research were also included in the informed consent document and attached with the questionnaire (appendix D). All the data including hard (print outs) and soft copies (digital) were kept in a secure research data store or under password protection on a computer at the university.

Summary

Formulating the main research question and additional research questions, selecting a proper method and technique, and developing questionnaires and stimuli, are the crucial phases of planning. These were explained in this chapter. The following chapters will present the actual procedures of data collection, analysis and results of two variations of the survey; a paper-based survey for the pilot test and an online survey for the actual test. Due to the nature of this research, namely, the fact that the selected technique (Room Effect) has never being tested in a similar fashion, the results should be considered largely as exploratory. However, the pilot study could possibly offer results for comparison with the online survey, as well as acting as a foundation for the construction of the actual test. Thus, the actual test could potentially be validated by the initial findings from the pilot study and used as a confirmation for this research.
Chapter 7
Pilot Research – Paper-based Survey

This chapter presents the preliminary investigation of the main and additional research questions in the pilot study. The selection of method (Room Effect) and research instrument (paper-based survey) for this study was discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter reports the administration, data analysis, results, and discussion of findings of the pilot test.

Respondents

Respondents consisted of 50 undergraduate students who were taking summer classes in the Faculty of Design, Swinburne University of Technology, Australia. Students were predominantly from design-related backgrounds, along with a few from other faculties who were taking the class as an elective. The majority of the students were Australian, with a small number of international students, including from Indonesia, Singapore, and Thailand. No Malaysian students participated in the survey. Gender was evenly distributed amongst respondents at a ratio of 50:50. 88 per cent of the students were between the ages of 18 and 25.

Questionnaire

Data were collected via self-completion questionnaires, divided into eight sets with each containing a different set of stimuli (three independent variables: logo, name, and gender), with 16 questions or dependent variables for each set, and two questions regarding respondents’ age and gender. The 16 questions used a nine-point Likert scale, from ‘Disagree’ to ‘Agree’.

Questions were largely based on the Times Higher Education (THE) – World Universities Rankings methodology, which consists of four themes: research quality, teaching quality, graduate employment, and international outlook. The content of the questions was distributed evenly amongst these themes, with three questions pertaining to each of them, along with one pertaining specifically to ‘world-class university’. The additional three questions concerned personality (attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent). All information used in this analysis was derived from questionnaire data, compiled from questions in relation to different sets of visual stimuli. The following table (7.1) lists the questions:
Table 7.1: Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Question/Item</th>
<th>Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic</td>
<td><strong>D1. Your Age</strong></td>
<td>Open-ended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>D2. Your Gender</strong></td>
<td>Dual choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>**P1. She/He is physically <strong>attractive</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**P2. I can rely on her/him: She/He looks <strong>trustworthy</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**P3. She/He is highly <strong>intelligent</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Quality</td>
<td><strong>R1. She/He has written many scholarly books</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**R2. She/He has many <strong>grants</strong> from government and industry to support his/her research</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**R3. She/He is a good <strong>supervisor for her research students</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Quality</td>
<td>**T1. She/He is an <strong>excellent teacher</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**T2. She/He has a <strong>genuine interest in her/his students</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**T3. She/He is good at <strong>motivating students</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Employment</td>
<td>**G1. Her/His students are highly <strong>sought after by employers</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**G2. When her/his students graduate they get <strong>high positions</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**G3. There is strong <strong>alumni support for her/his university</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Outlook</td>
<td>**I1. She/He has many <strong>students from overseas</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**I2. She/He has participated in many <strong>international conferences</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**I3. She/He <strong>collaborates with overseas universities</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World-class University</td>
<td>**W1. She/He belongs to a <strong>world-class university</strong></td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Stimulus Material**

The stimulus materials were high quality photographic images of people or a lecturer and university logos. Adopting a similar format to that Canter (1977) used to investigate the Room Effect, the present research used head-and-shoulder portraits with university logos as backgrounds. Eight different combinations of visual stimuli were shown to the respondents. The following table (7.2) and figure (7.1) lists the combinations of independent variables presented in the visual stimuli:
Table 7.2: Stimuli with eight different combinations of independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Human Model</th>
<th>Logo</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>SIEU*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>SIEU*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>SIEU*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>SIEU*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* SIEU is an acronym of Sultan Idris Education University
Procedure

The students were given four sets of questionnaires during the first half of their class, and the last four sets during the second half. The first four sets of the questionnaire consisted of stimuli with a fictional university name, while the last four sets displayed the actual university name. Exposing the actual name of the university at the beginning of the survey may have affected the respondents’ judgments before they even began answering the questions. Thus, the order of the procedure was intended to reduce the risk of a premature ‘name effect’. Each page of the questionnaire came with one visual stimulus. All pages were of similar printing quality and all images were highly visible. The short statement, ‘**this lecturer is standing in the foyer of his/her university. Can you give your impression of him/her by answering the questions?**’ was presented underneath each visual stimulus to create a situational context. The context statement was added to explain the relationship between the lecturer and the CVI of the university. Overall, it took approximately 20 minutes for the respondents to complete all of the questionnaires.
Statistical Analysis

The SPSS software package was used for the statistical analysis. 50 cases were examined. All cases with more than 30 per cent of the data missing were excluded, and those with less than 30 per cent missing were inputted using the Expectation-Maximisation (EM) algorithm in SPSS. Prior to statistical analysis, an initial data screening was performed. Results indicated that all variables or items were approximately normally distributed.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on 13 questionnaire items, to examine the extent to which they could be simplified or grouped together (Ford, MacCallum & Tait 1986). The three items pertaining to personality (attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent) were excluded as different segments of the study that required separate analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis is a statistical technique that enables the researcher to observe patterns underlying correlations across a number of variables (Acton & Miller 2009). The objective of this technique is to reduce or simplify the number of items that have common features of association (correlations), and to establish the underlying relationships amongst groups of items, producing a simple structure.

Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed using Principle Axis Factoring extraction and Direct Oblimin with Kaizer Normalization rotation. Results from Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity show a high value of .934, with a significance level of < .001, indicating that the items can be grouped and are appropriate for Factor Analysis.

Once the extraction process was completed, results indicated only one factor with eigenvalues > 1, which accounted for 56 per cent of the variance. The results of the Factor Analysis are presented in table 7.3:
### Table 7.3: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Total Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.635</td>
<td>58.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>6.730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>6.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>5.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>4.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>3.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td>3.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td>2.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>2.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.259</td>
<td>1.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>1.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>1.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>1.314</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Extraction method using Principal Axis Factoring.*

In order to correctly determine the number of factors, a *Scree Plot* was used to plot the *eigenvalues* and provide a visual representation for factor selection. The *Scree Plot* graph plots *eigenvalue* against factor number and is used to select the number of factors. As presented in the following figure (7.2), only one factor accounts for a large amount of the total variance.
The Total Variance Explained and Scree Plot confirmed that only one factor could be retrieved. To ensure a strong correlation, items loading with an absolute value of .500 or more were used to describe the factor (Costello & Osborne 2005). In this case, all 13 items were above .500, as shown in the Factor Matrix (table 7.4). The analysis indicated that all 13 items could be simplified into one factor, from which a single scale was obtained and named ‘HE reputation’ (HE is an acronym for Higher Education).

Cronbach’s Alpha was used to test the internal reliability of the scale created from the Exploratory Factor Analysis. Essentially, this test calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients (Cronbach 1951). Alpha levels can range from 0 (indicating no internal reliability) to 1 (indicating high internal reliability). The scales were considered reliable when the Alpha was equal to or greater than .700 (Cortina 1993).

As shown in table 7.5, a highly satisfactory Alpha level of .939 was achieved in this test. A normality test was performed using Skewness and Kurtosis with the results of $\sqrt{\beta_1} = -.201$ and $\beta_2 = -.200$ respectively, indicating that a normal distribution was attained (Mardia 1970).
### Table 7.4: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Factor Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Matrix&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Employment</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent Teacher</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate High Position</td>
<td>.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences</td>
<td>.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Grants</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumni</td>
<td>.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Interest</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World-class University</td>
<td>.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Overseas</td>
<td>.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published Books</td>
<td>.583</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> One factor extracted. Four iterations required.

### Table 7.5: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Descriptive Statistics of 'HE Reputation' scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE Reputation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Exploratory Factor Analysis simplified all 13 items, based on THE – World Universities Rankings methodology, into a single scale. The HE reputation scale and three individual scales from the personality traits (attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent) were used as dependent variables for the next steps of statistical analysis.

Analysis of Variance

In order to test the effect of multiple independent variables, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on each of the dependent variables. The dependent variables were: HE reputation, attractive, trustworthy and intelligent. The intention was to test the level of influence each had upon perceptions. The following table (7.6) illustrates the significant main effects and interactions obtained.

Table 7.6: Mixed ANOVA results, significant effects and interactions
Three within-subjects factors were included in the analysis; logo (traditional and modern), name (fictional and SIEU), and model gender (male and female), as well as one between-subjects factor (respondent gender). The above results demonstrated significant interactions as well as main effects extracted from the mixed ANOVA. These results are illustrated as plots in the following section.

**Results**

The results indicate no significant four-way interactions. For three-way interactions, HE reputation shows a significantly high interaction between name, logo, and gender ($F(1, 48) = 8.960, p = .004$, partial $\eta^2 = .157$). The HE reputation scale, already simplified from thirteen questionnaire items into a single scale through Exploratory Factor Analysis, includes four themes; research quality, teaching quality, graduate employment, and international outlook. The large number of items that this scale represents may explain why such a complex three-way interaction was obtained. As indicated in the following (figure 7.3), the HE reputation for the female lecturers with the modern logo and fictional name was perceived as higher than with the modern logo and actual name of the university (SIEU). On the other hand, the difference between the perceived HE reputation for the fictional name and the actual name, when appearing with the female lecturer and traditional logo, was hardly noticeable.

For the male lecturers (figure 7.3), both logo and name had clear effects, favouring the combination of the traditional logo and fictional name over the modern logo and actual name. Thus, the HE reputation in relation to logo and name was perceived very differently depending on the presence of a male or female lecturer.
Figure 7.3: Repeated Measures output for HE Reputation – Logo and Name for Gender

As indicated in the previous table (7.6), attractive and intelligent scales indicate high levels of significance for the main effect with the exception of trustworthy, which approaches significance ($F(1,48) = 3.918$, $p = .054$). Intelligence shows the highest significant main effect of all the scales tested ($F(1, 48) = 15.995$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .250$). The partial eta squared denotes a highly significant effect size.
As shown in the above (figure 7.4), lecturers were perceived as more intelligent when associated with the traditional university logo as opposed to the modern university logo. A name effect is also present in the intelligent scale with a slightly significant main effect (F (1, 48) = 4.173, p = .047, partial $\eta^2 = .080$), favouring the fictional name over the Sultan Idris Education University (SIEU).

For the attractive scale, the result revealed a highly significant main effect for gender (F (1, 48) = 11.614, p = .001, partial $\eta^2 = .195$). As shown in the following (figures 7.5), both male and female respondents perceived the female lecturer as more attractive than the male lecturer. Regardless of the backgrounds, the respondents judged the female lecturer as more attractive.
Figure 7.5 suggests that a gender effect predominates. For both male and female respondents, the female lecturers with the traditional logo were rated slightly higher than with the modern logo. Conversely, the male lecturer was rated slightly higher when appearing with the modern logo compared to the traditional logo.

**Interpretation of the Results**

These initial findings from the pilot test suggest that CVI has a significant effect on the perceptions of people associated with it, in this case, lecturers associated with their university's CVI. Logo and brand name are essential elements of CVI and play an important role in
people’s judgments of intelligence (logo and name), HE reputation (logo, name, and gender), and possibly trustworthiness (name) and attractiveness (gender and logo).

The additional research questions, which focus on the comparison of two sets within the same category (traditional vs. modern for logo, fictional vs. actual for name, and male vs. female for model gender), emerged as promising. In the case of traditional vs. modern logo, the traditional logo was more highly associated with intelligence compared to the modern logo. As previously discussed (see discussion in Quantitative Research chapter), traditional logos or heraldry are closely associated with well-established universities, such as Harvard, Princeton, Yale, Cambridge, and Oxford, who use heraldry as part of their CVI. The preliminary results from the pilot study suggest that heraldry emanates intelligence, and thus has the potential to elevate the perceived status of universities.

In the increasingly competitive market of HE providers, being perceived as more intelligent than other institutions is a clear advantage. The findings regarding perceived intelligence is a strong outcome of this test that show the potential for substantiation of a ‘CVI Effect’ in further studies. The traditional logo conferred a positive effect on the attractiveness of the female lecturer, as well as on HE reputation for the male lecturer. On the other hand, the modern logo conferred a positive effect on the attractiveness of the male lecturer, and to some extent on the HE reputation for the female lecturer in the presence of the fictional university name. In general, however, the traditional logo conferred more positive effects on the perceptions of those associated with it than the modern logo.

The fictional name was preferred over the actual name, which was the Sultan Idris Education University (SIEU), in several instances including intelligence, trustworthiness, and to some extent HE reputation (in the combinations of female lecturer and modern logo, and male lecturer and traditional logo). These results suggest that the actual name of the university portrayed a negative image. Given that the fictional name had the same word length and logotype design as the actual university name, this negative effect can only be attributed to the meaning of the actual name. The presence of the word ‘education’ in the university’s name may position the institution as a teacher training institution, thus suggesting a ‘lesser’ area of scholarship. The university may therefore have been perceived as limited, without being seen to pursue deep scholarship.

Alternately, the negative response to the actual name may simply be due to the fact that the Australian respondents were not familiar with the university, particularly given their design backgrounds. Although the SIEU has its own Faculty of Arts and Design, this faculty does not have an international presence that would be recognised by Australian respondents. Even so,
the focus of this research is upon the formation of first impressions, rather than the legacy of the institution or the past experience of students. The findings indicate that the current university name certainly requires serious consideration.

With regard to gender differentiation, the attractiveness scale provided the most substantial result; both male and female respondents rated the female lecturer as more attractive than the male lecturer. This may be because the particular female lecturer selected for the stimulus material was simply more physically appealing than the male lecturer. However, there may also have been a concession among respondents based on occupational gender stereotypes in HE (Eagly & Wood 1999). The teaching and nurturing often associated with feminine qualities may confer a female lecturer with more appeal than a male lecturer. However, at this stage, there is no clear evidence to support this argument. While further investigation into this area is not possible in this particular study, a future study could target this particular phenomenon.

Summary

The findings from the pilot test were promising. However, some limitations were identified that need to be addressed. Firstly, the sample size was relatively small, and represented only one country (Australia). Therefore, a larger sample in terms of country of origin and number of participants was required for generalisations to be made. Secondly, considering the number of visual stimuli that were quite similar to one another and appeared repeatedly, the pilot survey may have produced a ‘carryover effect’ (Altmann 2004). Participants’ answers may have been influenced by previous image sets they remembered, along with the actual image presented at any given point in the survey. A counter-balancing of the survey order was deliberately not performed in order to minimise a premature name effect. It was decided to resolve this matter in the online survey by exposing each participant to only one set of the questionnaires and visual stimuli. This would then require a different statistical analysis from the pilot test. For the actual test, an online survey was administered by replicating the research design from the pilot test and considering all of the independent and dependent variables, in line with the matters discussed above. The procedures, analysis, and further discussion regarding the actual study are presented in the following chapter.
This chapter presents the core findings of this research for the main and additional research questions investigated in the online survey. The pilot test (discussed in the previous chapter) was deemed feasible and used to improve research design before the larger scale online survey was conducted. The following discusses the method for the online survey, as well as administration of the survey, data analysis, results, and discussion of significant findings.
Online Survey

Researchers across a wide range of social science disciplines have benefited from the Internet as a research medium/technology (Fielding, Lee & Blank 2008). The advantages of administering a survey via the Internet, compared to conventional paper-based surveys, are readily apparent in terms of administration time and cost, and the provision of rapid response rates (Dibb, Rushmer & Stern 2001; Hayslett & Wildemuth 2004). Evans and Mathur (2005) see major strengths as well as major potential weaknesses in conducting online surveys. The major strengths that are relevant to the present research include; global reach, convenience, ease of data entry, low administration cost, flexible time parameters for participants, ease of follow-up, large easy to obtain samples, control over answer order, and required completion of answers. On the other hand, major potential downsides are; perceptions of surveys as junk mail, skewed attributes of Internet populations (e.g. middle-class and male), difficulties with sampling a specific population, respondents possible lack of online experience, technological variations, possible unclear answering instructions, impersonal, and low response rates.

Kellar et al. (2008) argue that when dealing with such complex areas as user behaviour, the Internet can offer a more reliable measure of natural behaviours than a controlled laboratory setting. Physical environments and web browsers are familiar, and respondents can carry out tasks on their own without being monitored by researchers, thus eliminating social desirability biases. Furthermore, administering the survey through a university's website was intended to avoid other potential Internet-related problems, such as lack of online knowledge and problems due to technological variations found in previous research (Dibb, Rushmer & Stern 2001; Evans & Mathur 2005; Smith et al. 2007). The prerequisite for site use was of a high standard (e.g. user's online knowledge, computer specification, and download speed). The capacity for global reach with considerably low maintenance benefited this research. Other aspects of practical design for the online survey that were considered during this research included font size, space, screen image resolution, layout, format, navigation, pace, and download access, as suggested by Bryman (2008); Evans and Mathur (2005); and Fielding, Lee and Blank (2008).

Respondent

The survey generated 888 responses (N = 888, 608 men, 276 women, four gender unreported). About 30 per cent of the total responses were excluded due to insufficient data, when more than 10 per cent of data were missing. A high rate of incomplete responses is considered common for online data gathering (Evans & Mathur 2005).
Many more males than females participated, with males comprising 68.5 per cent of respondents, and females 31 per cent, and with only .5 per cent of missing gender data. More than 56 per cent of participants were between the ages of 18 and 29, and over 24 per cent between the ages of 30 and 39. Data were gathered from over 100 countries worldwide. Four countries were the source of more than half of the overall respondents: Australia (17.2 per cent), India (15.1 per cent), US (15.1 per cent) and UK (6.9 per cent). The following figure (8.1) illustrates the distribution of countries.

![Figure 8.1: Respondents' country of origins and percentages](image)

**Questionnaire**

Data were collected via eight sets of self-completion questionnaires, each one presenting a different set of stimuli (three independent variables: logo, name, and gender), and consisting of 16 questions (dependent variables), with two further questions regarding respondent age and gender. The 16 questions used a nine-point Likert scale, from 'Disagree' to 'Agree'. The following table (8.1) lists the questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Question/Item</th>
<th>Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic</td>
<td>D1. Your Age</td>
<td>Open-ended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D2. Your Gender</td>
<td>Dual choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>P1. She/He is physically attractive</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2. I can rely on her/him: She/He looks trustworthy</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P3. She/He is highly intelligent</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Quality</td>
<td>R1. She/He has written many scholarly books</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2. She/He has many grants from government and industry to support his/her research</td>
<td>9-point scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the pilot study, questions were largely based on the Times Higher Education (THE) – World Universities Rankings methodology, which consists of four themes: research quality, teaching quality, graduate employment, and international outlook. Three additional questions were based on services brand personality scales; attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent. All information used in this analysis was derived from the questionnaire data, from responses to questions in relation to different sets of visual stimuli according to the pilot survey.

**Stimulus Material**

Eight different combinations of visual stimuli or independent variables were presented to respondents. The following table (8.2) and figures (8.2) summarises the independent variables and combinations presented:

**Table 8.2: Stimuli with eight different combinations of independent variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Human Model</th>
<th>Logo</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Fictional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Female  | Modern  | Fictional
4. Male    | Modern  | Fictional
5. Female  | Traditional | SIEU*
6. Male    | Traditional | SIEU*
7. Female  | Modern  | SIEU*
8. Male    | Modern  | SIEU*

Note: * SIEU is an acronym of Sultan Idris Education University
Procedure

The online survey was presented by way of a ‘pop-up’ window linked to existing free online tutorials developed by the Faculty of Design at Swinburne University of Technology. Internal webmasters confirmed that this website was already attracting people from all over the world, mainly to download learning materials. Data were collected over a period of eight months. Given that the survey was a newly developed online system, a three-month trial test was conducted prior to the actual data collection.

Each respondent was given only one set of the questionnaires, consisting of 18 questions. All images were highly visible and a short statement: ‘This lecturer is standing in the foyer of his/her university. Can you give your impression of him/her by answering the questions?’ was presented underneath the visual stimulus to create a situational context. The context statement intended to explain the relationship between the human model and the CVI of the university. Overall, it took approximately five minutes to complete a single set of the survey.

An external web specialist and internal web consultant were brought into the research team to develop and ensure the efficiency of the online survey. To encourage participation and survey completion, a small incentive was offered, the chance of winning an iPod Touch (valued at $249 RRP). This was added to the ethics protocol.

Upon introduction to the survey, respondents were given the choice to participate or decline, followed by a consent letter approved by the Swinburne University Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC). Respondents under the age of 18 were
excluded from the survey. The eight survey sets were randomised, with respondents receiving only one set when they decided to participate. The following figure (8.3) is an example of survey presentation.

![Survey Presentation Example](image)

Figure 8.3: Example of the survey’s pop-up window

**Statistical Analysis**

The SPSS software package was used for statistical analysis. 888 samples (N = 888) were examined, and all cases with more than 10 per cent missing data were excluded. Remaining missing data were imputed using the Expectation-Maximisation (EM) algorithm available in SPSS. An initial data screening was performed prior to selected statistical analysis. Results indicated that all variables or items were approximately normally distributed, and thus amenable to the use of parametric statistical analysis.

**Exploratory Factor Analysis**

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the 13 questionnaire items. The three personality items (attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent) were excluded as representing different segments of the study that required separate analysis.
Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed using *Principle Axis Factoring* along with a *Direct Oblimin* rotation. Results from *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)* and *Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity* produced a high value of .960, with a significance level of < .001, indicating that the items could be grouped and were appropriate for Factor Analysis. The results indicated that a single factor accounted for 54.946 per cent of the variance to be extracted from all items. Result are presented in table 8.3:

**Table 8.3: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Total Variance Explained**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.584</td>
<td>58.336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.795</td>
<td>6.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>5.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>4.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td>3.948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.456</td>
<td>3.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>3.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td>3.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>2.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.351</td>
<td>2.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.347</td>
<td>2.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>2.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>1.836</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Extraction method using Principal Axis Factoring.

To verify the number of factors, a *Scree Plot* was used to plot the *eigenvalues* and provide a visual representation for the factor selection. The *Scree Plot* graph plots *eigenvalue* against factor number, and was used to determine the number of factors. As presented in figure 8.4, a single factor accounts for a large amount of the total variance.
The Total Variance Explained and Scree Plot confirmed that only one factor was retrieved. To ensure a strong correlation, items loaded with an absolute value equal to or greater than .500 were used to describe the factor (Costello & Osborne 2005). All 13 items were above .500, as shown in the Factor Matrix (table 8.4).

The analysis indicated that all 13 items could be simplified into one factor from which a single scale was derived. Given that the current and previous Factor Analysis (pilot test) obtained similar results, the same name was chosen for the scale as in the pilot test, ‘HE reputation’ (HE is an acronym for Higher Education).

Table 8.4: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Factor Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Matrix*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cronbach’s Alpha was used to test the internal reliability of the scale created from the Exploratory Factor Analysis. Essentially, the test calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients (Cronbach 1951). The alpha levels can vary between 0 (indicating no internal reliability) and 1 (indicating high internal reliability). The scales were considered reliable when the Alpha was equal to or greater than .700 (Cortina 1993). In this test, a highly satisfactory Alpha level of .940 was obtained. A normality test was performed using Skewness and Kurtosis, with results of $\sqrt{\beta_1} = .023$ and $\beta_2 = -.332$ respectively, indicating a normal distribution (Mardia 1970). Table 8.5 presents these results.

Table 8.5: Exploratory Factor Analysis output, Descriptive Statistics of ‘HE Reputation’ scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervision</th>
<th>.803</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conferences</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent Teacher</td>
<td>.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Interest</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Position</td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumni</td>
<td>.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World-class University</td>
<td>.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Grants</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published Books</td>
<td>.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overseas Students</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * One factor extracted. Three iterations required.
The Exploratory Factor Analysis collapsed all 13 items, based on THE – World Universities Rankings methodology, into a single scale. This scale (HE reputation) along with individual scales from the personality traits (attractive, trustworthy, and intelligent), were used as dependent variables for the next stage of statistical analysis.

### Analysis of Variance

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on several dependent variables to test the effect of multiple independent variables. The dependent variables were: HE reputation, attractive, trustworthy and intelligent. The intention was to test the level of influence each had upon perception and to confirm the findings obtained in the pilot research. Three between-subjects factors were included in the analysis: logo (traditional and modern), name (fictional and SIEU), and gender (male and female).

The following table (8.6) demonstrates the significant interactions as well as the main effects extracted from the Univariate ANOVA. Plots are used to illustrate these results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HE Reputation</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>5.1970</td>
<td>1.62434</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>-.332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

( Supervision + Students Employment + Teacher + Graduate High Position + Conferences + Research Grants + Genuine + Alumni + World-Class University + Motivation + Collaboration + Student Overseas + Books)

Valid N (listwise) 888
The results presented in table 8.6 show that a significant two-way interaction and main effect was obtained on each dependent scale: HE reputation (name, logo); attractive (gender, name and logo); trustworthy (name, logo and gender); and intelligent (name and logo, logo and gender).

HE reputation showed significant main effects for both name and logo. The level of significance for logo is only slightly below threshold (F (1, 881) = 3.817, p = .051, partial $\eta^2 = .004$), and therefore can still be considered relevant in this study. As illustrated in figure 8.5, the traditional logo was perceived more favourably than the modern logo.

As presented in figure 8.6, the actual university name, Sultan Idris Education University or SIEU, confers more positive effects on HE reputation than the fictional name (F (1, 881) = 5.630, p = .018, partial $\eta^2 = .018$). In other words, a genuine university name confers higher positive responses to people associated with it than a fictional name.
A significant two-way interaction between name and logo (F (1, 881) = 4.012, p = .045, partial $\eta^2 = .005$) was obtained for the attractive scale. The traditional logo with the fictional name, and the modern logo with the actual name were rated more favourably than the other two combinations (modern logo with fictional name, and traditional logo with actual name). See figure 8.7.
A highly significant main effect for attractive was also obtained for gender (F (1, 881) = 20.822, p = < .001, partial η² = .023), with the female lecturer favoured over the male lecturer (figure 8.8).

![Figure 8.7: Univariate ANOVA output for Attractive – Name and Logo](image)

For the intelligent scale, shown in figures 8.9 and 8.10, a significant two-way interaction was achieved between both name and logo (F (1, 881) = 6.069, p = .014, partial η² = .007), and between gender and logo (F (1, 881) = 7.328, p = .007, partial η² = .008).

![Figure 8.8: Univariate ANOVA output for Attractive – Gender](image)
For the interaction between name and logo, the intelligent scale showed a similar pattern of results to the attractive scale; the combination of traditional logo and fictional name, and modern logo and actual name were favoured. For interactions between gender and logo, the male lecturer with the traditional logo, and the female lecturer with the modern logo were preferred.

Figure 8.9: Univariate ANOVA output for Intelligent – Name and Logo

For the trustworthy scale, a significant two-way interaction between gender and logo was obtained \( (F (1, 881) = 5.393, p = .020, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .006) \), as presented in figure 8.11. While the difference in preferences for the female lecturer with either logo was
hardly noticeable, stronger results were found for the male lecturer: the male lecturer was clearly preferred when appearing with the traditional logo compared to the modern logo. A significant main effect was also achieved for trustworthiness in relation to name (F (1, 881) = 6.314, p = .012, partial $\eta^2 = .007$). Lecturers appearing with SIEU, the actual university name, were considered more trustworthy than lecturers appearing with the fictional name (figure 8.12).

Figure 8.11: Univariate ANOVA output for Trustworthy – Gender and Logo

Figure 8.12: Univariate ANOVA output for Trustworthy – Name
Interpretation of the Results

The Univariate ANOVA results confirmed some of the initial pilot findings in this research, as well as revealing a plausible answer to the research question: Does a Corporate Visual Identity (CVI), as the most visible tool in branding, have an effect on the perception of people associated with it?

Evidence from both the pilot and actual surveys suggest that CVI clearly does have an effect on the perception of people associated with it. The findings suggest that different logos and brand names, as part of the CVI, can impact upon judgements of the same person. For brand name, the actual university name (SIEU) was generally preferred in relation to HE reputation, trustworthiness, and to some extent intelligence and attractiveness (when combined with the modern logo). On the other hand, the fictional name was only preferred, in terms of perceived attractiveness and intelligence of the models, when presented with the traditional logo. This aspect of the research findings has its own justification, despite not being supported by the findings from the pilot research, which favoured the fictional name.

The pilot survey allowed respondents to make a conscious comparison between the two names because they were exposed to all sets of stimuli, rather than only a single set. Given that respondents could recognise that both names could have represented the same university, the favourable result for the fictional name may have been related to negative responses to the term 'Education' in the actual name, as mentioned in the previous chapter. One of the limitations of the pilot survey may have been a 'carryover effect' (Altmann 2004). The respondents may have answered questions based on previous images that they remembered rather than the actual image presented for a given set. This may have compromised the results obtained in the pilot survey. In the actual survey, however, each respondent answered only one set of the questionnaires. When exposed to the fictional name, respondents had no idea whether or not the university actually exists. A plausible explanation for this discrepancy between the results for the two surveys may be that people are more favourably disposed towards a lecturer associated with a university that they believe exists rather than one that does not. Thus, in relation to the influence of university name on lecturer associated with it, findings from the pilot and actual surveys contradict one another.

In term of logo preferences, the male lecturer was rated more highly for intelligence and trustworthiness when associated with the traditional logo. In contrast, the female lecturer was rated more highly for the same scales when associated with the modern logo. Agreement was found between the attractiveness and intelligence scales for the combinations of traditional logo
and fictional name, and modern logo and actual name, as both were rated highly for these scales. Lecturers appearing with the traditional logo were also rated more favourably in relation to HE reputation, compared to lecturers appearing with the modern logo. In general, it is reasonable to say that the traditional logo was preferred over the modern logo.

The findings suggest relationships between the two distinct logo preferences and the large body of research on gender stereotypes in occupational distribution (see Eagly 1987; Glick, Wilk & Perreault 1995; Judd & Oswald 1997; Kmec 2005). The male lecturer was preferred when appearing with the traditional logo and fictional name, and the female lecturer when appearing with the modern logo and actual name. The former implies a gender stereotype in occupational distribution, whereby men customarily engaging in high-wage and high-status occupations (e.g. university lecturer) are associated with masculine personality traits (Glick 1991). Previous research indicates that universities may be considered a commodity, in which intellect commoditisation of the brightest students and scholars occur and social status hierarchies apply (Shapiro 2009; Usher 2008). On the other hand, the female model was preferred when appearing with the modern logo, which may indicate the social modification of contemporary society, in which women working outside the home is accepted (Diekman & Eagly 2000).

Previous studies suggest that gender stereotypes for occupations held by women are interwoven with notions of nurturing and teaching. Eagly (1987) for instance, argues that gender occupational distributions should be correlated with gender stereotypic social motivations. Thus, depicting an image of a woman working in a university whose logo appears modern and whose name implies a teacher training institution may seem quite appropriate and realistic, and is therefore preferred. The CVI (logo and brand name) of the university may have acted as the most important visual cue to infer the social status of the models based on their gender, determined by gender roles, occupation, and socioeconomic status (Conway & Vartanian 2000).

Having found that CVI seemed to have different effects on perceptions of lecturers depending on gender, it seemed important to explore the data further. An additional Univariate ANOVA test was performed using the same independent variables (HE reputation, attractiveness, trustworthiness and intelligence). The goal was to determine the level of influence each scale had upon perception when applied to the male and female lecturers separately. Two between-subjects factors were included in the analysis: logo (traditional and modern) and name (fictional and SIEU) and were tested separately according to lecturer gender (male and female).
The following table (8.7) demonstrates the significant interactions as well as the main effects extracted from the Univariate ANOVA.

Table 8.7: ANOVA results, significant effects and interactions for the male lecturer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>HE Reputation</th>
<th>Attractive</th>
<th>Trustworthy</th>
<th>Intelligent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logo</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name + Logo</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Neither significant interaction nor main effect for the female lecturer was obtained in this test.*

Results

The results in table 8.7 show that a significant main effect was obtained only for the male lecturer in relation to HE reputation (logo); trustworthiness (name, logo); and intelligence (logo). Importantly, neither significant interactions nor main effects were found for the female lecturer in this analysis.

For the male lecturer, the traditional logo was much more highly preferred than the modern logo in all instances, including HE reputation (F (1, 408) = 5.927, p = .015, partial $\eta^2 = .014$), trustworthiness (F (1, 408) = 7.833, p = .005, partial $\eta^2 = .019$), and intelligence (F (1, 408) = 9.064, p = .003, partial $\eta^2 = .022$). The actual university name, SIEU, was preferred only in the trustworthiness scale for the male lecturer (F (1, 408) = 6.056, p = .014, partial $\eta^2 = .015$).
The following plots illustrate these results (refer to figure 8.13, to 8.16).

**Figure 8.13: Univariate ANOVA output for HE Reputation at Male – Logo**

**Figure 8.14: Univariate ANOVA output for Intelligent at Male – Logo**
Interpretation of the Results

The evidence indicates that when a separate test was conducted for the male and female lecturer, judgments of the female lecturer were completely unaffected by the appearance of CVI. Conversely, perceptions of the male lecturer were highly affected by CVI. The male lecturer was perceived more favourably in relation to HE reputation, intelligence, and trustworthiness when associated with the traditional logo. The male lecturer was also perceived
as more trustworthy when associated with the actual name, SIEU. The only measure that showed no significance (the ‘p’ value is above .050) for the male lecturer in this test was attractiveness, which was shown to be more applicable, in the previous tests, to the female lecturer.

These findings point towards interesting connections between perceptions of men and their surroundings. Visual cues (in this case, the CVI) were taken into consideration by participants when forming judgments of the man, in terms of the excellence of their work as a lecturer (HE reputation), and their intelligence and trustworthiness, but were not applicable to the woman. Interestingly, recent work has shown that male attractiveness can be enhanced by manipulating perceptions of status through luxury car ownership (Dunn & Searle 2010). The present research can possibly extend this proposition, by suggesting that male appearance and status can potentially be enhanced by manipulating the surroundings, including the workplace. In this case, being a lecturer in a university with a logo of traditional appearance seems to enhance male appearance as well as status. Conversely, being associated with an actual university name is only relevant in the matter of trustworthiness, which seems logical and is consistent with results from the pilot survey.

Summary

Both the pilot and actual tests clearly confirmed that CVI influences perceptions of the people associated with it. The method used to investigate the Room Effect, derived from environmental psychology and developed by Canter (1977), and adopted in this research has been successful. This method could therefore act as a tool for evaluating the effectiveness of CVI and other forms of implicit communication. Interesting findings, which can be linked to a much broader discussion on gender, were also acquired from the further investigations that included testing two distinctive applications of logo and name in relation to gender. Further discussion of the findings of this research will be presented in the following chapter – Chapter 9: Discussions and Conclusion.
Chapter 9
Discussions and Conclusion

This chapter will provide an overview of the aims and findings of this research, as well as the research limitations. The quantitative research that formed the main component of this study, consisting of two surveys will be further examined both for explanations of findings and for links to broader phenomena. This chapter then concludes the research project by proposing possible directions and implications for future research.

Summary of the Research Findings

This research engaged a new method for testing the effectiveness of university Corporate Visual Identity (CVI). Initially, branding within the Higher Education (HE) sector was explored, followed by a specific focus on the branding of the Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris or UPSI (also known as Sultan Idris Education University or SIEU) as part of a live research project intended to improve its CVI. This research employed a mixed methods research and was completed in two stages. In the first stage, qualitative methods were used to acquire understanding about SIEU in relation to its desired image. This stage led to a series of suggestions for new directions for the university's CVI. The second stage, the quantitative study, adopted a method used to investigate the phenomenon of the Room Effect and applied it to test perceptions of a new CVI. In line with the research question, proposals for a new CVI led to the decision to explore an alternative approach to CVI evaluation.

The qualitative research offered sufficient information for the researcher to understand the desired image of the university and how this might be projected via its CVI. One of the most significant outcomes from this stage was the establishment of the university’s brand values through an analysis of strategic documents produced by the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) and SIEU, as well as a semi-structured interview with the Vice Chancellor (VC). The brand values for SIEU were identified as: international, research-driven, specialised, education, innovation, entrepreneur, and heritage. These words or values describe what the university is and aspires to be in the future.

A further interesting finding of this stage of the research emerged from the formation of university logo clusters through the method of Logo Mapping, adapted from the method of
Multidimensional Scaling or MDS. Over 100 university logos were compiled from the Times Higher Education (THE) – World Universities Rankings, list of top international universities (in 2007) and mapped against two predetermined dimensions (icon against text, and heraldry against modern). The Logo Mapping highlighted several patterns pertaining to current practices and trends in the CVI of universities. Interestingly, most of the top 20 universities including Harvard, Cambridge, Oxford, and Princeton appeared in the same logo cluster, that relating to the use of heraldry. In contrast, the top technology-driven universities such as MIT, Tokyo Tech, and TUM seemed to embrace more audacious logo designs, thereby giving the impression of being very different from ‘traditional universities’. A trend towards redesigning CVI in a more contemporary style was also identified. Many universities, including University of Bristol, Vanderbilt University, University of Copenhagen, University of Manchester, and University of Melbourne have come to favour more modern designs over the past 15 years.

These findings can significantly support the decision-making of designers during the process of designing a new CVI. However, the consideration of such qualitative findings does not necessarily ensure that a CVI accurately conveys the desired impression. Indeed, an ineffective CVI can potentially jeopardise a university’s desired image and good reputation. A reliable method for testing the effectiveness of CVI is the key to minimising this risk. This area seems neglected by many designers and researchers, perhaps due to perceptions of design projects, particularly in graphic design, as generally involving short-term and low risk outcomes. For many graphic designers, the design process consists only of the development of creative ideas, the collaboration with users or clients, and the production of exceptional design outcomes. Thus, graphic designers tend to be more concerned with input that supports rapid decision-making and the persuasion of clients. Testing the effectiveness of graphic designs, including CVI, is often absent or discarded from the design process as this step requires more time and financial support to accomplish. Indeed, for most designers, testing the effectiveness of CVI is perceived negatively, a misguided view that needs to be changed. Designers need to accept evaluation as an important stage of the design process that can improve design outcomes.

Quantitative research offers a means by which CVI can be tested. CVI is commonly evaluated in terms of form (e.g. shape, colour, and font), functional aspects (e.g. cost, legibility, and medium), and market values (intangible values of the company, or product that it represents). This research goes further than such evaluations, by exploring possible interactions between CVI and the people associated with it (in this case, university lecturers of different backgrounds, and gender). To do this, the preselected university CVIs were used to form the setting or background in the stimulus materials, as per the method used in environmental psychology studies to explore the Room Effect (Canter 1977). The results of this research indeed support...
associations and suggest the presence of a 'CVI Effect'; the same person was judged differently when associated with different sets of CVI. Moreover, results also varied according to gender. These interesting findings are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Results from both the pilot and actual surveys show some disparities; however, in most instances, the lecturer associated with heraldry was more positively rated than with the modern logo. Although respondents may have been unfamiliar with the specific university CVI presented in the tests, the heraldry may have provided a sense of familiarity, thereby influencing preferences for heraldry over the modern logo. Previous studies have confirmed the existence of a phenomenon called the 'Mere Exposure Effect', essentially that people tend to favour things simply because they are familiar (Bornstein & D'Agostino 1992; Zajonc 1968). This effect is also known as the 'familiarity principle' or 'subjective familiarity'. In this case, the heraldry selected by the university (SIEU) may have generated a sense of familiarity for respondents simply because numerous established universities have long been associated with heraldry. Thus, 'mid-range' universities such as SIEU could benefit from an association with the well-known symbols of heraldry. Importantly, studies have also shown that the effect on brand selection tends to be greater when experience is limited, as generating a sense of familiarity, even with something not seen or little seen before, supports the rapid perception and processing of information, which is obviously crucial for logos (Henderson & Cote 1998). Thus, the Mere Exposure Effect is worth considering when developing CVI.

With regard to gender differences, the evidence presented in this research suggests that the male lecturer was notably more affected by CVI than the female lecturer. When a further analysis was conducted, to differentiate the male and female lecturers in separate tests, completely different results were obtained for each gender. The CVI did not appear to have any affect whatsoever on the female lecturer. However, effects did occur for the male lecturer, with CVI influencing impressions of competence (HE reputation), intelligence and trustworthiness. These results are consistent with the Room Effect, which suggests that an executive office setting conveys social standing, intelligence and power upon its occupant (Canter 1977). Interestingly, in Canter's study, the rooms' occupant was portrayed as male. Canter may not have been interested in gender, perhaps because males were, in general, more likely to be successful than females in economic wage-earning roles (Johannesen-Schmidt & Eagly 2002). Undoubtedly, the old logos were designed at a time when university students were largely male. It is possible, therefore, that these 'male' logos impacted more upon the perceptions of male lecturers. Unfortunately tradition does not provide us with the equivalent 'female' logos, whereby we could test their effect upon the perceptions of female lecturers. This will be discussed further under 'Limitation and Recommendation for Future Research'. Of course, many
studies of gender differences exist, particularly in relation to human mate preferences, gender roles and occupational stereotypes (see Buss 1989; Buss & Barnes 1986; Eagly & Wood 1999; Glick, Wilk & Perreault 1995; Gottschall et al. 2004).

In particular, a recent study suggests that resource acquisition, such as luxury car ownership, has a significant positive effect on male attractiveness, an effect that is not applicable to women (Dunn & Searle 2010). The findings of this research indicate that male appearance can be enhanced not only by the acquisition of material resources, but also by the attainment of implied academic standing via CVI.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

That this research was part of a live project provided both satisfaction and limitations for the researcher. In the early stages, initiating the project and understanding the organisational culture, as well as gaining the trust of university authorities such as the Vice Chancellor (VC) and Board of Directors (BOD) required a great deal of time and commitment from the researcher. Presentations and meetings for committee consensus were routine, partly as a result of the organisational culture in Malaysia. Time constraints were also a major factor. That the decision-making and implementation of strategic planning in the university usually takes place from the top down through the organisational hierarchy does affect how research is conducted. Thus, the qualitative research that provided a foundation for developing a new CVI needed to be administered using a limited number of participants, with a focus on concise and prompt delivery and presentation to the VC and BOD. Yet more detailed information and richer data may have been provided with greater involvement and input from university staff and other affiliates. Future study could address this limitation, potentially with the method of Participatory Design.

Given that this research involved a live project, specific university logos and names had to be used as stimulus material. Further variations of these could be explored, including different collections of actual university logos and names, as well as a diverse range of levels or categories of universities. For example, the Logo Mapping produced several logo clusters: traditional (heraldry), avant-garde or technology driven, and contemporary. These university logo clusters or categories could be useful as a criterion for CVI evaluation.

Internet applications offer potential tools for researchers to gather and analyse data, such as for the conducting of online surveys. This research has benefited greatly from the use of an online survey, particularly by being able to reach a large number of respondents with a relatively low
administration cost. Despite these remarkable advantages, this research could have made better use of Internet capabilities. For instance, despite involving respondents from over 100 countries, this research was unable to accurately identify the specific country of origin of each data set. The current data can only provide a general cumulative percentage of the countries that participated. Thus, additional information for each respondent’s country of origin would support more complex statistical analysis and further discussions of the cross-cultural aspect of this research. However, this limitation was present in the software used: the online application was newly developed and the overall process of survey software design took more than six months. This limitation within the software has been resolved and future research should benefit from this new feature. Aside from the specific points made above, investigations of the Room Effect could be extended more generally to product assessment or to other forms of implicit communication, with the potential to generate new knowledge.

Managerial Implications

Designing a new CVI is neither a quick solution for a branding strategy nor a replacement for academic excellence. Yet it is nonetheless appropriate to value the functions and advantages of an effective CVI, to capitalise on all available resources and optimise visual impact. Such considerations may not be crucial for the high-ranked universities, such as Oxford, Cambridge, and Harvard, simply because they are already well known and highly respected among the brightest and most talented people internationally. These high-ranking universities generate billions of dollars in funds and revenue, compared with the much smaller incomes of ‘mid-range’ universities. Thus, to remain competitive, to generate high repute and attract talented people, some ‘mid-range’ universities are willing to invest large sums of money to develop reliable brand strategies via CVI and other marketing devices (Melewar & Akel 2005). Redesigning CVI is not a cheap or simple process, and therefore decisions need to be supported by some kind of measurable outcome. Testing the effectiveness of CVI is one key solution. Developing an effective university CVI requires more than the input of a VC or single individual such as a brand or corporate manager. Staff, stakeholders and alumni should also be involved in some way. As well as creating a desirable image and reputation through CVI, other aspects of the entire complex university organisation, including corporate culture and behaviour, should be aligned with the same overall vision and direction.
Conclusion

As a conclusion to this thesis it may be stated that the method adopted, a derivation of the Room Effect, has proved effective in demonstrating the influence – and therefore importance – of CVI. Although the Room Effect method may be considered an indirect method – after all, the CVIs were not directly evaluated – it nonetheless demonstrates a direct transference from the CVI to the person associated with it. This is significant. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, it is the first empirical demonstration of the effect of CVI within the university domain.
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**Appendix A**

Consent letter from Vice Chancellor of Sultan Idris Education University (SIEU)
To whom it may concern,

Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (Sultan Idris Education University) supports the research project titled "Branding in Malaysian Public University – Challenging the role of the designer". Specifically, the University gives the researcher, Muhammad Zaffwan Idris permission to use the university’s existing logo on paper and on-line surveys.

2. The researcher, Muhammad Zaffwan Idris is one of the University’s academic staff and is currently pursuing his doctoral study at Swinburne University of Technology, Melbourne, Australia.

3. This research project will benefit both the researcher and the Sultan Idris Education University.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

(PROFESSOR DATO’ DR. AMINAH AYOB)
Vice Chancellor
Appendix B

SUHREC ethics clearance letter and final report
Dear Dr Whitfield,

**SUHREC Project 2009/019 Branding in Malaysian Public Higher Education - Challenging the role of the designer**

Dr Allan Whitfield, Design/Mr Muhammad Zaffwan Idris

Approved Duration: 17/07/2009 To 01/07/2010 [Adjusted]

I refer to the ethical review of the above project protocol undertaken on behalf of Swinburne’s Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) by SUHREC Subcommittee (SHESC2) at a meeting held on 30 June 2009. Your responses to the review, as emailed on 15 July were considered as to sufficiency.

I am pleased to advise that, as submitted to date, the project has approval to proceed in line with standard on-going ethics clearance conditions here outlined.

- All human research activity undertaken under Swinburne auspices must conform to Swinburne and external regulatory standards, including the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and with respect to secure data use, retention and disposal.

- The named Swinburne Chief Investigator/Supervisor remains responsible for any personnel appointed to or associated with the project being made aware of ethics clearance conditions, including research and consent procedures or instruments approved. Any change in chief investigator-supervisor requires timely notification and SUHREC endorsement.

- The above project has been approved as submitted for ethical review by or on behalf of SUHREC. Amendments to approved procedures or instruments ordinarily require prior ethical appraisal/clearance. SUHREC must be notified immediately or as soon as possible thereafter of (a) any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants and any redress measures; (b) proposed changes in protocols; and (c) unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

- At a minimum, an annual report on the progress of the project is required as well as at the conclusion (or abandonment) of the project.
- A duly authorised external or internal audit of the project may be undertaken at any time.

Please contact me if you have any queries about on-going ethics clearance. The SUHREC project number should be quoted in communication. Chief Investigators/Supervisors and Student Researchers should retain a copy of this e-mail as part of project record-keeping.

Best wishes for the project.

Yours sincerely

Kaye Goldenberg
Secretary, SHESC2

*******************************************
Kaye Goldenberg
Administrative Officer (Research Ethics)
Swinburne Research (H68)
Swinburne University of Technology
P O Box 218
HAWTHORN VIC 3122
Tel +61 3 9214 5218
Fax +61 3 9214 5267
Human Research Ethics Committee

Final Report for an Approved Protocol

1. Project Details – Summary
   Provide the most current approved details of your protocol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HREC Project No.</th>
<th>SUHREC Project: 2009/019</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal Investigator/Supervisor:</td>
<td>Professor Allan Whitfield</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Investigators:</td>
<td>Muhammad Zaffwan Idris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of Project:</td>
<td>17/07/2009 to 01/07/2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Project Status
   Mark with an X the boxes which best describe the status of the human research elements of the project

   □ Project yet to commence**
   □ Project delayed part-way**
   □ Project abandoned before start**
   □ Project abandoned after start**
   □ Project completed
   □ Extension of duration to ethics clearance required**

   Explain further any options that are marked ** and provide start and new end date as applicable

   Not Applicable.

3. Compliance with Conditions of Ethics Clearance
   If the project was subject to any special conditions for continuing ethics clearance, including submission of approval letters from other institutions, explain how these have been met

   As per our Ethics Application:
   The candidate, Muhammad Zaffwan Idris has conducted both paper based and online questionnaires. Approval letter to use a Malaysian university’s logo (Sultan Idris Education University) has been granted by the university’s Vice Chancellor.
4. Modifications to Approved Project Protocols
If there were any procedures and instruments modified during the course of the project, including recruitment and informed consent procedures and instruments explain how/why modifications were undertaken, attaching any new/revised research/consent instruments.
Further ethics clearance to run a competition in conjunction with the online questionnaire was approved. An iPod touch was offered, valued at $249.

5. Unanticipated Issues of Incidents
Detail any experiences, incidents or issues (adverse or otherwise), especially with respect to research participants, which were unintended or unanticipated and explain how these were dealt with.
Not Applicable.

6. Participant Involvement
Give the numbers of individual participants involved in the project to date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>608</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4 gender unreported)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicate whether participant numbers to date are consistent with the approved protocol

- [ ] Yes
- [x] No

If participant numbers have varied, give reasons.
The number of participant had to be increased to be able to run a more complex statistical analysis, namely the Factor Analysis.
Gender distribution in the online survey is hard to be controlled. This is due to the nature of the online survey.

7. Security of Data (Continuing or Completed Projects)
Explain how research data and informed consent records are being secured retained and for how long. Also indicate expected method of secure data/records disposal (nb must comply with Swinburne and Legislative requirements)
The data from the paper based and online questionnaires have been entered into SPSS and are kept in password protected university and private computers.
The paper questionnaires have been lodged in the Faculty of Design Data Storage Room, level 8 PA Building. They will be kept there for 5 years to allow for verification/examination of the PhD, after which they will be destroyed.

8. Other Outcomes or Issues (Continuing or Completed Projects)
Outline any other issues or outcomes of relevance to the Ethics Committee, especially ethical issues that have arisen during the course of the project
Not Applicable.
9. **Research Outcomes and Benefits (Completed Projects only)**

   Outline any benefits and outcomes for the project (anticipated/not anticipated, including student course submissions, research publications to date or to be published, etc.)

   Outcome from this research is crucial for the completion of the candidate's Doctoral thesis. Based on the research findings and discussions from this study, several publications within the area of psychology, tertiary education, marketing, and design are seems possible. Publication in ISI journals is the top priority for this study.

10. **Declaration of Compliance**

    We, the undersigned, certify continuing responsibility for the conduct of this research in accordance with the principles contained in the National Statement and any other conditions specified by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University.

    **Name of Principal Investigator/Supervisor:** Professor Allan Whitfield

    **Signature:**

    **Date:** 21-2-2011

    **Student Investigator (Required for HDR Projects):** Muhammad Zaffwan Idris

    **Signature:**

    **Date:** 21/02/2011

    Please return the completed and signed form to: Swinburne Research, Research Ethics Officer (Mail H68)
Appendix C

Change of thesis title letter
08 February, 2011

Dear Mr Idris,

RE: CHANGE OF THESIS TITLE

At its meeting held on 03/02/2011 the Higher Degrees Research Executive Committee approved your application to change your thesis title to:

"BRANDING IN HIGHER EDUCATION - TESTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CORPORATE VISUAL IDENTITY"

Yours sincerely,

[Signature]

Prof Pam Green
Director for Graduate Studies
Swinburne Research
Tel: 9214 5224
Email: pamgreen@swin.edu.au

c.c. Prof Allan Whitfield
Chair, FDes. Res. Comm.
Appendix D

Sample of consent letter and questionnaire
**CONSENT INFORMATION STATEMENT**

**Project Title: Branding in Malaysian Public Higher Education – Challenging the role of the designer**

Dear participant,

You are invited to participate in a questionnaire conducted by a Swinburne Research student about the perception of university logos. Feel free to answer a few quick questions while your tutorial downloads.

Research Student: Doctor of Design, Muhammad Zaffwan Idris

Research Supervisors: Professor Dr. Allan Whitfield and Dr Simon Jackson

**Project Title: Branding in Higher Education – Challenging the role of designer**

Higher Education (HE) is increasingly in demand. According to UNESCO figures, in 2006, globalisation and student mobility led to over 2.5 million students receiving tertiary education outside of their home countries. The intention is to rebrand and therefore to reposition a university via a new Corporate Visual Identity (plus other devices). Current literatures indicate branding in Higher Education is still at its nascent stages. While the Corporate Visual Identity (CVI) appears as one of the key components to rebrand Higher Education institutions, the study on its effect upon persons associated with the CVI has not been tested. It is also intended to make an academic contribution within the field of experimental aesthetics.
If you are 18 years or over and under 35, you are invited to participate in this study. However, because we are interested in international perceptions of this university logo, respondent from the country of university featured (IP address) will not be processed.

If you would like to participate, please complete this questionnaire. You will be shown a set of randomized female or male models, which are shown with a university logo. You will be asked to perceive personality traits and demographic aspects of the models.

Privacy protection is of paramount concern. You will only need to include your gender and age on the questionnaire but no participant names will be recorded on the questionnaire so you will remain anonymous.

The data will be analysed and represented in tables, charts and text as part of a thesis that fulfills the assessment requirements for the Doctor of Design and may be published in academic journals.

Every participant is free to discontinue participation in the questionnaire at any time.

Your completion and submission of the questionnaire constitutes consent. Completion of only part of the questionnaire also constitutes your consent to use the individual questions you have answered.

However, please be alert to any restrictions or bans your own country places on participation in foreign research activity.

For further enquiries contact Professor Allan Whitfield
Research Professor
The National Institute for Design Research
The Faculty of Design
Building PA 144 High Street
PRAHRAN. VIC 3181. AUSTRALIA
Phone: +61 3 9214 6882

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne’s Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact: Research Ethics Officer, Swinburne Research (H68), Swinburne University of Technology, P O Box 218, HAWTHORN VIC 3122. Tel (03) 92145218 or +61 3 92145218 or resethics@swin.edu.au
By completing this questionnaire you are allowing us to use this information for our research.

This questionnaire is anonymous and no record will be made of your identity.
Introduction

This research is carried out by Muhammad Zaffwan Idris a doctorate student at the National Institute for Design Research, Swinburne University of Technology, Melbourne, Australia. Kindly complete the questionnaire. Your cooperation is appreciated. Of course, you are free to terminate your involvement at any time.

Instructions

1. Please complete all the questions in the order which they occur.

EITHER: Please circle appropriate answers

e.g. Gender

a) Male b) Female

OR Write your answer in where necessary

e.g. your age

30 years

OR Many questions involve 9 point rating scales. The extrems are located at each end of the scale (left negative – right positive). Please click the number that best expresses your opinion. (Click one box only).

e.g. He looks stylish.

Example a)

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree

Example b)

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree

In example a) the circle 9 indicate that you agree that the person looks stylish.

In example b) the circle 6 indicates that you slightly agree that the person looks stylish.
2. Please read each question carefully and treat each response separately despite any apparent repetition.

3. If you have any problem understanding or completing the questions please ask the administrator for help.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Your answers to the questions will be treated in confidence.
Section 1: About yourself

Please answer the following:

1. Your age

______ years

2. Your gender

a) Male    b) Female
Section 2: Questionnaire

This lecturer is standing in the foyer of her university. Can you please give your impressions of her by answering the following questions?

1. **She is physically attractive.**
   
   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree

2. **She has many students from overseas.**
   
   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree

3. **She is good at motivating students.**
   
   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree

4. **When her students graduate they get higher positions.**
   
   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Agree
5. She has many grants from government and industry to support her research.

   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

6. She has written many scholarly books.

   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

7. I can rely on her: she looks trustworthy.

   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

8. She belongs to a world-class university.

   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

9. She has a genuine interest in her students.

   Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

10. She is highly intelligent.

    Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

11. She collaborates with overseas universities.

    Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree

12. She is a good supervisor for her research students.

    Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  Agree
<p>| | | | | | | | | | |</p>
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<tr>
<td>13. There is a strong alumni support for her university.</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. She is an excellent teacher.</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. She has participated in many international conferences.</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Her students are highly sought after by employers.</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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