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Discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces

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of Philosophy at University College London

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I, Dolapo S Oluteye, confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own.

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Signed: D.Oluteye

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Abstract

Spatial fixity no longer characterises twenty-first-century work. Discovering hotel lobbies in London joined a growing catalogue of alternative workplaces as ‘best places to work’, which is symptomatic of shifting workplace philosophy conception. Unlike well-studied market-mediated alternatives like co-working models, designed to meet flexible work demands, lobbies servicescapes differ. Accessing and repurposing lobbies for work represents a novel approach to optimising idling operational built spaces. Leveraging such work practices to address urgent climate concerns calls for rethinking resource efficient strategies to reduce spatial waste. Yet, this shifting spatial paradigm and alternative workplace typology in hotels’ highly commercialised spaces remains unresearched.

The CIS sector achieved priority status in 2023 as a key contributor to UK’s economy with employment growth tripling other sectors at 14%. Alternative workplace studies attribute rising adoption of non-traditional spaces to this sector. Such attribution in this lobby working phenomenon raises a need to better understand associated drivers and nature of spatial use. Create this new knowledge offers the built sector strategic tools to better support workers, whilst attending to the urgent climate concerns. Extending idling-built spaces by improving their functional utility reduces operational waste, such as heating empty spaces. Thus, through positive sustainable use of existing resources asset operators can redeploy spatial assets to meet flexible workplace needs.

Therefore, this study discovers why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Its two-part approach employs the constructivist grounded theory (CGT) with multiple case studies, drawing on empirical evidence from various sources, including semi-structured interviews. Findings suggests CIS workers leverage non-market-mediated access to repurpose idling lobby servicescapes into working ecosystems. Its findings underline shifts in Bitner’s (1992) thirty-year-old servicescape theory.

Consequently, this study contributes a refined and extended theoretical framework reconceptualising servicescapes as 'discoverable workscapes'. It represents how twenty-first-century workers repurpose idling service environments for work. By emphasising the critical role of non-market-mediated access in repurposing underutilised spaces, this study advocates for behavioural climate adaptation strategies aimed at promoting resource-efficient built environments. It underscores the potential for discoverable workscapes to enhance environmental, social, and economic state of workers and the nation.

The implications of this study extend beyond theoretical discourse, offering practical insights for sustainable built environment practices and spatial advocacy. By reimagining and transforming idle spaces into resource-efficient working environments, discoverable workscapes have the potential to drive positive change and foster innovation in urban design and planning. Additionally, this research advocates for the adoption of CGT as a methodological strategy for investigating previously unexplored phenomena in the built environment domain.

Impact statement

Buildings pose a significant strain on the earth's natural resources throughout their lifecycle. They have a double challenge of fulfilling economic needs and reducing their carbon dioxide contribution. While efforts to make the built sector more sustainable are applied to their production, their consumption poses higher sustainability impacts with an understanding of their lifecycle construct.

Refining and extending Bitner's (1992) thirty-year-old framework through the theoretical lenses of access-based and collaborative consumption practices within shifting workplace philosophies uncovers spatial interpretations that improves idling and underused spaces. Access-based and collaborative consumption models translated into new markets and models in sectors such as transport – Uber, residential property – Airbnb, and commercial property – WeWork, exemplify their applicability in existing buildings. By unlocking underused assets' spare capacities, these models appeal to the circularity philosophy within sustainability discourses.

Hotel lobby servicescapes' functional duality in this study demonstrates how the strategic deployment of innovative value extraction mechanisms within an operational but idling space can improve their utility. Applying this non-traditional and unique discovery to sustainability discourses challenge the conventional approach to efficient using the built environment as a resource. The changing world of work, characterised by portable working practices, spills into servicescape environments to uncover socio-economic opportunities their idleness presents. Through granted access, such working practices can unlock the idling capacities of U.K's underutilised built spaces, transforming them into useful forms. For instance, facility management specialists and real estate owners can extract new value from idling spaces in their buildings to meet modern spatial demands by generating untapped opportunities for new user groups to create new value to support their economic pursuits.

Since studied lobbies already exist and are operational, the environmental benefits from increased use outweigh the negative impacts of added energy consumption. The benefits of gaining a groundswell of users to attain a critical mass (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76) of predominantly hybrid- and teleworkers who swapped working from home with working in lobbies are apparent. Thus, such applied use in existing buildings will favour idling operational spaces with temporally low or no utilisation during working hours.

Further, growing CIS work suggests an anticipated increasing demand for workplace environments that inspire creativity and enables capabilities to work portably. The peculiar spatial needs of CIS workers that this study suggests challenge how the built environment adapts and accommodates emerging spatial demand to retain its strategic relevance. Creating opportunity spaces to support this worker typology, after Merkel (2019), may proactively address this demand burden. Borrowing the United States-backed opportunity zone initiative (White House Opportunity and Revitalization Council, 2019) presents ideas that may facilitate such offerings. Perhaps easing CIS workers' spatial needs with free access may contribute to socio-economic values that improve their quality of life.

Although a hotel lobby is not a purposefully designed as a public workplace setting, its attraction to younger, entrepreneurial CIS workers signals shifts in spatial appetite and workplace philosophy. Like a double-edged sword, adapting existing spatial norms to shifting working practices and improving UK's underused buildings offers the built environment both sustainability benefits and industry relevance in a digital age. Ultimately, the implications of knowledge gained through this discovery project are wide-ranging and emphasis on the built environment suggests; first, incremental innovations in servicescape models for improving their discoverability. Second, re-conceptualising existing normative workplace designs that cater to creative psychographics; and third, repurposing idling, underutilised and obsolete built spaces into functional use to support work-related socio-economic activities through creating opportunity spaces.

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Abbreviations

AbC	Access-based Consumption
AbCC	Access-based Collaborative Consumption
ASTM	American Society for Testing Materials
AW	Alternative Workplace(s)
BIM	Building Information Modelling
BSI	British Standards Institution
CC	Collaborative Consumption
CCS	Crown Commercial Service
COVID-2019	Corona Virus Disease 2019
CGT	Constructivist Grounded Theory
CIS	Creative Industry Sector
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
CMH	CitizenM Hotel
DCMS	Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport
ESPRC	Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HM	Her (His) Majesty
IP	Interview Participant(s)
ICT	Information and communications technologies
LED	Light Emitting Diode
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
NHS	National Health Service

ONS	Office for National Statistics
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PRC	Pew Research Centre
QD	Demographic Questions
Q1	Question 1
Q1a	Question 1a
Q1b	Question 1b
Q2	Question 2
Q3a	Question 3a
Q3b	Question 3b
SAM	Strategic Asset Management
US	United States
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UCL	University College London
UKGBC	United Kingdom Green Building Council
WRF	World Resources Forum
WiFi	Wireless Federation
WEF	World Economic Forum

Preface

For our knowledge is fragmentary (incomplete and imperfect), and our prophecy (our teaching) is fragmentary (incomplete and imperfect) (1 Cor 13:9 – AMPC)

Built environment reflections evoke the need for opportunity spaces

The strength of this study's contribution is its applicability and generalisation to various industries and sectors, from higher education to corporate business environments, with a place geography caveat. Applying the proposed discoverable workscapes framework is contingent on the strategic intent or their contextual interpretation of its purpose. Discoverable workscapes in this study's context retain Bitner's (1992) proposition of the value physical environments play in interpreting organisations' strategic intent, vision and mission. However, it locates workscapes within rising flexible and portable working practices that afford capabilities to work mobile in cities and municipalities, especially as creative industry sector (CIS) work proliferates. Cities and municipalities where workscapes are discoverable have a place geography caveat. Such places will have to generate a critical mass of CIS or flexible workers seeking accessible, flexible environments to work.

With growing portable working practices and underused built environments comes the opportunity to support the important economic activity of value creation among an increasingly agile and mobile workforce. Permitting access to these idling but supported built environments improves spatial efficiency and promotes spatial circularity. CIS work is growing, and its attendant consequential impact on built spaces reflects through this discovery project. If the postulated incremental creative work continues, then governments, building and facilities managers, real estate operators and asset owners and other built environment stakeholders must rethink how to effectively support this sector while still reducing operational waste, improving spatial functional utility, decarbonising the sector and meeting sustainability targets that balance social, economic and environmental values.

These are not easy issues to address without the risk of trade-offs. However, this discovery research proposition presents a no- or low-cost approach to supporting the CIS sector through what it called 'opportunity spaces'. The conception of opportunity spaces came from user narratives indicating that CIS workers seek to discover non-market-mediated spaces suitable for accommodating flexible work. Further influencing the interpreted applicability of their lived experiences is the United States' (U.S) opportunity zones initiative (White House Opportunity and Revitalization Council, 2019) implemented to support deprived communities with some success across the nation (US Department of the Housing and Urban Development, 2019).

Developing an opportunity space programme differs from this U.S. project. However, it carries parallel intent: to spur public and private entities' interest in creating opportunities for the CIS and flexible workforce to thrive without the burden of workplace overheads by allowing access to idling and supported places and spaces. The discoverable workscapes framework offers an evaluation tool to assess an organisation's suitability and readiness to deploy an opportunity space with consideration of its place geography. Place, in this sense, sense-checks its CIS workers population. This bold proposition addresses calls for space and place solutions, such as in Merkel (2019).

Chapter 1: Introduction to Discovery

'Creative industries have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property' (DCMS, 2016)'

1.1 Research background

The building environment is the second largest climate emissions source¹ with the sector accounting for approximately 36% of global final energy consumption and nearly 40% of global carbon emissions (IEA, 2023). United Kingdom's energy consumption in-sector reflects similar statistics, of 40% of the national energy consumption, and about 33% of carbon dioxide emissions (IEA 2023). The report further totals global energy-related emissions from operating buildings to 26%, at a 1:2 direct and indirect emissions ratio. The higher ratio accrues to indirect buildings emissions at 18% from electricity and heat production.

This high carbon emissions levels calls for in-sector response that extends beyond the usual construction-focussed approach. The urgent need for global climate change adaptation and mitigation measures by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)² demands unique approaches to solving this imminent crisis. While various technical solutions are deployed to reducing emission levels in producing and operating buildings, understanding how buildings are used may better inform net-zero-promoting operational strategies and even their production.

Against this reality is the U.K's vision of a built industry that contributes to a future resource-efficient, low-carbon, modern and globally competitive economy (HM Government, 2013). The government also committed to a legally binding target to achieve net-zero carbon emissions by 2050. This ambitious target cuts across all sectors, including the building industry. Policy initiatives coupled with technology and technical solutions to expedite U.K's sustainable net-zero climate transition is much-needed. Among the possible approaches to achieving a sustainable climate

¹ <https://www.unep.org/resources/report/building-materials-and-climate-constructing-new-future>

² <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/>

transition in the built environment is in placing as much emphasis on behaviour and use of built environments.

Workplaces consume between 30% - 40% of energy and have attracted various energy-efficient solutions. Although research and industry deploy energy-efficient strategies, such as improved designs and renewable energy sources. Understanding the use of buildings and resulting behaviour changes needed to realise more sustainable and energy-efficient spaces are less emphasised and under-researched. Developing an empirical knowledge of the operational use and relationship between workers and their workplace environments may yield useful means to improving the sustainable use of buildings.

The creative industry sector (CIS) is growing in importance as a key contributor to United Kingdom's (UK's) economic prosperity with incremental employment levels since 2011 (DCMS, 2018). While pre-pandemic growth was five times more than other sectors, the sector held up employment levels during lockdowns compared with others (DCMS, 2022). This trend of rising CIS employment continues post-pandemic at an unprecedented 14% above the 2019 pre-pandemic levels (DCMS, 2023), positioning the sector as a strategic imperative within UK's economy.

On the economic front, CIS's contribution reflects an annual pre-pandemic increment of 7.6%, with a typical contribution equivalent of £306M daily (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport and Adams, N., 2020). National statistics reveal the sector's net surplus economic contribution continues in an upward trajectory post-pandemic to more than £108bn in gross value added (GVA) annually in 2023 (ONS, 2023). Performing well above most sectors, CIS attained priority economic status in 2023³.

This upward growth trajectory suggests the sector was unaffected by lockdowns, and perhaps benefitted from unintended diminished emphasis on spatial fixity that often characterises traditional working patterns (Salazar, 2013:744-754; Felstead,

³ <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/ambitious-plans-to-grow-the-economy-and-boost-creative-industries>

2012; Felstead and Henseke, 2017). Lockdowns exacerbated an ongoing shifting workplace philosophy to further promote flexible spatial choice (Morrison and Macky, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Göçer *et al.*, 2018, Kingma, 2016; Ng, 2016; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). With this backdrop, discovering built environments in which CIS thrives is of strategic relevance to the built sector's supporting role of housing workers effectively without compromising U.K's climate agenda (reference). Research must seek much-needed efficiencies in operating buildings to limit carbon footprint and inspire sustainable behaviours in work environments.

As such, given CIS influences a significant portion of U.K's wealth and job creation as defined in above quote (Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2016), discovering ecosystems supporting this growing sector becomes an important economic imperative. Unfortunately, this research area is not well-researched (Florida, 2002, 2014), although a spate of alternative workplace studies recently emerged.

Alternative workplace research is gaining twenty-first-century scholarly attention attributed to worker typologies adopting non-traditional workplaces, as seen in the co-working models (Spinuzzi, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016, 2017; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). Common research arguments and findings associate these alternative workplaces to creative workers' spatial needs (Florida, 2002, 2014; Florida, Mellander and Stolarick, 2011).

Absent in this domain is an underpinning framework characterising new work geographies being adopted within twenty-first century shifting working philosophy to working anywhere, any time. Of recent, claims that creative workers are adopting hotel lobbies as new work geographies are touted by practice-based research and grey literature. Unfortunately, few peer-reviewed literature (Mimoun and Gruen, 2021:2) also wrongly cite unrelated studies to make these claims without any empiricism but citing unempirical and practice-based sources.

Discovering the reality of these new use of spaces necessitates an empirical study. Hotel lobbies are characterised as service environments, or servicescapes, to use

Bitner's (1992) taxonomy. For work, lobbies serve business travellers' need for short-term work environments (Harrison, 2002). Contrary to Bitner (1992), recent depiction of lobby servicescapes as workplaces suggests a dyadic spatial functional purpose in service to both the hotel business and public. While their user types are unclear, unempirical sources align with the CIS characterisations (Newswire, 2013; Magnolfi, Lindsay and Waber, 2014; Fawaz, 2015; Kingma, 2016:188). Thus, discovering hotel lobby servicescapes are meeting CIS workplace needs indicate environments to which CIS worker typology gravitates and the changing spatial servicescapes functionalities.

Many questions arise with such shifts in spatial adoption and utility. First, why do twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces? And how do workers discover, access and repurpose such service spaces to serve their workplace needs? Are such servicescapes idling and underutilised, resulting in their operators, making them public? What worker typologies do these servicescapes draw if they are truly accessible to the public. What framing can inform answers to these questions to present a coherent expression of shifting philosophies of twenty-first-century workplace adoption in service environments? Extant consumption theories offer some logic in how access decisions of idling or spare assets result in their alternative use and consumption (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Understanding means and drivers of access-based consumption within the servicescape theory, along with research characterising the creative worker may create a framework that interprets the new use of lobbies as worksites.

1.2 Problem and its significance

Growing AW research, popularised within the sociology domains, is still emerging (Allvin *et al.*, 2011b; Spinuzzi, 2012; Moriset, 2014; Merkel, 2019; Ruostela *et al.*, 2015; Spreitzer, Garrett and Bacevice, 2015; Kojo and Nenonen, 2015, 2016, 2017; Merkel, 2015; Ng, 2016; Ivaldi, 2016; Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Morrison and Macky, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Felstead and Henseke, 2017; Constantinescu and Devisch, 2018; Göçer *et al.*, 2018; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019;

Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). However, the disproportion of scholarships favouring sociology research shifts AW research away from the built environment and sustainability domains. Still, workplace studies are as much a built environment interest given their provisioning role to house workers and support their productive intentions.

Mostly favoured among recent AW research is the co-working model. Their adoption and consumption decompositions range from scrutinising their offerings (see Merkel (2015, 2019) to developing their typologies (exemplified in Spinuzzi, (2012); Spinuzzi *et al.* (2019)). Nevertheless, it is unclear where lobbies sit in AW types because of various empirical unknowns and knowledge gaps, such as whether they serve their paying lodgers or the general working public. In the case of the former, claims made are unremarkable and expected (Cook, 2020; Harrison, 2002). Should the case be the latter, understanding lobby users and their work and the spatial attributes supporting work intentions will better enrich current knowledge of customisation and co-creation activities, repurposing them into workplaces.

Introducing this manner of servicescape consumption within the contextual workplace use necessitates revisiting Bitner's (1992) framework to better understand how public users transform lobbies into working environments. New knowledge from this enquiry requires refining and extending this thirty-year-old framework's applicability in the twenty-first-century workplace context. The pervading influence of technology on societal lifestyle choices and working practices strengthens this theoretical necessity. However, although shifting work geography suggests spatial fixity no longer characterises modern work, how servicescape environments support growing CIS workers is poorly understood. Unempirical claims of transforming lobbies into workplaces raise queries about why and how workers translate service environments to fulfil their workplace needs. While this servicescape phenomenon is unresearched, existing research in servicescape framework, AWs, creative sector workers, and collaborative and access-based consumption presents theoretical insights and tools for analysing lobby use. Dyadic spatial functions of lobbies provoke a rethink of changing

consumption behaviours as avenues for repurposing building spaces. Since this spatial consumption type differs from hotels' primary function, it follows that this workplace use fills an operational gap during lobbies' idling and underutilised periods.

Suggesting that lobby servicescapes possess idling capacities is a construct for discovering access strategies that unlock idle spaces to meet new modern workforce demands that are becoming increasingly creative. Botsman and Rogers (2010) define idling capacity as the untapped social, economic, and environmental value of underutilised assets. These three value offerings resemble the sustainability elements (Brundtland, 1987) built sector actors can deploy to achieve spatial resource efficiency. Toni et al. (2016) and Perren and Grauerholz (2015) centralise these three sustainability elements within the changing nature of asset consumption and efficiencies. To achieve requires access first. Thus, achieving spatial efficiency lies in accessing existing idling and underused building spaces to unlock opportunities for users to repurpose them into useful forms. It is unclear how workers access lobbies as workplace substitutes.

Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) theorise how people access and acquire consumption time within assets they cannot afford to own as access-based consumption. Their conceptual model falls within other collaborative consumption (CC) studies useful for framing the public use of hotel lobbies. Understanding the transformational use of lobbies as publicly accessible through empirical knowledge of associated behaviours underpins taxonomies that structure the prevailing shift in spatial perception and work geography. However, this strategy requires alternative and new thinking within the built environment domain to support the change towards resource preservation better (Akenji et al., 2015).

Businesses have applied AbC concepts (Chen, 2009; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Lawson et al., 2016; Benoit et al., 2017; Catulli, Cook and Potter, 2017; Akbar, 2019; Fiorentino, 2019b; Tilley, 2019) to use physical resources efficiently. These models exploit asset demand and optimise their consumption with technology. Examples of

businesses that successfully implemented this concept have disrupted road transportation (Uber, ZipCar) (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012), residential property (Airbnb) (Botsman, 2012; Benoit *et al.*, 2017) and lately, commercial property (WeWork) (Fiorentino, 2019b; Tilley, 2019) sectors. Within the built environment, their practical application by commercial property businesses is evident in the growing adoption of co-working space models, with WeWork at the vanguard of this trend in the UK. These models offer alternative modalities to traditionally structured approaches to procuring workplaces. Demonstrably symptomatic of transformational shifts in the world of work, co-working highlights the shortcomings of existing workplace buildings, which call for attention by the built environment. Understanding these changes and their consequential effects on the built environment provides a basis for exploring other potential access-based strategies for optimising and improving the use of existing buildings as a resource.

U.K's existing building stock account for approximately 80% of the stock that will still be around by 2050. Therefore, improving this stock's utility with lifecycle thinking (UN, 2010) presents opportunities for operational efficiencies in built spaces. Similar to efforts and campaigns for reusing and recycling plastics and glass packaging, the built environment needs to develop spatial repurposing strategies to limit the need to build new. This approach calls for unconventional thinking that explores alternative methods that make existing buildings more resource efficient. It does not discount the critical work of improving the building stock's codes through retrofitting. Instead, it complements these efforts to address practical operational challenges associated with heating empty or idling building spaces. With the growing adoption of AWs, claims that lobbies are filling a demand gap present opportunities to rethink changing building uses.

To successfully extrapolate the benefits of new working practices into the sustainability discourse necessitates understanding what underlies changing attitudes and behaviours of modern workers towards the use of non-traditional spaces, like lobbies. More so, manifestations of these consumption behaviours in servicescapes spotlight inflections in Bitner's (1992) servicescape theory. Thus, her

framework offers a valuable starting point for developing this understanding. While the ontological reality of growing AW adoption is philosophically understood and empirical, lobbies as workplaces lack this empiricism, presenting a knowledge gap in the existing literature. Considering the traditional use of lobbies and their use classification in the U.K. raises an enquiry into what characterises them as suitable work venues.

Popular AW studies and use-type presented in existing academic studies are yet to empirically back this claim. However, this knowledge gap suggests several things, but relevant to this enquiry is the shifting philosophy of work that place geographies reflect. The paradox of transformational changes in the world of work has positive and negative consequences within the built environment. On the one hand, there is a possible increase in tendencies for some buildings to become functionally obsolete through desertion and lack of use. On the other hand, this occurrence presents opportunities for improving access to idling, underutilised spaces in response to new workplace demands (Hughes and Jackson, 2015; Theodoridis, Ntounis and Pal, 2017) unmet by the traditional workplace.

It investigates a demand-focussed approach to discovering, repurposing, and accessing the hotel lobby environments as working ecosystems. Twenty-first-century behaviours unconventional to Bitner's (1992) influential servicescapes theory reframing servicescapes perceptions as work environments suggests spatial fixity no longer characterises modern work.

1.3 Research aim, propositions and questions

This study aims to develop a theoretical representation of lobbies' transformational use as workplaces and associated implications. Its uncharted nature and absence of existing studies on the public use of hotels for work necessitates a methodical approach that employs the constructivist grounded theory (CGT) (Charmaz, 1990; 2014) research strategy and method serves. Using its principles to achieve a data-generative discovery project makes the reality of this phenomenon under study possible. In this sense, it designs a two-part study for research prudence.

First, it undertakes a pilot CGT case study to initially establish the publicness of hotel lobby servicescapes and their use for work to gain some theoretical direction. The pilot outcome follows a premise, conceptual direction, taxonomic structure, and theoretical scope for further research. By deploying this data-generative pilot, it fills the existing empirical knowledge gap by 1) identifying hotel lobby servicescapes non-lodging public guests use as work venues; and 2) characterising those hotels' publicness, access, and consumption as workplaces; otherwise, conclude the pilot and end study.

Second, it reviews existing literature within the alternative workplace domain to explore twenty-first-century worker-workplace migration. Combining this understanding with five extant theories on the modernity (Appadurai, 2006) of emerging consumption (accessing and using idling assets – (Botsman and Rogers, 2010); Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) behaviours to understand their expression in servicescapes (hotels – Bitner, 1992) by a rising class of twenty-first-century workers (Florida, 2012) within the CIS.

1.4 Research propositions

The synthesis of the alternative workplace studies and theories develops into the following twelve propositional statements for empirical enquiry:

- Proposition 1: *Non-market-mediated spatial access: Lobby users expect service environments and their infrastructure to be publicly accessible and free to use.*
- Proposition 2: *Temporality of spatial access: Spatial consumption in lobbies is characterised by longitudinal (repeated access) and short-term access (one-time transaction).*
- Proposition 3: *Elaborateness of lobbies: Lobby has an elaborate physical (spatial) setting, essential for attracting public consumption to adopt for work*
- Proposition 4: *User and staff involvement in lobbies: Lobby users' involvement in co-creating a work environment is extensive, with the minimal participation of hotel staff in creating a workplace experience within lobbies.*

- Proposition 5: Modernity of lobby workers: Lobby users are non-traditional workers born post-1964
- Proposition 6: Anonymity in lobbies used for work: User anonymity informs the adoption of lobbies as work venues.
- Proposition 7: Spatial proximity influences lobby access and consumption for work: Closeness to or centrality of lobby location informs teleworkers' access to lobbies as AWs instead of their home or workplace
- Proposition 8: Lobbies serve a functional purpose: Public (workers) access lobbies for functional use to support work.
- Proposition 9: Lobbies serve an experiential purpose: Public (workers) access lobbies to derive experience.
- Proposition 10: Lobbies possess material and immaterial offerings that support work performance, but not all free.
- Proposition 11: Lobby users adopt hotel lobbies for political persuasions to pursue antimarket consumption alternatives, free access instead of rented access.
- Proposition 12: Lobby patrons choose this access mode due to political persuasions that articulate and promote their environmentally sustainable intentions.

Thus, gaining a theoretical direction from the pilot in combination with the above propositions, informs the research progression into full-scale CGT discovery study asking the main research question and sub-questions below.

1.5 Research questions and sub-questions

Research Question: Why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces?

Third, upon establishing the reality of lobbies used for work in the pilot, this research poses the main research question stated above to resolve the second part of the study design. It further asks the following sub-questions and how the twelve propositions inform the development of a theoretical representation of lobby servicescapes used as workplaces:

1. How do users characterise themselves and the lobby servicescapes in the context of their spatial access and consumption intentions to work?
2. Why are these lobbies suitable for users in (1) to work?
3. How do users' narratives in (1) and (2) resolve the twelve propositional statements to inform a refined and extended version of Bitner's (1992) propositional framework into a typological framework reflecting why and how today's workers adopt lobbies for work?

The Figure 1.1 below is an overview of the methodological approach deployed in this study. As an outline reflecting the developmental stages of this research, it captures the processual data generation to theory building using case studies. CGT using case studies (Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 2009) is synonymous with this theory-building approach as advanced by Kathy Charmaz and Kathleen Eisenhardt (Eisenhardt, 1989; Charmaz, 1990, 2014; Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997) further expanded and discussed in the coming sections.

This methodology employs five existing theories and frameworks as constructive analytical lenses to interpret and frame its findings into a coherent theoretical representation. Discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces led research to four theories that sense-make various elements contributing to the phenomenon. The servicescape theory (Bitner, 1992) provides a basis for analysing the changing workplace behaviours.

Consumption theories analysing collaborative and access-based behaviours towards idling assets offer means to better understand drivers of lobbies adoption for work (Chen, 2009; Belk, 2010, 2014; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Akbar, 2019). Within this philosophy lies a redefinition of spatial modernity by a new user class (Florida 2012, 2014; Appadurai, 2006) previously theorised. This outcome ultimately informs refining and extending Bitner's (1992) servicescape in the twenty-first-century context.

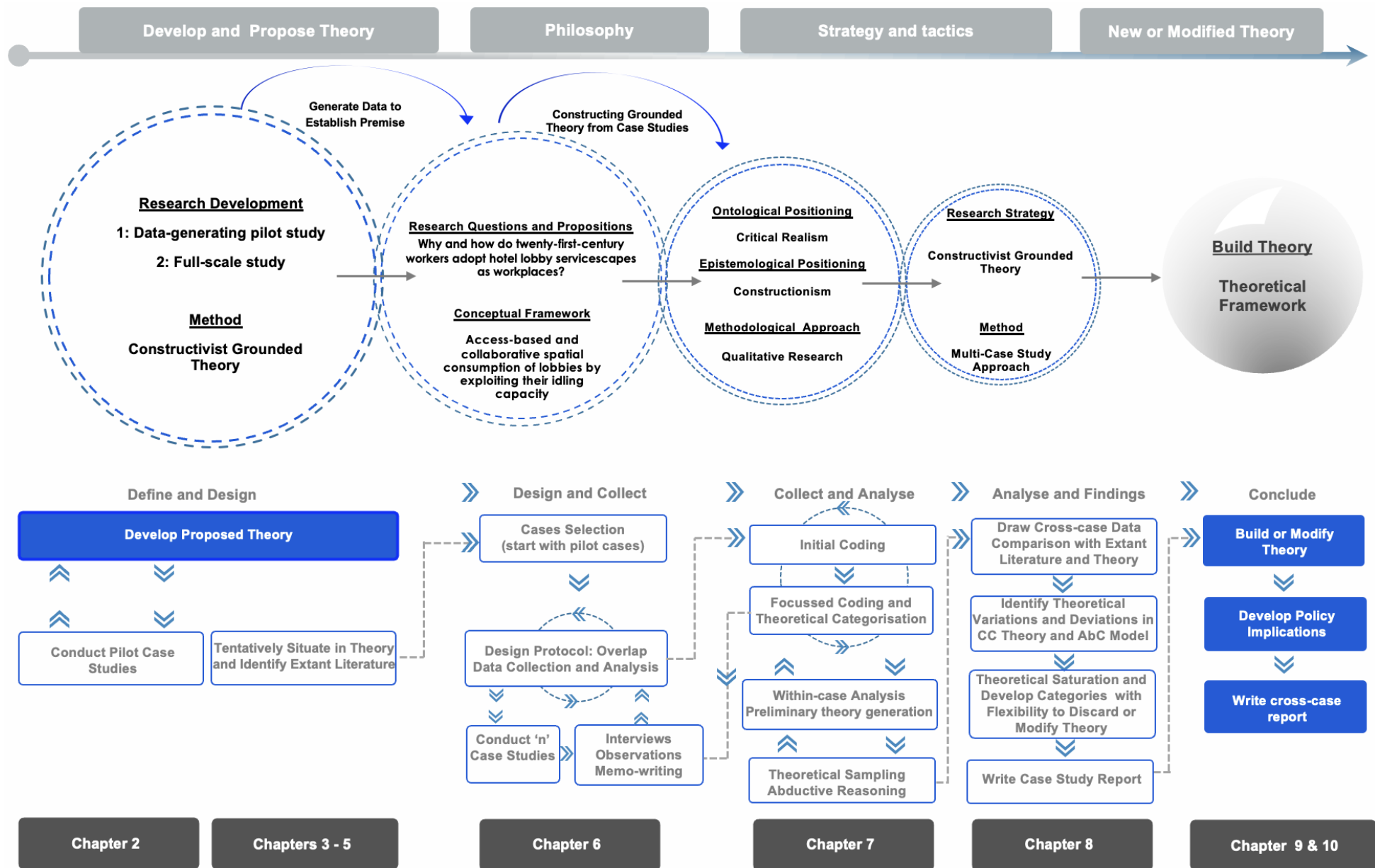


Figure 1.1: Overall Research Overview: Adapted from (Yin, 2017; Moon and Blackman, 2014; Charmaz, 2014; Eisenhardt, 1989)

1.6 Thesis Structure

This thesis is organised into ten chapters: Chapter 2 outlines a data-generating pilot case study that employs the CGT method to investigate lobby servicescapes' publicness, accessibility, and consumption as workplaces. It generates empirical data to establish the theoretical premise, vectors, and direction for characterising this phenomenon. Chapters 3, 4 and 5 critically reviews and analyses extant research spanning collaborative and access-based consumption theories, the commercial and marketing servicescapes domains, and alternative workplaces research. Chapter 6 details the underpinning philosophical and methodological framing of this CGT research with case studies. It provides the rationale for exploring the propositional statements (1.1.4) and discovering answers to the research questions and sub-questions stated above. Chapter 7 details case study results by employing the three theoretical vectors (users, work and spatial) it harvests from Chapter 2's pilot outcomes to delineate their attributes from three datasets. Chapter 7 develops theoretical alignment and differences between case study outcomes to discern what drives access to lobbies and the nature of accessing them. It presents results of why and how workers discover case lobbies as worksites. Chapter 8 engages study results to resolve and respond to the propositional statements and comparatively analyse Chapter 7's case results using the AbC framework and CC theoretical dimensions and principles. Finally, it combines them to reconstruct and build a theory grounded in empirical data with Bitner's (1992) servicescape framing, depicting why and how workers adopt lobbies as workplaces. Chapter 9 proposes a refined and extended servicescape framework that brings Bitner's (1992) thirty-year-old framework into a twenty-first-century perspectival interpretation. It proposes a term, 'discoverable workingscapes' to delineate and differentiate discovery outcomes of lobbies as working landscapes, not service landscapes. It then discusses the grounded theoretical proposition against extant studies to underpin and explicate why and how users adopt lobbies as 'working'-scapes and not servicescapes. Finally, Chapter 10 summarises the research with its associated implications, and future research opportunities.

Chapter 2: Piloting London hotel lobbies used for work

'Grounded theory contains both positivist and interpretivist elements because it relies on empirical observations and depends on the researchers' constructions of them'

(Charmaz, 2014:232)

2.1 Pilot Background

Grounded theories start blind with inductive data (Charmaz, 2014:1). Therefore, with no existing primary or foundational empirical study related to this research's phenomenon of interest, it adopts the constructivist grounded theory (CGT) method that begins with data collection. Its data-generative strategy aims at discovering what underlies lobbies' publicness and characteristic use for work.

Past studies citing hotel lobbies as workplace alternatives (Bishop, 2015:212; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016:305; Ng, 2016:212) do so inaccurately, while other unsupported claims are practice-based and online assertions (Newswire, 2013; Magnolfi, Lindsay and Waber, 2014; Fawaz, 2015; Kingma, 2016:188). However, roadside observations of London lobbies teeming with people poring over laptops evoke an enquiry into the reality of these claims.

While extant studies make inaccurate cursory references to Harrison (2002:252), what constitutes this lobby working phenomenon remains empirically unclear. With this knowledge gap are many unknowns. Therefore, this pilot seeks to fill this gap by exploring the public use of hotel lobbies as work venues and what characterises holistic spatial consumption parameters in this state. Attributes of interest include the public user and work profiles, along with spatial qualities supporting their workplace needs. Gaining such empirical knowledge offers a theoretical direction grounded in empiricism to foundation how lobby servicescapes (Bitner, 1992) support workers. To this end, this chapter outlines a data-generative pilot CGT case study for discovering the 'hotel lobby working' phenomenon by:

- A. Identifying hotel lobbies non-lodging public guests use as work venues.
- B. Characterising lobbies' publicness, access, and consumption as workplaces; otherwise, conclude the pilot and end study.

2.2 Pilot methodology

‘...interviewing provides the major tool for generating focused data for developing abstract conceptual categories’ (Charmaz, 2014:87)

In its most basic form, the CGT method starts with data-seeking through ethnographic observations and question-asking, often in interviews, to develop theories. Its coverage is non-prescriptive and synonymous with the grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

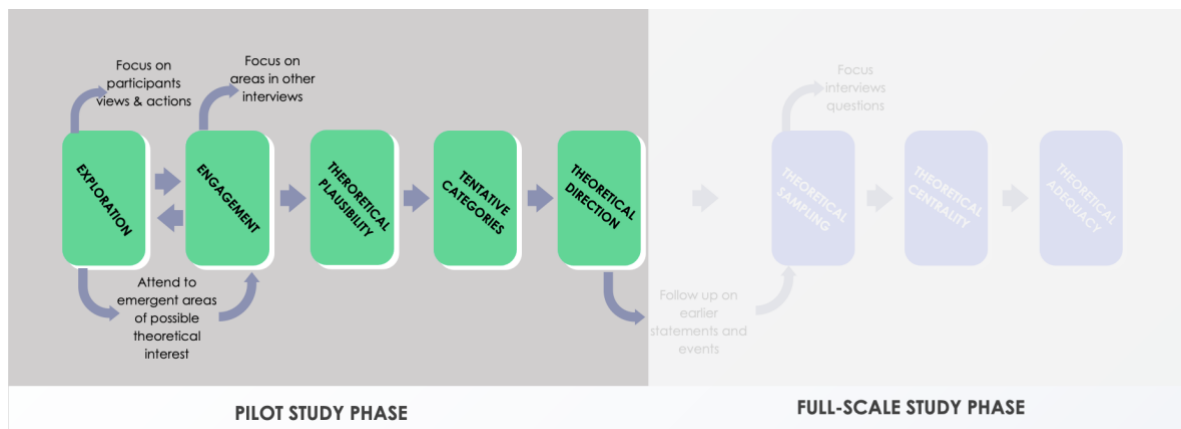


Figure 2.1: CGT methodology design for piloting hotel lobby servicescapes (adapted from Charmaz, 2014)

From data seeking to deriving theory, Fig 2.1. above illustrates an overall data-gathering process emphasising the main elements relevant to this pilot. This qualitative method captures emergent concepts (Ritche et al., 2014:35) as they arise with an inductive ‘working data from the ground up’ strategy (Glaser and Strauss, 2017; Charmaz, 2014). Therefore, the following sections outline each stage that leads to gaining a theoretical direction to inform the full-scale research. It begins with the exploration and engagement process.

2.2.1 Exploration and engagement processes

Data gathering during these processes comprises intensive, unstructured, randomised interviews, ethnographic observations, and historical data (online) sources. The aim is to generate sufficient data for establishing a theoretical premise. The exploratory and engagement process is nonlinear but iterative, as Figure 2.1 shows, requiring constant data comparison.

The exploration step (Figure 2.1) begins in an open-ended, broad, and unstructured style that dives deep beyond the social and subjective layer (Charmaz, 2014) of user activities in lobbies visited through in-depth interviews. Data generation is iterative, with continuous conversations that afford data abstractions.

It then takes an immersive approach to data collection in the next engagement step (see Figure 2.1) to fully involve participants in their experiential use of the servicescapes (Balakrishnan, 2017). According to Charmaz (2014), this approach guarantees a higher chance of quality data generation as it reveals authentic information and harvests solid materials for further analysis.

2.2.1.1 Desktop feasibility studies

In its exploration, this study recruits pilot lobbies via desktop feasibility, using the term ‘hotel lobbies open to the public in London’ on Google’s online search engine, generating web listing in Table 2.1 below from Google’s first search page (Mooro, 2020, Grassin, 2017). This process partly achieves the first part (A):

‘Identifying hotel lobbies non-lodging public guests use as work venues.’

Table 2.1: Web listing of ‘hotel lobbies open to the public in London’

Space	London Region	Nos in London	Space Type	Admission
Hotel A	Shoreditch (East)	1	Hotel Lobby	Free
Hotels B1 and B2	Shoreditch (East) Holborn (Central)	2	Hotel Lobby	Free
Hotel C1, C2 and C3	Tower of London (Southeast) Shoreditch (East) Bankside (East Central)	3	Hotel Lobby	Free
Hotel D	Soho (West)	1	Hotel Lobby	Not Free
Hotel E	St Pancras (Central)	1	Hotel Lobby	Not Free

Intentioned to avoid drawing web links that associate hotel lobbies with working, it deliberately excludes ‘work’ from the term. Yet, the results made such associations.

2.2.1.2 Site selection strategy

The overall governing criteria for selecting pilot sites combine three sets of needs:

- a. Publicness: open to non-lodging members of the public (to answer 2.1 A)
- b. Accessibility: non-lodging public users gain free access to lobby servicescapes (to answer 2.1 A and B), and
- c. Proximity: lobbies are conveniently located for ease of travel to ensure a viable and achievable future full-scale research is possible (Yin, 2017).

From the search, the two lobbies listed in Table 2.2 fulfil these criteria:

Table 2.2: Selected pilot sites freely accessible to the public

Space	London Region	Space Type	Admission
Hotel A	East	Hotel Lobby	Free
Hotel B2	Central	Hotel Lobby	Free

2.2.1.3 Pilot fieldwork

Fieldwork commenced in the summer of 2018, from 30 July until mid-autumn 2018 (9 weeks), with the above-selected hotel lobbies. It later made three detours to visit a Co-working space, Hotel X and Hotel E. These unplanned detours align with the CGT method (Charmaz, 2014:13-40) as data emerges through its iterative process. Randomised interviews (Charmaz, 2014:35), exploring sites through observations and capturing information constitute research data sources.

2.2.1.4 Constructivist interviewing

Twenty-seven (27) individuals participated in interviews, as listed in Table 3 below. Each interview lasted an average of forty minutes with sixteen (16) lobby users and four (4) co-working users, and twenty minutes with seven (7) hotel management representatives, totalling about 950 interview minutes outside analysis time allotment. Interview participants' (IPs) responses to questions had no time impositions (Glaser and Strauss 2017), each averaging 31.1 years of age. Fifty-five per cent (55%) were male, and forty-five per cent (45%) were female.

The CGT method to which this study subscribes goes further to nurture mutuality and develop social bonds with IPs to capture emergent understandings, identity legitimacy and experience validation (Charmaz, 2014:91) of lobby use. These intensive interviews are gently guided, one-sided conversations exploring IPs' perspectives on their experiential access and consumption of lobbies (Charmaz, 2014:56). The three additional site visits are products of constant data collection and content analysis. First, a visit to the co-working opposite Hotel B2 is in response to its IPs' experiential juxtapositional differences between the two places. Similarly, the other two hotel lobby trips emerged from IPs' experiences.

Table 2.3: Pilot case sites visited with interview participation information (Author's work)

Space	London Region	Interview Participant (IP)		Admission
		Users	Hotel Personnel	
Hotel B2	Holborn (Central)	5	2	Free
Hotel B1	Shoreditch (East)	11	2	Free
Hotel E	St Pancras (Central)	0	1	Not Free
Co-working	Holborn (Central)	4	1	Free*
Hotel X	Bank (Central)	0	1	Not Free

* space allows general public to use the ground floor for work with no access to their WiFi unless registered as a full-paying member. The site has more floors in the basement and upper floors.

Table 4 lists the study's interview participants (IPs) by their demographic data, such as job title, employment status, age, and gender distribution. A striking attribute of respondents is the age distribution associated with their creative industry sector (CIS) work typology (Florida, 2002, 2014).

Table 2.4: Interview participants' (IP) data (Author's work)

Place	Interview Participant (IP)	Job Title	Employment Status	Age Distribution By Gender		Age Total
		(Self Description)	(UK Classification)	Male	Female	
CASE 1						
HOTEL B2	IP_1	Consultant	Employee		32	32
	IP_2	Software Developer	Employee		26	26
	IP_3	Art Director	Director		30	30
	IP_4	Head of Storytelling – Writer	Self-Employed		30	30
	IP_5	Behavioural Economist Consultant	Self-Employed	30		30
CASE 2						
CO-WORKING	IP_6	Digital Film Colourist	Self-Employed	25		25
	IP_7	Marketing Consultant	Self-Employed	38		38
	IP_8	Head of Sales – with Team	Employees	30		30
	IP_9	Start-up Group	Entrepreneurs		28	28
CASE 3						
HOTEL A	IP_10	User Interface Designer	Self-Employed	25		25
	IP_11	Creative Designer 1	Self-Employed	34		34
	IP_12	Art Director	Self-Employed	33		33
	IP_13	Digital Editor	Employee	43		43
	IP_14	Head of Digital	Employee	38		38
	IP_15	Creative Designer 2	Self-Employed	42		42
	IP_16	Founder – Fashion Modelling Agency	Self-Employed		25	25
	IP_17	Guitarist and Music Producer for MUNA	Self-Employed		26	26
	IP_18	Software Developer	Employee		29	29
	IP_19	Music Software Developer	Self-Employed	28		28
	IP_20	Head of Coaches	Employee		30	30
			Grand Average Age Total	33.2	28.4	31.1

2.2.2 Theoretical plausibility: Pilot lobbies are publicly free work venues

Continuous interview content analysis (Charmaz, 2014:56) presents a plausible theory that lobbies of Hotels A and B are open to non-lodging public guests who access them as work venues with no access gateways or restrictions. Plausible

theories emerge through content analysis of information gathered from the above stages with continuous question-asking to clarify emergent concepts (Charmaz, 2014:89). This study's plausible theoretical outcome affirms 2.1 A, paving the way for pursuing B:

'Characterising their publicness, access and consumption as workplaces; otherwise, conclude the pilot and end study.'

2.2.2.1 Non-lodging public guests use lobbies as workplace environments

Onsite interview data substantiates online claims of pilot lobby servicescapes' publicness, accessibility, and consumption as work venues. Thus, pilot study outcomes indicate lobby users gain free and unrestricted access to servicescapes as the comments field in Table 2.5 below outlines.

The below site visitation schedule summarises research plan. Weeks one and two start with visits to all lobby sites, after which interview content analysis necessitates visit adjustments based on analysis outcomes. The comments field shows how the three additional sites yield results contrary to IPs' claims.

Table 2.5: Research plan overview of pilot study with headline comments (Author's work).

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	COMMENTS
Weeks 1-2	<u>HOTEL B2:</u> - Ethnographic Observational Studies - Interview Hotel Management	<u>HOTEL A:</u> - Ethnographic Observational Studies - Interview Hotel Management	<u>HOTELS A & B2 :</u> Ethnographic Observational Studies	<u>Hotel E:</u> - Ethnographic Observational Studies - Interview Hotel Management	<u>HOTEL E:</u> - Ethnographic Observational Studies - Interview Hotel Management	<u>REFLECTION AND ANALYSIS</u> Analyse Notes	Unrestricted Lobby use in Hotels A & B2 but restrictions applied on the use of Hotels X and E (no interviews allowed) Next Steps: Focus on Hotels A & B2 . Start with B2 (closer to UNI)
Weeks 3-5	<u>HOTEL B2:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>HOTEL B2 & Co-Working:</u> Ethnographic Observational Studies	<u>HOTEL B2 & Co-Working:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>HOTEL B2:</u> Ethnographic Observational Studies	<u>HOTEL B2:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>REFLECTION AND ANALYSIS</u> Analyse Notes	Emergent data strongly suggests users are choosing lobbies for work. Users are self-employed, employees with autonomy of workspace. Emergent data pointed to Co-working opposite Hotel B2, so visited space and noted use differentiation of space compared to lobby.
Weeks 6-9	<u>HOTEL A:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>HOTEL A:</u> Ethnographic Observational Studies	<u>HOTEL A:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>HOTEL A:</u> Ethnographic Observational Studies	<u>HOTEL A:</u> Interview lobby users	<u>REFLECTION AND ANALYSIS</u> Analyse Notes	Emergent data strongly suggests and aligns with online claims that this lobby is open for public use without the need to be a lodging guest. Differently styled to Hotel B2, both have very similar furnishing and offer additional services to public visitors
EXPERIENCE	- Welcoming - Management were cordial - Worked without restrictions of need to purchase	Users enter and use lobby with intention and purpose. Seem to know where to sit and one another.	Familiar faces interviewed on Mondays often show up, but also do new faces show up.	Apart from Hotel X, Styling and lobby décor are similar, aligning with descriptions on the internet.	Other than the hostile treatment received at the Hotel E, Hotels A & B2 have a rhythmic sequence to how lobby is used	<u>REFLECTION AND ANALYSIS</u> Develop memo with information gathered during pilot study	- Publicness of lobbies – Yes but not all are free to use for work - User Type – Self-employed, Independent employee and Young demographic - Space use type – Focussed work, meetings, interviews, networking - Space attributes – design incorporates new and old spatial design

2.2.2.2 Publicness of hotel lobbies for work (supply-sided narratives)

'Our policy is to open the lobby to the public as long as they can find a space to sit...Some people book the lobby ahead, but the left side is open to the public... You can see so many laptops everywhere' – Hotel B2 Manager

Hotels' management corroborates online data that pilot lobbies are publicly accessible work venues, as the response above shows. Interviewed hotel managers' affirmation of IPs' perceived free lobby access aligns with Hotels A and B2's policy. However, negative reactions from Hotel X and Hotel E's management challenge this perception as a generalised policy. The hotel management at the two other lobbies IPs categorises as public frowned at the publicness perception their lobbies are gaining as work venues. Hotel E's management is intolerant of any free access. Their management associates their luxury brand with spatial exclusivity, rejecting any publicness notion of their lobbies with punctuated with added conditionality of paid table bookings before offering seats. Although they both declined interviews with their lobby guests, Hotel X's managing director admits to allowing mobile working in the lobbies (7) on the condition of transactional activities, stressing their lobbies' exclusive social purpose. His response succinctly captures this opposite position:

I think because some hotels allow it, people take it that all hotels do so. This is not a co-working space. Frankly, I do not have a problem with people coming here and doing some work on their laptops so long they make some purchases, be it lunch, coffee and so on. I had to kick a guy out the other day who had the audacity to bring in a Costa Coffee and snack and then started working on his laptop, I mean, someone's got to pay for this whole space, right? We are not a charity' – Managing Director at the Hotel X

Hotels like Hotel X commodifies public access to their seven lobbies requiring transactions, as expressed in the above quote. They are differentiated from freely accessible lobbies with no access conditionalities, seen in studied Hotels A and B2. While online data associates specific lobbies with work (see Table 2.1 and references), other hotels maintain an opposing stance. These hotels are often luxury-type brands dissimilar to the two boutique-style type this study pilots. Hotels are in the hospitality business and not charities, as mentioned above; hence the

public expectation of free access is a surprising discovery that suggests access into the two pilot cases is non-market mediated.

Thus, Hotel A and B2's lobby servicescapes identifies as free fully publicly accessible working spaces by non-lodging guests. This free spatial provision differentiates them from others, placing boundary lines between market-mediated lobbies accessible to the public and those freely accessible with no defined consumption activity. Thus, user interviews were only possible at Hotels A and B2 and the addition of the Co-working space as Table 2.5 outlines.

2.2.3 Theoretical categories: Users, work and spatial characterise pilot lobbies as workplaces

Through an abductive inference, three emergent theoretical categories sense-make pilot lobbies' publicness, access, and consumption as workplace venues: their users and associated work types, and spatial attributes supporting their capabilities to work in lobbies. The iterative logic of returning to data results in category codes culminating in abstracted theoretical characterisations shown in the data segmentation in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Characterising pilot lobbies with three theoretical categories (Author's work)

User (Characterising lobby user)	Work (Characterising work activities in lobbies)	Spatial (Characterising spatial activities in lobbies)
• Non-lodging • Member of the public • Regular user • Telecommuter – Home Worker	• Solitary • Independent • Administrative	• Accessible and open for public consumption • Socially themed and human element • Available for use during the day (8am – 5pm) • Nicer than cafés like Starbucks
• Creative professional • Super creative worker • Remote/Flexible/Mobile worker • Young (millennial) demography	• Design • Marketing • Consultancy	• Free admission • Free access to thick bandwidth of hotel Wi-Fi • Free access to electric power • Free access to clean toilet facilities
• Independent • Entrepreneurial • Start-up • Gig-economy	• Digital • Software development • Technology	• Café-styled with coffee shop, bar and restaurant • Mix of soft and hard furniture • Library-styled communal table • Arty

The above three emergent data segments clarify B. These three categories are inextricably interlinked such that they do not occur in isolation to produce the

observable workplace lobbies user experience. Figure 2.4 below presents the three emergent pilot lobby characterisations as theoretical categories that depict the nature of their alternative provisioning.

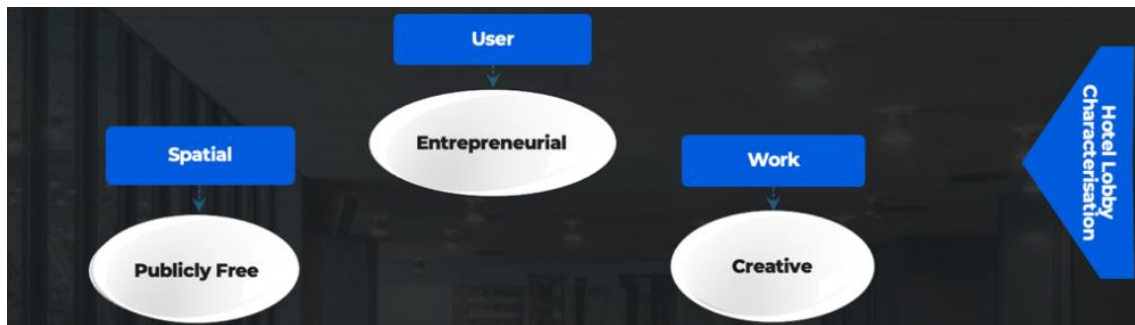


Figure 2.2: Pilot findings as reflected in the state of workplace literature

This outcome reasons that as spatial access into piloted lobbies is publicly free, entrepreneurial workers take advantage of the non-market mediated access to undertake creative work. So, although the following sub-sections characterise each category, they work in concert to reflect the entirety of pilot lobbies' transformational repurpose for work.

2.2.3.1 User: Independent, creative worker typology

'The corporate world is the opposite way of working, especially as creatives where you are in a cubicle, it's sweaty, it's not meant for creative thinking and stimulating' – Art Director

IPs are predominantly younger workers who self-describe as 'creatives' with an independent working style. Although a higher percentage of users are self-employed and directors at sixty-five per cent (65%), the remaining thirty-five per cent (35%) are employees. These employees lead teams in their organisations (see Figure 4.4) with a degree of freedom to choose where to work without the limitation of spatial fixity (Felstead, 2012; Felstead and Henseke, 2017). Thus, the study suggests all IPs have levels of independence to choose their work geography contingent upon access to technologies, such as WiFi, among other spatial elements, as shown below.

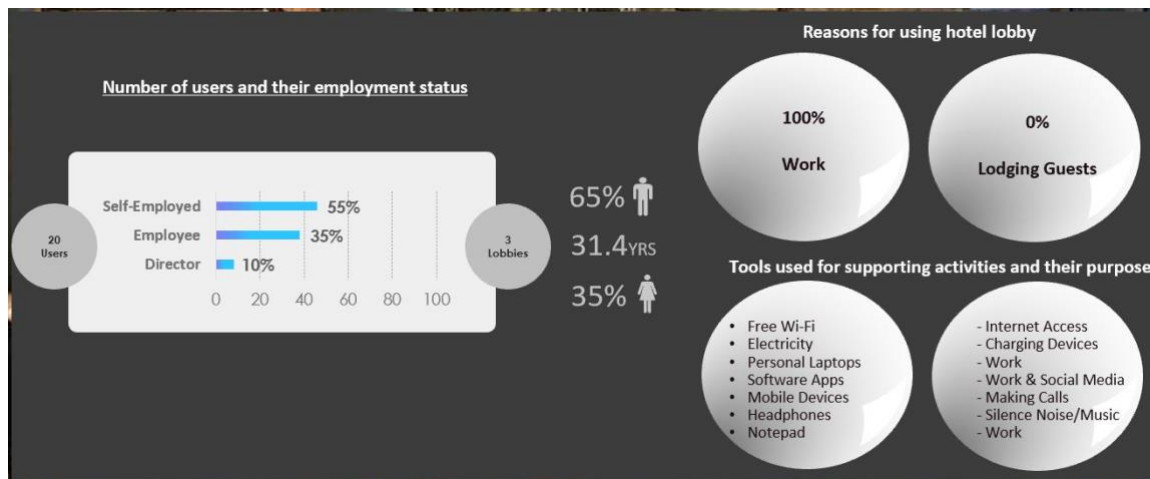


Figure 2.3: Profile of Interview participants within piloted lobbies

Therefore, results suggest lobby users are young, technology-reliant, creative workers with independence and flexibility of where to adopt as their workplaces.

2.2.3.2 Work: Knowledge-driven, technology-reliant creative work

'I have come here first to do work, not to hang out with people' – Software Developer

Self-described creatives IPs primarily intend to work in the pilot lobbies. Proposing that lobby users are predominantly creative workers implies they engage in CIS types. Their job titles (Table 2.4), like digital editing and software development, exemplify this proposition. Akin to this CIS work type is their reliance on technology artefacts and infrastructure (see Table 2.6 and Figure 2.5), e.g., WiFi. Their typology differs from other creative expressions like performance arts and drama. Therefore, the study abductively characterises work undertaken in studied lobbies as knowledge-intensive and technology-reliant CIS work typology, differentiating them from creative performance work.

2.2.3.3 Spatial: convenient, communal, work-supporting servicescape

'First, it is kind of convenient for me because it is close to my house. Secondly, there is a vibe here – there are many people here who have come to work...their presence encourages you to work...The people element is important because you can feed off other people's energy and get inspiration and motivation to work. Thirdly, it's kind of cool, like it's kind of trendy -I quite like it, and that helps. The whole context of the space enables me to do my work and all the factors within the spaces...nobody bothers me...' – Software Developer (user)

The above response articulates how respondents characterise and interpret lobby servicescapes' function (Appadurai, 1996; Salazar, 2013). First, from the above narrative, convenience suggests locational proximity matters to users. In this sense, hotels are either close to users' residences or centrally located and easily accessible. Second, spatial 'vibe' is often utilised by IPs and may be synonymous with Bitner's (1992) atmospherics (experiential feel), and spatial content (work-supporting) hotels offer an IP describes as follows:

'...it generates regular customers and revenue business-wise. I think it fits in well with the vibe of the hipster, start-up, creative type in terms of space layout and flexibility, with good WiFi...accessible anywhere in the lobby, bars and restaurants. The use of the internet and the availability of WiFi is becoming prevalent...The difference is that this hotel has chosen actually...to utilise their space, instead of just being a hotel, it...brings the foot traffic into their restaurant, coffee shop, bar...' – Behavioural Economics Consultant (Game Theory Specialist) (user)

Much of the above response signals lobbies' accessibility as hotel operators encourage other uses outside their core hotel business by granting public access. Thus, they attract public footfall, transforming them into work environments with their work-supporting infrastructure, aiding this process. What is unknown within this construct is the cost or benefit of this seeming altruism from pilot hotels.

Combining IPs' spatial descriptors with other data sources suggest environment dimensions synonymous with Bitner's (1992) holistic description of the physical environments she christens servicescapes (p.58). Apart from working individuals consuming lobby servicescapes, the spatial content incorporates design layouts comprised of dark wood flooring, bare concrete and brick walls, chipboard ceilings, artwork displays, and biophilia (Abreu, 2015) with a mix of soft and hard furnishing, communal tables and seats, along with accessible WiFi to public users (Figure 2.5)

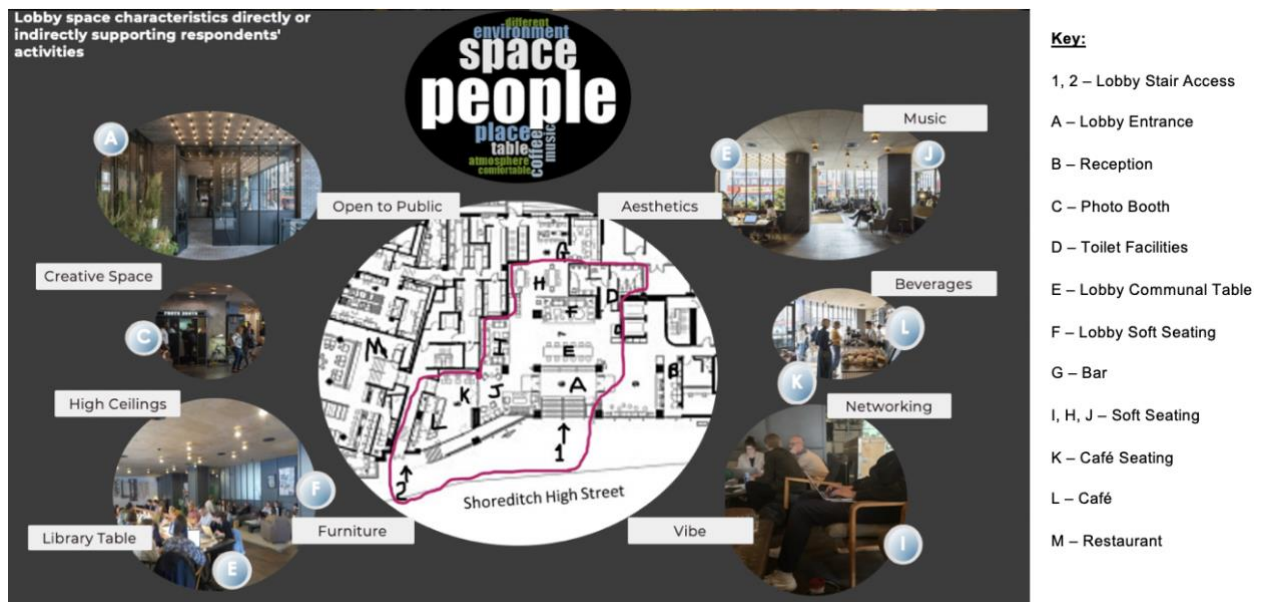


Figure 2.4: Spatial attributes supporting IPs' intention to work in pilot lobbies

Figure 2.5 above is Hotel A's lobby floor plan archival record exemplifying activity touchpoints from IPs' description of how lobby servicescapes aid their intention to work. IPs identify the people within the space as key attributes supporting their choice of place. This characteristic constitutes holistic spatial offerings, including freely accessible amenities such as a WiFi network, toilet facilities and electric power charging points (see Dizik, 2012) with library-styled communal tables (Ayers, 2016) overlooking a gallery of artwork. Dizik's (2012) observations that WiFi and tables are popular workstation users fondly appreciate that tallies with IPs' narrative, that the following responses capture:

'I like working on this table, that's why I come early. It has inaccessible in-built electric charging points, which is important; because without it, it will be tricky to work here' – Software Developer

'For all intents and purposes, data is free and cheap, especially in a hotel, where it is important to have a thick bandwidth. Also, people tend to come in to stay over in the evening, and during the day, most of the bandwidth is not being really used – Contractor (user)

Similar responses lead to an abductive inference that such servicescapes are idling when public users access them. This plausible theory reckons with Botsman and Rogers' (2011) idling capacity principle of collaborative consumption (CC) of underused assets. The resulting publicness that spatial attraction of public users

seeking flexible spaces is perhaps empty, underused, and idling lobbies. Thus, accessing pilot lobbies allows users to customise them into workplaces by exploiting their idling capacity and servicescape capabilities to support portable work. Therefore, users and hotel operators inadvertently co-create workplaces.

Pilot lobby servicescapes present the public with idling but operationally functional work-supporting offerings beyond physical spatial provision. Their holistic servicescape offering incorporates their spatial content, including 'user' typologies they attract (Figure 2.5), which is as relevant to their needs as the technology offerings they freely access. Therefore, public attraction to their servicescapes comprises place-based and community-based elements. For example, their accessibility combines locational proximity with the free use of spatial contents as place-based elements. The community-based elements IPs identify as the people or 'workers' accessing them are equally crucial.

In sum, interview data indicates the publicness of boutique-styled lobbies that a young, independent, and knowledge-driven CIS worker demographic accesses, customises and co-creates into workplaces. Study suggests that this class of modern workers actively seek accessible milieus, like hotel lobbies, to perform their work communally. Their work typology is predominantly creative, characterised by knowledge-intensity and technology-reliance. It further highlights the servicescapes (Bitner, 1992) nature of these publicly accessible lobbies, including idleness with characteristics users find conducive to working flexibly in a communal atmosphere.

Bitner's work (1992) and recent research advancements on servicescapes (like Mari and Poggesi, 2013) support these connections between spatial attributes and consumption purposes. Lobbies' departure from the traditional grand entrance-hall design (McNeill, 2008b) and styling elicit behaviours (Bitner, 1992) attracting a young workforce demographic (Nichols and Wright, 2018). While this pilot identifies two lobbies indicating publicness and accessibility with attributes

supporting their users' work intentions, grounding the theoretical plausibility that lobbies are alternatives to traditional workplaces requires further enquiry.

Drawing public footfall into these lobbies may ultimately project an image of successful hotels (Dizik, 2012) and generate more revenue. Yet, this concept presents an additional indirect plausible theory indicating that emergent workplace use in lobbies results from their idleness and underutilisation. Its theoretical direction leans towards exploring spatial efficiencies in improving underutilised or idle servicescapes (Bitner, 1992; Mari and Poggesi, 2013; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012) by making them accessible to the public. Thus, this study turns to scoping the collaborative consumption (CC) and servicescapes theories to better conceptualise this position and their relevance in creating AWs in lobbies.

2.2.4 Theoretical Direction – Collaborative Consumption theories

Like co-working models, emerging service models within the commercial office sector exemplify the CC theory (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012). Ubiquitous technology plays a significant role within these models by efficiently deploying value extraction mechanisms at a scale (Botsman, 2015) previously impossible before the internet. Thus, they enable the transformation of idling, underutilised assets into valuable forms, sometimes making them liquid (Sturm, 2018). Comparisons between co-working models and lobbies offerings in this pilot suggest similar work activities are possible.

However, co-working models gain scholarly attention as CC workplace forms (D'Ambrosi, 2018) as workplace substitutes filling gaps in workplace demands (Spinuzzi, 2012; Spinuzzi et al., 2019) unmet by traditional tabled provisions (Merkel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016). Like this trend, lobbies fulfilling workplace demands situate them within the AW domain. However, lobbies are servicescape environments with consumption dimensions hotels craft to elicit behaviours to further their service business goals (Bitner, 1992). Her marketing and consumer research suggests a market-mediated space-use convention dissimilar to the free access and consumption this pilot study suggests. This lobby

customisation repurposes them as work venues when idling and confounds conventional wisdom of their functional purpose (Tallack, 1998; Kazmi, 2012; Thapa, 2007) in contrast to co-working models'.

2.2.5 Extracting new value from idling, underutilised assets

Turning to existing theories within which to circumscribe these pilot findings are CC theories originating from Felson and Spaeth (1978), modernised by Botsman and Rogers (2010) and framed by Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012). These three theories supply language that articulates shifting consumption practices are replacing traditional modalities through various access routes. As CC employs technology's agency to reinvent traditional market behaviours (Botsman, 2015), they connect 'haves' (idle lobbies) and 'wants' (workers' spatial needs) in ways that unlock the value of idle assets to enable greater efficiency, empowerment and access (Botsman, 2012).

Consequently, Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) present this consumption conception as an access-based transaction where owners grant access to their idle assets for an agreed consumption time, with or without market mediation (p.881). By this construct, hotel operators grant members of the public free access to their idle or underused lobbies, with technology tools and artefacts serving as engagement agents. Thus, lobbies' idling capacities are repurposed into useful forms (workplace) by exploiting changing societal demands (Toni et al., 2016) for AWs. Therefore, public access into lobbies to acquire consumption time they previously could not afford or choose not to own (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881) becomes possible. They later characterise access dimensions, called consumptionscapes, with temporality, anonymity, market mediation, consumer involvement, type of accessed object, and political consumerism (p.884). This coined term, along with Bitner's (1992) 'servicescapes', further gains meaning from Appadurai's (2002) theory of '-scapes'. However, applying these concepts within the spatial consumption of hotel lobbies needs further enquiry.

2.3 Summary: Study derivatives and proposals for future work

This CGT pilot study generates empirical data to explore changing working practices in the traditional hospitality sector of hotels seen in the transformational use of lobby servicescapes into workplaces. It employs case studies (Yin, 2009) with a CGT strategy (Charmaz, 2014) to identify lobbies that are publicly accessible and consumed for work with associated characterisations.

This pilot thus fulfils enquiry 2.1 (A) by identifying two lobbies that non-lodging public guests use as their workplace and 2.1 (B), where the tangible and intangible elements of lobbies crystallise into three categories:

- User: A young, independent, technology-driven CIS worker demographic
- Spatial: Freely accessible, convenient, and communal servicescapes for public consumption with technology aides to support CIS work and capabilities to work mobile.
- Work: knowledge-intensive, technology-reliant CIS work typology, differentiated from the performance art types.

In addition, the case lobbies' spatial materiality and atmospheric elements indicate plausible spatial attractors that draw user types with a mix of tangible and intangible elements synonymous with Bitner's (1992) proposition.

Overall, the pilot outcomes suggest disappearing boundary lines among places and spaces the public adopts for work. It agrees with Felstead (2012) and Felstead and Henseke's (2017) reflection on working practices that spatial fixity no longer characterises the twenty-first-century workplace. Moreover, results indicate creative workers recruit flexible servicescapes, like lobbies, to exploit their idling capacities for working mobile free during the day with technology aides.

With the user, work and spatial characterisations of lobbies, this study leans conceptually towards the CC theoretical principle of idling capacity (Botsman and

Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012). It employs the access based consumption dimensions (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) to better understand the changing rationale associated with Bitner's (1992) servicescapes framework deployed in lobbies. As the study indicates, their users match Florida's (2002, 2014) rising creative theory and corroborates ONS statistics. Their interpretive perspectival spatial access and consumption give credence to Appadurai's (2006) use of 'scapes' in redefining spatial modernity. These five constructs supply language and framings for articulating changing consumption practices substituting traditional workplace adoption based on free access.

Therefore, this pilot demonstrates the effectiveness of employing CGT in small scale studies (Hazzi and Maaldaon, 2015) to gain empirical insights into new phenomena in situations of knowledge deficit and gaps. Employing this CGT strategy with case studies demonstrates research prudence and expediency. After all, grounding claims in empirical data, critically sound analysis, and judgement underpins academic research. Thus, utilising cursory and unempirical academic and practice-based study claims to premise, construct and develop theories is contrary to academic research protocols. Moreover, making a priori judgment based on such sources provides a weak justification for theoretical assumptions. Therefore, in the absence of scholarly work on lobbies used as workplaces, this research's generative data strategy through a qualitative pilot case study gains the premise and theoretical direction for discovering what lies behind its phenomenon of interest.

Chapter 3: Collaborative consumption theories and their access-based expressions

The preceding pilot provides an empirical premise upon which this study develops its discovery. This chapter is the first of three state of literature offering theoretical lenses that articulate ontological positions of changing consumption behaviours within the built environment and workplace literature.

3.1 Literature search strategy

Pilot findings generated terms that informs the literature search strategy as follows:

1. Search terms: Terms for understanding the user, work and spatial typological behaviours includes the following in the Boolean search:
 - a. Collaboration consumption, collaborative theory, collaborative access, access-based consumption, creative consumption, collaborative workplace, collaborative work, creative work.
2. Database consultation: Consulted peer-reviewed journal databases: Beginning with Google scholar and University College London (UCL) library, search extends to other journal databases, such as, Scopus, UCL library, Jstor, Emerald, Mendeley and Google scholar.
3. Search refinement: Further refining the search result focus on citations and downloads with high frequency. Chosen literature focus on the literature relevance to the study interest and theories of new consumption practices associated with twenty-first century work in their use of alternative workplaces, of which coworking literature was substantial.
4. Publication year: This search strategy prioritises peer-reviewed publications between 2010 -2020.

3.2 Collaborative consumption theory and its access-based expressions

Collaborative consumption (CC) does not hold a unified definition (Table 3.1). Although studies (listed in Table 3.1 below) agree that collaboration activities

involve at least two parties, their expressions of consumption vary. Felson and Spaeth (1978) and Botsman and Rogers (2011) scope CC with broad consumption activities related to economic goods or services. The former loosely delineates these activities, while the latter itemises them with sharing, bartering, swapping, and renting. Later studies like Belk (2014) and Perren and Grauerholz (2015) further deconstruct and narrow consumption activities by highlighting access routes to CC. These routes include acquisition and distribution (Belk, 2014) and sharing (Perren and Grauerholz, 2015), among many others. Botsman and Rogers (2010) argue that the marketplace mediates various access models via technology enablers like the internet and apps.

Table 3.1: Definitions and Scope of Collaborative Consumption

Study	Definition	Scope
Felson and Spaeth (1978)	...those events in which one or more persons consume economic goods or services in the process of engaging in joint activities with one or more others. (p. 614)	Broad
Botsman and Rogers (2011)	traditional sharing, bartering, lending, trading, renting, gifting and swapping, redefined through technology and peer communities...enabling people to realise the enormous benefits of access to products and services over ownership, and at the same time, save money, space and time... (p. xv-xvi)	Broad
Belk (2014)	...people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation (p.1597)	Narrow
Perren and Grauerholz, (2015)	...also referred to as the 'sharing economy' because individuals are sharing access to resources (for a fee or other compensation), or 'peer-to-peer' exchange because both the service provider and recipient are individuals rather than businesses. (p.139)	Narrow

Yet, CC's definition is still contingent on the research domain and scope of enquiry. Thus, to capture its theoretical principles, forms and expressions, this section examines its contextual framework related to the previous chapter's pilot findings to sense-and meaning-make spatial access and consumption modalities.

3.2.1 Collaborative consumption theory, its mutation, and archetypes

CC is a broad church of access and consumption archetypes with niche forms. Early protagonists (Felson and Spaeth, 1978) broadly describe CC as communal events through joint activities to fulfil identified human needs (p.614). Its recent refinement by Botsman and Rogers (2011) expands its twenty-first-century application and outworking in business models like Airbnb.

Following their theory, contemporary archetypes emphasise society's routes to accessing and consuming products and services with action terms like access, sharing and collaboration (Chen, 2009; Belk, 2010, 2014; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Piscicelli, Cooper and Fisher, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Benoit *et al.*, 2017; Lyu, 2018; Akbar, 2019).

These studies are primarily sociology-led CC archetypes across management (Adler, Kwon and Heckscher, 2008; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016), consumer (Botsman and Rogers, 2010; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012), business and marketing (Belk, 2014; Benoit *et al.*, 2017; Akbar, 2019), and psychology (Lamberton, 2016) domains. Very few explore their correlation with sustainability outcomes (Edbring *et al.*, 2016; Toni *et al.*, 2016; Catulli *et al.*, 2017) or built environment relationships. Moreover, those their built environment expressions are also sociology-leaning (Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Theodoridis, Ntounis and Pal, 2017; Lyu, 2018), developing CC archetypes as AW genres (Spinuzzi, 2012; Gandini, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Babb, Curtis and Mcleod, 2018) primarily from an institutional view.

Table 3.2: Empirical spectrum of CC studies (Author's work)

Studies	Sociology	Built Environment	Sustainability
(Botsman and Rogers, 2010)	The rise of collaborative consumption		
(Botsman and Rogers, 2011)	What's mine is yours: How collaborative consumption is changing lifestyles		
(Botsman, 2012)	Trust as a currency for collaborative consumption		
(Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012)	Access-based consumption in car sharing		
(Lamberton and Rose, 2012)	Commercial sharing systems framework		
(Spinuzzi, 2012)	Co-working as an emergent collaborative activity		
(Belk, 2014)	Distinguishes between sharing and collaborative consumption		
(Merkel, 2015)	Co-working in the city		
(Perren and Grauerholz, 2015)	Collaborative consumption		
(Piscicelli, Cooper and Fisher, 2015)			Utilising collaborative consumption practices to connect values to achieve sustainability
(Rus and Orel, 2015)	Co-working as a community of work		
(Gandini, 2015)	The rise of co-working spaces		
(Lamberton, 2016)	Collaborative consumption framework		
(Lawson <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	Freedom from ownership by exploring access-based consumption model		
(Toni, Renzi and Mattia, 2016)			Connecting collaborative economy with sustainability
(Edbring, Lehner and Mont, 2016)			Attitudes to alternative models of consumption
(Kojo and Nenonen, 2016)		Finnish co-working typologies	
(Akbar, Mai and Hoffmann, 2016)	When materialistic consumers join commercial sharing systems		
(Lindblom and Lindblom, 2017)	De-ownership orientation and collaborative consumption during turbulent economic times		
(Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016)	Co-working spaces as a sharing economy trend for workplace and entrepreneurship		
(Mair and Reischauer, 2017)	Dynamics of the sharing economy		
(Benoit <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	Constructing a triadic collaborative consumption framework		
(Kojo and Nenonen, 2017)		Evolution of co-working Places	
(Akbar, 2019)	Access-based services		

Approaching CC practices in AW research to understand spatial adoption practices can have different institutional and individual interpretations and dimensions. With many studies like Spinuzzi (2012) and Spinuzzi *et al.* (2019)

following the nomothetic path, their idiographic dimension is less common. Consequently, AW study repository offers a less empirical understanding of their demand position to explicate independent or solo-style working practices in the pilot. Nevertheless, its indicative self-employed and CIS worker profile is statistically significant to U.K's working economy, with the Office for National Statistics (ONS) 2019 figures reporting a steady increase of 2.7% in teleworkers (Office for National Statistics, 2021b). This figure continues to increase with a 9.4 percentage point rise after the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic.

A steady rise in self-employment before the pandemic also suggests a previous trajectory towards independent work often associated with co-working expressions of AWs (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). Applied changes to these worker types during the pandemic resulted in their reclassification to account for their mixing self-employment with various employee statuses (Office for National Statistics, 2022b).

Accompanying these emerging working patterns and practices are their implications on workplace geographies and spatial consumption models different from existing AWs like coworking. Moreover, the new thinking necessary for effectively meeting emerging workplace provisioning remains elusive without empirically discovering what informs their spatial access and adoption. Further characterising non-traditional workplaces that the pilot outcome suggests initiates spatial demand theorisations necessary to strategically position the built environment to adapt to emergent flexible workplace demands.

3.2.2 Rise of alternatives with collaborative consumption forms

Demonstrative rise of alternatives defying norms and conventions in transport sectors— Uber, Zipcar and Blabla car, and accommodation/hospitality sectors— Airbnb exemplify collaborative consumption forms (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:109; Benoit *et al.*, 2017:223). They exist in marketplaces utilising technology platforms to temporarily match demand with existing supply to extract value from particular assets (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:106).

Collaborative working (or co-working) models permeating the commercial office sector also represent similar alternatives trends (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Merkel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016), of which WeWork is chief (Lercq-vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Roberts, 2018a). Their origins began with seeking alternative options to work independently within community groupings that quickly spiralled into their present forms (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:167-169). Business and consumer research studies represent these AW consumption practices (Spinuzzi, 2012; Gandini, 2015; Merkel, 2015; Rus and Orel, 2015; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) as spatial commodification supporting work.

Hotel lobbies, however, differ. Although lobbies are traditionally designed as waiting areas to serve paying lodgers' needs and project the hotel brand's prestige (Tallack, 1998; Thapa, 2007), pilot lobbies prove more. Pilot outcomes indicating a switch from their convention defies service business paradigms in the hospitality sector. This knowledge awakens new thinking for approaching existing but idling functional servicescapes offerings in service to the twenty-first-century workplace needs. Its absence in research presents avenues for discovering AW archetypes defying present and past conventional access and use.

Gleaning from Botsman and Rogers' (2011) argument of society's reducing appetite for traditional ownership-consumption forms to more access-based types advances the alternative routes to consuming space. Access-based consumption (AbC) philosophy, found in other scholarships like Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) and Belk (2014), are theoretical variants with narrower units of analysis for gaining a more in-depth understanding of specific CC forms. For instance, Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC conceptual model characterising their commercial car-sharing case study is a useful analytical tool for better understanding the transformational use of lobbies for work.

3.2.3 Access precedes value extraction from idling, underutilised assets

Access to idling and underutilised assets unlocks avenues for realising their value and benefits. This access position becomes even more critical in idling built spaces not owned by those seeking to extract their value to serve their workplace needs. Modern consumption practices negotiate around the burden of ownership (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:xv) and its attendant baggage (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881) to extract the value needed from assets. While this is not new, technology affords greater access to extracting value from idle assets.

Value extraction types range from continued service enjoyment to single-use experience (p.881). Botsman and Rogers (2011), Botsman (2012) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) supply language for articulating this access-based and collaborative consumption argument. They focus on values and meanings users impose on assets, deviating from the traditional ownership conventions. Their theoretical gifts are conceptual lenses of emerging consumption forms in a post-dot.com era. Nonetheless, how their conceptions of access relate to extracting collaborative work-supporting environments from lobbies is less clear.

What is clear is pilot findings indicative alignment with Botsman and Rogers' (2011:75-93) delineation of four principles undergirding CC expressions (p.95-181): critical mass, trust in strangers, belief in the commons and idling capacity. Findings suggests a critical mass of total strangers collaboratively create working ecosystems in lobbies by harnessing their spatial idling capacities. Moreover, their interpretive (Appadurai, 1996) use of lobbies echoes a shifting culture similar to Rifkin's (2000, 2014) right-to-access notion without any attendant market mediation.

Akbar (2019) uses renting to explicate market-mediated access as a dyadic practice in demand-supply economic exchanges. This practice enables consumers to gain temporary access to resources with monetary compensation (e.g. charges for co-working hotdesks). However, in non-market-mediated

systems, non-tangible benefits like social exchanges are often access compensations, familiar in lending practices (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). They echo redistribution mechanisms whereby owners extend access to their idle assets with the catalytic power of technology and social networks (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:120-150).

Such consumption conception accentuates the power of idling capacity in improving asset utility beyond its primary function. Although Botsman and Rogers (2011) enlist alternative routes to products and service consumption using this idling capacity idea, it is Rifkin (2000), Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), and Belk (2014) that focus access as a means to consumption. However, while Rifkin (2000, 2014) theorises shifts from ownership to access as new consumption forms, his 'Age of Access' theoretical construct retains an economic market mediation position that a paid-for-experience consumption type replaces ownership. Reframing this consumption route to accommodate non-market-mediated access, Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) define AbC as:

'...transactions that may be market mediated in which no transfer of ownership takes place.' (p. 881)

Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) posit that people now access and acquire consumption time with underutilised assets they previously could not afford or choose not to own (Pg. 881). Apart from erring in distancing their work from CC (Belk, 2014:1597), they deliver a valuable conceptual taxonomy for rationalising AbC consumption modes (or consumptionscapes) (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884-886). Using temporality, anonymity, market mediation, consumer involvement, type of accessed object, and political consumerism (p. 884) access dimensions to analyse their case study structurally frames the nature of commercial car-sharing. Applying these access dimensions to the epistemological framings of AW studies may initiate a better understanding of the nature and drivers of lobby access.

Sharing undergirds most CC expressions and forms. Scholarly work does not detract from sharing as an underlying practice of CC (Karmann, 2013; Rus and Orel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Edbring, Lehner and Mont, 2016; Benoit *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen, 2017; Akbar, 2019; Fiorentino, 2019a).

However, sharing has more than one route to access assets. For example, consumers accessing and sharing assets their owners intend for public or general consumption differs from those sharing assets because of their underuse and idleness. Co-working models exemplify the former, and Airbnb reflects the latter. The Airbnb model exploits spare spatial capacities of under-occupied property assets to extract their economic value while improving their utility.

Similarly, pilot outcomes suggest that workers consume idling lobbies for work purposes without the associated economic exchange in both. Spatial access and sharing approaches of this type present capabilities of market mediation and non-market mediation, with the latter unlocking:

*‘...the value of underutilised or idle assets by connecting ‘haves’ and ‘wants’ in ways that enable greater efficiency, empowerment and access’
(Sturm, 2018).*

The first part describes CC as a system of demand-supply actions, while the second suggests their implications. First, this demand-supply transactional construct entails practices and forms involving the active participation of two parties to complete a consumption loop (Felson and Spaeth, 1978). Secondly, asset efficiencies, empowerment and access are the resulting outcomes of such actions. Contextualising the above construct in the lobbies transforming into work venues comes in two parts, which this section addresses separately.

Reframing the first part with working practices in the pilot suggests specific systems unlock the value of underutilised or idle lobby servicescapes to foster relationships between lobby users (‘wants’) and lobby operators (‘haves’) (Botsman and Rogers, 2010; Botsman, 2012). The initial pilot did not indicate that hotels deploy any systems for drawing the public use of lobbies.

Possible explanations may lie in Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:881) AbC construct to further sense-make this phenomenon. What is clear is that consumers must gain access to assets before consumption is possible, although access modalities may vary. For example, some pay to access, others access via bartering, while some access assets with neither. Pilot outcomes indicate the latter, even though modern bartering or reciprocity (Goldstein, Griskevicius and Cialdini, 2011; Roethke *et al.*, 2020) might be at play. Second, accessed assets, like lobbies, already exist, but their operators allow users to repurpose them for their appropriate consumption when idling (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012).

Further clarification on whether there is unknown market-mediation access attachment is necessary, although the pilot suggests otherwise. Interpreting pilot findings with the AbC and CC constructs brings Botsman's (2012) and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) into congruency in the following reframing:

An 'asset owner' (hotel operator) grants 'users' access to their underutilised or idle asset (lobby) during a consumption window through the efficient means of technology without market mediation' (adaptation of Botsman (2012) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012)) – pilot

While Botsman (2012) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) offer conceptual positions of CC forms and their access construct, the former retains a conceptual position while the latter directly translate its position with a car-sharing study. In essence, Botsman and Rogers (2010) theorise consumption modalities applicable to a digital age that Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) model by applying dimensions that underpin access as a contingent route to consumption, bringing the latter portion of CC's definition to question.

3.2.4 CC offers a sustainability proposition when improving spatial idling capacities of idle, underutilised built assets

...in ways that enable greater efficiency, empowerment, and access"
(Botsman, 2012; Sturm, 2018)

According to Botsman and Rogers (2011:74), sustainability is an unintended consequence of CC because the initial motivation and drivers of associated practices seek to extract asset value. In this sense, the second part of CC's definition above suggests that CC practice has implications and derivatives. First, efficiency highlights how CC practices can maximise asset use and circularity to extend their lifespan by redistributing or repurposing their function (p.129). Second, empowerment refers to how resource sharing creates opportunities for self-governance, self-management, and autonomy (pp.91,135,140). Third, access dematerialises physical assets and concentrates extractable value offerings possess harnessed by ubiquitous technology tools (pp.97-110). These three derivatives connect environmental benefits to socio-economic value, with access seemingly occupying a critical position in CC.

Further, Toni, Renzi and Mattia (2016:4467-4468) and Perren and Grauerholz (2015:142) support this sustainable position, associating CC with co-working models as workers access opportunities that promote resource-efficient practices. Their language adopts Brundtland's (1987) environment, economic and social themes underpinning the consequential sustainable outcomes they suggest characterise CC. This sustainability conception raises enquiries into the implications of improving idle lobbies' utility within these thematic elements (Brundtland, 1987).

With the preceding, this study assumes an implied sustainability position (Toni, Renzi and Mattia, 2016:4475) following workers' action of extracting workplaces out of lobbies. Merkel (2015:125) also notes this sustainability as a co-working value, which Botsman and Rogers (2011:179) itemise among five tenets of this digital-rich millennial culture (p.97). However, the sustainability implications of utilising lobbies as work venues are an existing gap in empirical knowledge. However, these implications follow outcomes from an in-depth study analysis grounded in empiricism (Charmaz, 2014).

From Felson and Spaeth (1978) to Botsman and Rogers (2010), different consumption modalities highlight various means of accessing underutilised or idle assets. This distinction distinguishes specific consumption forms that piggyback off CC theories. With the CC theoretical construct, this study characterises lobbies as spatial resources possessing idling capacities (Botsman and Rogers, 2011), arguing that their operators unlock by granting free public access. What results is a customisation and collaborative creation (co-creation) of working environments. At the heart of this space use is the reckoning that hotel owners redistribute their idling lobbies (p:83-84) into other forms as users customise them into workplaces. Since built spaces are not portable, it is impossible to 'redistribute idle spaces' in the sense of tangible products that Botsman and Rogers (2011) advance.

Interpreting the pilot's spatial redistribution outcome is the switching of functional purpose as service spaces to serve workers' demands. The logic of repurposing lobbies' primary function for work indicates workers extract new value from them. However, repurposing spaces through this access-based means is less evident in built environment, sustainability, and AW studies. However, Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) consumption taxonomy offers dimensions (pp.884-886) for framing their expressions, which this review seeks to explore with extant AW studies.

Accessing idle lobbies to repurpose them into work environments inspires enquiries into their socio-economic import and sustainability implications that studies often associate with CC. Improving the resource efficiency of idling, underutilised spaces necessitate new thinking to extend such knowledge to similar spaces. Reframing underused buildings as spatial resources possessing idling capacity provokes enquiries into their untapped values to better understand their relevance in sustainability discourses. Establishing such knowledge further develops how lobbies morph from servicescapes into work-supporting milieus.

Chapter 4: The import of technology ubiquity in repurposing servicescapes to alternative workplaces

Pilot findings suggest the reinterpretation of hotel commercial service spaces into a work environment. Bitner's (1992) theory characterises such hotel service spaces as servicescape intended for meeting commercial ends. Thus, this chapter reviews the foundational import of the servicescapes literature in today's contemporary transformational workplace context as technology proliferates.

Although, Bitner's (1992) servicescape framework offers a foundational model for further analysing the pilot findings in a larger study, its emergence before the internet raises the need to explore knowledge gaps in existing studies yet to fully explore modern technologies' impact in service environments like hotels.

4.1 Literature search strategy on servicescapes and repurposing them into alternatives workplaces

To understand the hotel lobby environment as a servicescape, search strategy employed Bitner's (1992) 'servicescape' as a search term to seek out peer-reviewed literature as follows:

1. Search term: The search explores servicescapes studies to broadens current understanding of body of research in relation to workplace research domain and theoretical progression. As such, the Boolean search deploys the term 'servicescape' and 'workplace'.
2. Database consultation: Consulted peer-reviewed journal databases begins with Google scholar, ResearchGate and University College London (UCL) library, and later extended to other journal databases, such as, Scopus, UCL library, Jstor, Emerald, Mendeley and Google scholar.
3. Search refinement: Further refinement of peer-reviewed papers entails reviewing the abstracts focussing on studies on servicescapes transforming from Bitner's (1992) initial proposition in twenty-first-century context.
4. Publication year: This search strategy prioritises peer-reviewed publications between 2010 – 2022.

4.2 Repurposing servicescape into alternative workplaces

Bitner (1992) describes servicescapes as the qualities of built environment design and service staff characterising the context which houses service encounters. These environments elicit internal reactions from customers and users leading to the display of approach or avoidance behaviours. She suggests they advance the organisational goals of service businesses like hotels (pp.57-59).

Her marketing research offers a unique breadth of synthesis incorporating users' and employees' behaviours to further organisation's commercial interests (pp.60-61). Herein lies a variation of her theory to this study phenomenon of lobbies as workplace alternatives. Added to this variation is the non-identity of servicescape users in her framework. They neither have specific attributes nor typology, as is common to conceptual frameworks. Thus, applying the principles underpinning her work to lobby servicescapes to define their principal actors further reveal the users they draw.

Rarely do studies establish links between physical spaces and human behaviour, like this unprecedented scholarship (pp.58-60). The systematic outline of how physical settings influence behaviours that aid or hinder service business goals goes to the heart of consumer attraction. Further arguments pose the dependence of these servicescapes on organisational types and how users consume their offerings. For example, the physical environment service organisations like hotels constitute the consumed services their customers 'experience' (p.57).

Employing typological model (p.59) to clarify this argument sets out three servicescape forms and uses at different user-staff involvement levels. Hotels sit in the mid 'interpersonal service' category, depicting how users and staff collaborate to create service experiences housed in an elaborate servicescape. However, this is unclear from the pilot findings necessitating further exploration.

Nevertheless, this servicescape framework offers a means to discover how the lobby environment attracts working practices with their structural, stimuli and

symbolic cues. Her main conceptual contribution frames an environment-user relationship in how perceived environments elicit emotional, cognitive, and psychological responses within service businesses (p.60). In addition, each servicescape component's importance in hotel lobbies presents options for isolating relevant dimensions to explore general patterns (p.65) attributable to their usefulness as working environments.

Further, as its development precede the dotcom era, twenty-first-century factors linked to technology ubiquity are unaccounted for as influential response parameters in servicescape encounters. Therefore, delivering workplace offerings in servicescapes remains a poorly understood concept. The resulting empirical gap in academic understanding demands further refining and extending the framework to account for technology's role in promoting their secondary roles as workplace alternatives.

Past studies have built on Bitner (1992). They characterise servicescape attractor elements that yield patronage (Harris and Ezech, 2007; Naqshbandi and Munir, 2011; Avan *et al.*, 2019; Lockwood and Pyun, 2019) with Harris & Ezech, (2007) and Zomerdijs & Voss, (2010) incorporating social connotations in U.K's restaurant sector into the construct. Others wield servicescape to support their claims of workplace alternatives without engaging in empirical rigour.

Mimoun and Gruen (2021:2) exemplify studies wrongly associating hotel lobbies with emerging workplace substitutes using Griffiths and Gilly's (2012) reference to cruise ship's lobby bars and cafés (p.131). The two lobby types are distinctly dissimilar. The former exists in a static environment (land) setting for users to come and go, while the latter is dynamic, with users isolated and stationed on a different terrain (sea).

Closely related servicescape studies in the AW domain like Balakrishnan's (2017) marketing research in the co-working spatial context enriches the framework with the experiential gift co-working offers. Common to all these studies is their commercial, business and marketing affiliation, suggesting market mediation.

These are reasonable research catchments, given Bitner's (1992) theory originates from such domains. However, the built environment theoretical premise of servicescapes and their indicative flexible sympathetic accommodation of changing working practices evokes this study's enquiry. An important factor missing for rationalising this workplace possibility is technology's pervasive influence in society and how this may be eroding into servicescapes.

Thus, servicescapes' exposure to the dominating effect of technology familiar to today's societal experiences and workplaces practices provokes revisiting Bitner's (1992) framework. Employing hotel lobbies' service environments to support working practices offers grounds for discovering their applicability in twenty-first-century work philosophy. To avoid this route to discovery injudiciously limits the framework to past spatial consumption traditions without acknowledging how today's access and consumption practices and behaviours overtake their function.

Given their presence, effect, and importance in present-day culture for social interactions and work performance, discovering lobby servicescapes as 'working'-scapes meaning-makes initial pilot outcomes. Thus, in recognition of pilot lobbies accommodating public demand for flexible workplaces, this study proposes a refinement and extension of Bitner's (1992) servicescapes framework to incorporate its workplace contextual role.

Appadurai's (1996) theory supports this naming convention approach. Suffixing with '-scape' as a concept introduced by Appadurai (1996) better christens how twenty-first century working practices manifest within lobby servicescapes. Scape as a theoretical construct overrides conventional geographical thinking in social analysis. It centralises peoples' experience and understanding of their worlds to sense- and meaning-make the vicissitudes of the changing social world in specific environments (Appadurai, 1996; Salazar, 2013). Scape shifts focus from institutional-assigned spatial purposes to human action-assigned meanings and material shapes to scenes and views (Aldrich, 1966; Salazar, 2013:753). Gaining such a perspectival lens sense-makes complexities within shifting workplace

philosophy as physical borders no longer limit work production (Salazar, 2013:744-754; Felstead, 2012; Felstead and Henseke, 2017).

Drawing similarities between Appadurai's (1996) changing cultural flow of people and ideas with the shifting working cultures in new work geographies articulates how workers repurpose lobbies. Using -scape to suffix human actions of 'working' in lobbies impose deeply perspectival constructs their users inflect on them. Thus, rather than deriving a service from lobbies, qualifying them as servicescapes, extracting working capabilities from them re-qualifies lobbies as 'workingscapes'. Therefore, refining servicescapes with the term workingscape extends users' action-assigned meaning into lobbies.

Employing such a naming convention in discovering why and how lobbies fulfil workers' needs produces a work-purpose coin-face of an opposite spatial service purpose. To resituate Bitner's (1992) servicescape with Appadurai's (1996) '-scape' suffix in a work context potentiates its efficacy as a flexible framing that stretches beyond unitary service purposes. In a twist of terms, discovering 'workingscapes' in lobby servicescapes provokes the applicability of Bitner's theory in AW research (Balakrishnan, 2017). Before beginning this discovery, the following section reviews extant studies on alternative expressions of shifting workplace practices of the global ontology depicting spatial detachment of work from place geography that pilot lobbies' access and consumption imply.

Chapter 5: The state of literature on alternatives to traditional workplaces

This final literature review chapter explores the various manifestations of alternatives to the conventional workplace. It offers a typological model categorising their many forms: co-working models as the most popular, flexible models and unconventional, such as seen in the 'third spaces' literature. Overall, this chapter outlines a gradual changing workplace philosophy. As workers and their work and work practices morph into new forms, so are work geographies shifting and technology influencing all these workplace dimensions. Perhaps, the transformative use of service environments like lobby servicescapes reflect shifting trends with diminishing spatial fixity in the workplace.

5.1 Literature search strategy on alternatives to traditional workplaces

The two previous reviews indicate changing perceptions and interpretive spatial purpose. These shifts raise further enquiries into the existing body of knowledge in workplace studies exploring alternatives to the traditional workplace.

To approach this, the literature search strategy adopts the following approach:

1. Search terms: Terms for understanding the user, work and spatial typological behaviours include the following in the Boolean search:

 'coworking', 'alternative workplace', 'new workplaces', 'new office',
 'contemporary office' and 'creative work'.
2. Database consultation: Consultation of peer-reviewed journal databases begins with Google scholar, ResearchGate and University College London (UCL) library. Search extends to other journal databases, such as, Scopus, UCL library, Jstor, Emerald, Mendeley and Google scholar.
3. Search refinement: With substantial results, further refinement bounded the search to studies since the advent of the internet.

4. Publication year: This search strategy prioritised papers chosen to peer-reviewed publications between 2010 – 2022.
5. Papers are reviewed in the context of the previous review to critically appraise the research landscape across the changing behaviours in various spaces including servicescapes and how this informs the emergence of the existing alternative workplace typologies. In this sense, the study develops an ontological conception of changing world of work.

5.2 State of literature on alternatives to traditional workplaces

Generated pilot data guide this research along the suggested shifting spatial access and consumption patterns demonstrable in AW literature (e.g., Spinuzzi, 2012; Ivaldi, 2016; Di Marino and Lapintie, 2017; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Babb, Curtis and Mcleod, 2018; Buxton, 2018; Merkel, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). They highlight four principal areas of change: the worker and their work, associated work practices and patterns and work geography. Mapping them provides insights into why (drivers) and how (nature of) today's workers are moving towards lobby servicescapes for work and the applicability of the AbC models of CC theory. Reviewing existing theories and empirical expressions of modern work practices helps develop twenty-first-century flexible workplace trends. Connecting these four changing workplace vectors are ubiquitous technologies catalysing lifestyle changes with artefacts and infrastructure that support agile work.

Three emergent pilot lobby characterisations in Figure 2.4 correlate with these four principal alternative workplace ontological representations in Figure 5.1. illustrates work-related themes: workers (as users), work typology, work geography (as spatial), and working practices that connect activities present in lobbies and the ubiquitous technology enabling their reality.

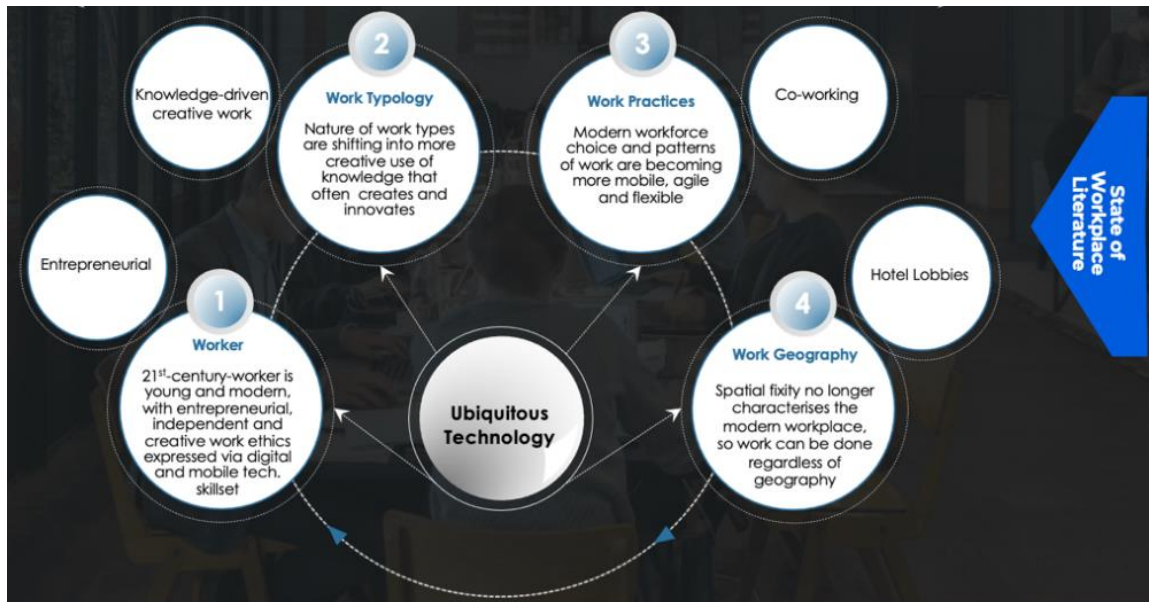


Figure 5.1: Pilot findings as reflected in the state of workplace literature

Matching the relationship between users, work and spatial with AW study themes contextualise pilot findings. Ontological accounts of changing workplace philosophies and their relationship with earlier delineated access and consumption constructs present robust knowledge pathways to why and how today’s workers access and adopt lobbies. Further employing Bardhi and Eckhardt’s (2012:884-886) field of access to understand AW adoption against pilot findings produces propositional enquiry for framing lobbies’ transformation to workplaces. Therefore, the figure above organises subsequent sections to present a body of scholarly work for explicating alternative spatial provisioning, developing ontological positions of AW studies and characterisation as work ecosystems.

5.2.1 Rising AW models accommodate portable working practices

Spatial fixity no longer characterises twenty-first-century work. Studies suggest three main alternatives to traditional workplace offerings constitute co-working models (Spinuzzi, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016, 2017; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019), variations of flexible spaces created for work (Morrison and Macky, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Göçer *et al.*, 2018) and even unconventional spaces, such as so-called ‘third spaces’ (Oldenburg, 2013; Kingma, 2016; Ng, 2016; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). Table 5.2 below exemplifies a related body of academic studies.

Waber et al. (2014) claim that over two-thirds of previously non-mobile work is geographically detached and now characterised by portable, mobile, agile, and flexible working patterns and practices (Felstead and Henseke, 2017) outside the classic office. This does not account for resulting post-pandemic changes to work with newly accepted terms like 'hybrid work' (Office for National Statistics, 2022a) with professional bodies (CIPD, 2021) recognising the need to develop new policies that embrace it. Ubiquitous mobile and digital technologies typifying today's society make this liberation from location fix possible. As such, 'everywhere is a potential place of work' (Felstead, 2012:31). According to Felstead (2012), a fixed workplace is a geographical reference to a place and space designated to each unit of worker (p.32), such as a cubicle or a desk, assigned for work performance. This location association with work differs from the traditional mobile work types characterising agriculture, transportation and construction (Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017). Outside the boundaries of these typologies are working dynamisms synonymous with Erickson and Jarrahi's (2016) agile work trends.

Figure 5.2 illustrates a growing body of research attracted to workplaces different from the classic office and their demand-supply research analytical split. Enlisted studies are frequently cited authors whose work influences and shapes AWs' ontological and epistemological positions and revolve around three main spatial themes: co-working, flexible, and unconventional. Analyses are overall supply leaning, even in cases where they are combined. Their supply-leaning research analysis means their users-work-spatial descriptors are supply-sourced information.

	ALTERNATIVE WORKPLACE STUDIES	RESEARCH ANALYSIS	USER DESCRIPTORS	WORK DESCRIPTORS	SPACE DESCRIPTORS
CO-WORKING	Spinuzzi, 2012, Spinuzzi et al., 2019, Moriset, 2014, Merkel, 2015, Kojo and Nenonen, 2015, Kojo and Nenonen, 2016, Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016, Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017, Kojo and Nenonen, 2017, Constantinescu and Devisch, 2018, Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016	Demand & Supply (3); Supply (6); Demand (2)	Creative, independent, freelancer, entrepreneur, mobile, self-employed, heterogeneous, small-business, consultants, new generation, remote worker, professional, knowledge worker	Creative, Knowledge work, autonomous, distributed, flexible, collaborative, freelance, home working - flexible, virtual, office work, design work (Architecture, Design, Journalism, graphic design), digital Work (software development, digital consultancy, social media work)	Creative, functional, community, social, affordable, alternative, work-home separation, modern design, organic, comfortable, temporary, purposefully-curated workspaces, technological infrastructure (internet, Wi-Fi, intranet, specific web-content, software), sharing
FLEXIBLE	Gibson, 2003, Ruostela et al., 2015, Ojala & Pyöriä, 2017, Kirk, 2018, Göçer et al., 2018, Morrison and Macky, 2017, Babb, Curtis and McLeod, 2018	Supply-Side (2); Demand (4); Supply (1)	Mobile employees (younger & newer to org), small business, peripheral worker, self-employed, teleworker	Concentrated, project-based, flexible, outsourced, short-term, part-time, informal, knowledge-intensive, autonomous work, job share, meetings, virtual	Fixed and hotdesks, WiFi, clear desk policy, storage, visual and audial privacy, open-plan, third places, secure, contractual, functional, remote, home and virtual work support space, alternative workplaces
UNCONVENTIONAL	Ng, 2016, Kingma, 2016, Mimoun and Gruen, 2021	Demand & Supply (2); Supply (1)	Mobile knowledge workers (business travelers, telecommuters from home, students, self-employed, mobile), Highly educated knowledge workers, Corporate contractors	Temporal, mobile, administrative, IT-intensive work, accounting, job counsellor, project managers, teachers, consultants, head-hunters	Accessible, varied fee, small area for work relative to space size, contemporary, autonomous spatiotemporal work container, alternative; supportive, neutral, coffee, transitional, 'in-between', social, impersonalised, privacy or predictability, co-created, communal, collaborative, people defined – networking opportunities

Figure 5.2: AW studies and their supply-leaning research description of user, work and spatial (Author's work)

Moving towards demand-led research in the transformational adoption of lobbies for work seeks to balance this position. Of the three themes, coworking attracts much scholarly attention and thus, merits an analytical understanding of its emergence and continuing development. The general body of academic arguments in this research domain popularises coworking. Nevertheless, the nature of this research area focuses on AW providers and spatial controllers.

5.2.2 Nature of AW studies

More critical decomposition of studies in Figure 5.2 shows AW studies' knowledge development stems more from a supply-leaning focus than demand. In other words, they collect more data from AW operators and owners. As a result, this approach tilts the ontological positions to favour the suppliers' perspectives of AW provisioning. For instance, Spinuzzi (2012) employs the qualitative method using interviews to answer research questions of 'what is co-working, who co-works, and why do people 'co-work'. He sources data from nine (9) co-working sites and interviews 16 proprietors and 17 users (pp. 405-406). The 'why' question is critical to understanding these emerging spatial consumption behaviours outside the traditional workplace. However, data is better gathered from the actual spatial consumers to determine the underlying spatial attractors, drivers and motivators.

Co-working also means different things to different people. Definition variations underpin this fact (Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016:321). Merkel's (2019) suggestion that co-working spans all aspects of flexible work and is not limited to designated co-working spaces exemplifies variations in interpretations. While no empiricism supports her claim, it emphasises translations applied to flexible space offerings, as design intent does not always translate to users' consumption behaviours. Along this 'supply-thick and demand-thin' research is Spreitzer, Garrett and Bacevice's (2015) approach of interviewing 30 users and 20 Founders relative to the 200 spaces visited. It contrasts studies like Merkel's (2015, 2019) commitment to the supply side in her co-working study (p.122). The direct nature of her exploratory and inductive study design correctly targets the data source. However,

her empirical work resides along the fringes of the built environment domain, with narratives and appropriate inferences of the AW nature of co-working models. More relevant studies within the built domain are more conceptual classifications (Kojo and Nenonen, 2015, 2016, 2017).

Nevertheless, all Figure 5.2 studies evidence spatial detachment associated with workplace substitutes, though mostly 'supply-side' leaning. These demand-led analyses are often case studies designed to understand suppliers' performance with less interest in users' access drivers. This study takes the position that such growing supply-focused knowledge development of AWs limits a robust understanding of their users. Demand-led analyses may further characterise users and the suitability of their spatial choice to work tasks. This approach leads to strategically positioning the built environment to respond effectively to emerging needs.

New studies may balance current research attention to deconstructing suppliers' intent at varying analytical depths with more attention invested in gaining insight into demand-inspired spatial access drivers. Pursuing hybridised methodologies to reach theoretical saturation until no new information emerges is worthwhile (e.g., Charmaz, 2002:193). Thus, this study seeks to explore the access-informed nature of lobbies consumed for work (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) in a data-generating methodology to evaluate individuals employing lobbies as their substitute offices. While AW practices are not new, the scale of their adoption captures scholarly attention with the increasing adoption of co-working spaces and growing coworking practices. Gaining some insights into their emergence is useful for backgrounding the state of AW literature.

5.2.2.1 Coworking started with community collaboration

The genesis of co-working identifies community, collaboration and entrepreneurship as foundational needs to independent working practices (Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017), emphasising the communal nature of such spaces. Its model is rooted in alternative modalities to standard structural

forms of procuring traditional workplaces to specific user grouping. They seek to eradicate the degree of isolation accompanying teleworking and coffee shop working and the lacking social camaraderie traditional workplaces offer. Spelt without the hyphen by its inventor is meant to communicate a working practice and not a spatial designation (Ivaldi, 2016). Its ideal avatar is a thirty-one-year-old freelance technology start-up founder (Rus and Orel, 2015) who creates a nurturing and collaborative environment for budding entrepreneurs like him after unsuccessfully finding one (Assenza, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Balakrishnan, 2017; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019).

While not missing the monotony and conformity of nine-to-five work, its founder reimagines a work environment possessing three critical elements of efficient office space and collaborative platforms: *community, creativity and structure* (Kojo and Nenonen, 2017). His collaboration with other self-employed colleagues experiencing the solitary tensions of autonomous working (Assenza, 2015) begins a working practice globally known as coworking. Subsequently, coworking's trending adoption and study spiked since the 2008 economic downturn, suggesting associated economic drivers with their rise.

5.2.2.2 Coworking's value proposition to workers is their leveraging communal access to space for socio-economic benefits

Bouncken and Reuschl (2016) refer to co-working as an idea of offering access to shared tangible (e.g., infrastructure) and intangible (e.g. knowledge) assets. Its concept leverages the ease of financial burden with the sociality (Spinuzzi, 2012) of participating in a collaborative spatial consumption with others. Again, this sharing ideation aligns with the previously explicated notion by Botsman and Rogers (2011) of CC expressions. Most studies, like Spinuzzi (2012) and Bouncken and Reuschl (2018), opine that such spaces elicit creativity and innovation from a communal sharing ideation characterised by independence.

The co-working concept has since morphed and become different things to different people with various definitions (Bouncken and Reusch (2016:321).

Although lacking a unified definition, it is generally accepted as an alternative to normative workplaces (Spinuzzi, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2015, 2016, 2017; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). It is also in league with popular spatial choices among worker groupings, from the self-employed to large-sized organisations (Merkel, 2015; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). While most research-focus undertake their studies at the organisational level (see Figure 5.2), changing work practices characterised by informal and freelance work necessitates an individual-level study of AW.

Co-working is psychologically appealing and connects with the social side of workers' need for community. Even Botsman and Rogers (2011) noted that co-workers described their shared workspaces in emotional expressions such as 'hubs of interactions' or 'fraternities of mutual interests' (p.169). Variations in perks and culture combining the best elements of a coffee shop (social, energetic, creative) and the best aspects of a workspace (productive, functional) characterise such spaces. Descriptors of this community of workers range from their professional designations to their psychographics.

Meanwhile, the other two AW categories, shown in Figure 5.2, are also growing in adoption. Among the many attributes characterising these spaces, their flexibility and support for mobile work remain attractive (Merkel, 2015, 2019; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016; Balakrishnan, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, technology innovations that have become highly digitised, mobile, and ubiquitous are fundamental to these changes, pervading workplace and social norms. A better grasp of AWs' emergence is to understand technology's role as an enabling tool grounding the changing work ecosystem in various milieus.

5.2.3 Ubiquitous technology enables workplace detachment and creates new opportunity spaces as alternatives to traditional offerings

Academic decomposition on technology's effect is a much-researched area focusing on businesses and organisations, from start-ups (Siegele, 2014;

Assenza, 2015; Roberts, 2018b) to small enterprises (Abazi, 2016; Assante et al., 2016; Wang, Pauleen and Zhang, 2016; Brink, 2017; Islam, Habes and Alam, 2018). Added to these is interest that spans across organisational performance (Ruostela et al., 2015; Gërguri-Rashiti et al., 2017) and the built environment (Dent and White, 1998; Arditi, Mangano and De Marco, 2015; Hoar, Atkin and King, 2017) to assess their role in a modern dispensation. They show how ubiquitous technology facilitates loosening ties between workers and fixed workplaces (Poslad, 2009; Oughton, Tyler and Alderson, 2015; Bröckling, 2016; De Wet and Koekemoer, 2016), affording capabilities to work mobile with significant spatial fluidity (Leonardi, 2011; Mogren and Thunborg, 2011; Ng, 2016; Popescu, Comanescu and Manole, 2017; Kirk, 2018). They reflect past arguments by Meyer (1955) of connections between work evolution and continuous technology advancements, resulting in new work forms fulfilling the technical requirements such innovations create (p.56).

Information and communications technology (ICT) are critical workplace tools (Tarutė & Gatautis, 2014; Lopez-Nicolas & Soto-Acosta, 2010) consisting of hardware, software, networks, and media with 'fixed' and 'mobile' features to collect, store, process, transmit, and present information (OECD 2015; Kramer et al. 2007; Williams, Mayer and Minges, 2011; Oughton, Tyler and Alderson, 2015; De Wet and Koekemoer, 2016). Mobile technology provides the flexibility workers require in a growing competitive global market by reducing the barriers created by the physicality and fixedness of workplaces.

As a result, contemporary work is becoming incompatible with conventional conceptualisations of working from designated 'fixed' locations (Lopez-Nicolas and Soto-Acosta, 2010; Tarutė and Gatautis, 2014). Workers' detachment from fixed workplace geography (Felstead, 2012; Felstead and Henseke, 2017) exemplifies disruptions in the normative work systems. Detachment connotes self-determination (Allvin *et al.*, 2011a; Felstead, 2012), self-organisation (Merkel, 2015), and self-regulation (Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021), providing a basis for understanding the need for different spatial offerings

that supports a high degree of independence and autonomy. Although the home has always been an option for such workers, not solely relying on homeworking reflects additional demands transcending work production that AW plug and fulfil.

Although there is unanimity amongst workplace scholars that ubiquitous mobile technology affords the changing nature of work practices (Orlikowski, 1992, 2007; Schaffers, Wolfgang and Pallot, 2006; Mogren and Thunborg, 2011; Biroscak, 2015; Nelson, Jarrahi and Thomson, 2017; Pajević and Shearmur, 2017; Popescu, Comanescu and Manole, 2017), very few extend their combined effects to transforming the built environment (Gibson, 2003). While past forecasts (Duffy, Laing and Crisp, 1992; Schaffers, Wolfgang and Pallot, 2006) suggest the dissolution of existing traditional boundaries of spatial fixity that prevented capabilities to work mobile, other views have arisen.

According to Mogren & Thunborg (2011), emerging mobile working capabilities is due to the structural changes to work afforded by the rise of networked mobile workers. As this trend becomes standard practice, Biroscak (2015) argues that the social context of mobile working minimises the physical dominance of traditional work tools, such as desks fixed in a specified location. Orlikowski's (2000) argument of the unintended consequences of mobile technology artefacts (hardware, software, devices, applications) against their intended purpose serves this point well. She argues that the same technology within current social practices will eventually structure users' actions. Technology ubiquity catalyses workers' detachment from fixed workplaces, allowing them to work anywhere, anytime.

ICT's role in the changing nature of work is also evident in spatial transformations in alternative spaces and their value proposition to users performing technology-intensive work types. ICT-spatial adoption link recurs in themes across AW studies and their popularity at an organisational and individual level (Spinuzzi, 2012; Spreitzer, Garrett and Bacevice, 2015; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). Even pilot participants state the need for technology infrastructure as a condition for lobby use. ICT intensity is also linked to the so-called knowledge work (Ojala and Pyöriä,

2017) and expressed as work typology in these studies to the degree that would be ontologically wrong to overlook.

Recent studies' distillation of technology's influence on work geography at the organisational level (Spinuzzi, 2012; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016) creates an empirical imbalance in the needs of the informal sector. With less attention paid to individual work patterns as self-employment and gig-work rise, how does the built environment accommodate and strategically meet these new but legitimate needs? The creative destruction and production of new jobs with the intensification of automation and machine learning will require an adaptive work environment that accommodates new work forms.

Technology tools and artefacts created to replace old ones for greater work efficiency in response to these new jobs also demand an equally responsive built environment. Studies show the intended and unintended consequences these tools bring into the workplace and associated behavioural changes to spaces. As such, what role do residual spaces play in meeting these needs, and are there idle, underutilised spatial forms that meet these needs for a more significant economic benefit? Narratives associated with alternative spatial offerings reflect a duality of their functional and experiential characterisations. However, these spaces fulfil a functional role in the context of utility. How lobbies align with this typification is unclear.

The pilot study suggests that a significant reliance on technology infrastructure (WiFi) supports study participants' ability to perform their work activities in the lobby. It threads and holds the pilot's three main elements AW studies separately characterise as synonymous with their emergence, as seen in the co-creation of lobbies into working environments. Therefore, technology enables users (or workers) (Spinuzzi, 2012; Moriset, 2014; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Kingma, 2016; Lewis, 2016; Ng, 2016) to engage in work activities (Gibson, 2003; Gibson and Luck, 2006; Merkel, 2015, 2019; De Magalhães and Trigo, 2016; Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Constantinescu and Devisch, 2018; Kirk, 2018)

within non-traditional spatial offerings (Felstead, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016, 2017; Felstead and Henseke, 2017; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017) with the facilitation of technology.

These studies, however, emphasise degrees of importance to each element without a coherent narrative of their interconnectedness. Although attributes associated with technology innovations and work shifts characterise them, what is less researched, are the nature of new unconventional space types, like lobbies and their value proposition. The connections of their users, work, why they adopt such spaces, and how the spatial composition or servicescape meets their needs are unclear.

5.2.4 AW descriptors represent autonomous, socialised and economic constructions of the twenty-first century workplace

Representative AW studies in Figure 5.2 combine social factors with economic considerations to characterise users of emergent alternative work environments. Descriptors such as independent (Spreitzer, Garrett and Bacevice, 2015; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016; Constantinescu and Devisch, 2018), entrepreneurial (Merkel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019), and creative (Spinuzzi, 2012; Moriset, 2014; Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) characterise users. Kojo and Nenonen (2016) and Morrison and Macky (2017) noted that AWs attract a generation of workers with self-determination (Allvin *et al.*, 2011a) of when and where to work.

Within the unconventional and flexible workplace genres, users are highly educated ‘knowledge’ professionals (Ruostela *et al.*, 2015; Kingma, 2016; Ng, 2016; Babb, Curtis and Mcleod, 2018) in small businesses and corporate organisations or self-employed with remote working capabilities (Morrison and Macky, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). They suggest these are heterogeneous workers (Spinuzzi, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) with changing workplace expectations and, thus, seeking

and demanding space provisions suited to their flexible working lifestyle. Further understanding these users requires appreciating the work types that these alternatives accommodate.

Richard Florida's work expands current thinking about creative workers' psychography in his theorising of their growing ranks (Florida, 2002, 2014; Florida, Mellander and Stolarick, 2011). Although his theory attracts controversies (Peck, 2005; Pratt, 2008, 2009), his influence on national policies merits exploration with recent UK national statistics supporting his theoretical position to evidence an incremental trend in the creative industries sector (CIS) (DCMS, 2016, 2018).

AW studies often associate creative, independent entrepreneurial communities seeking suitable collaborative ecosystems sympathetic to their spatial demands with the rising AW adoption. Scholars such as Spinuzzi (2012), Moriset (2014), Gandini (2015), Kojo and Nenonen (2015, 2016, 2017), Rus and Orel (2015), and Merkel (2015, 2019) are popular citations depicting these ecosystems are self-organising creatives seeking workplace offerings differentiated by flexible market-mediated access. This primary characterisation runs through their theoretical narratives in arguments of emerging neoliberal workplace substitutes. For instance, Spinuzzi (2012) suggests independent workers are principal AW patrons in his early explorations of co-working (p.420-427), while Moriset (2014) pinpoints their progenitors as creative and knowledge economy of high digital proficiency (pp.3-5).

Furthermore, Gandini (2015) identifies their unique signature as the self-employed, characterised by socialised working philosophies akin to the knowledge economy, with added precarious working patterns (pp.193-205). This precariousness underpins their drift towards more flexibly market-mediated and accessible workplace offerings that Spinuzzi et al. (2019:115) later classify.

In the same research domain, Merkel (2015) locates these self-employed users as cultural and creative industry actors (p.133). Defining their users as such supports her empirical diagnosis of their spatial choice with a consequential

informality construct linking this to prevailing unequal socio-economic conditions (Merkel, 2019:542). This construct adds weight to Spinuzzi *et al.*'s (2019:132-133) flexible market logic position, highlighting independent workers' workplace needs (Merkel, 2019:534-535) that demand suitable spatial affordances AWs fulfil.

Although she acknowledges their commodified and commercialised structure, she argues that their formation stems from their users' informal and peripatetic working conditions (pp.540-541). While this research area evolves, further characterisations of their demand profile will strengthen and improve existing empirical knowledge. Thus, accepting this rising creative economy trend begs an enquiry of the growing adoption of lobby servicescapes similar to claims of increasing AW consumption (e.g., Gandini, 2015; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Constantinescu and Devisch, 2018).

Moreover, such an enquiry has no exploratory grounding without determining those using lobbies as worksites fall outside the usual user groups (Harrison, 2002; Cook, 2020). Oluteye, McLennan, and Croxford's (2019) conference presentation from pilot findings outlines an empirical representation of lobbies' demand profile as predominantly independent creatives in Chapter 2's summary. Within the user construct is their work type since it underpins their intention to access and consume these AWs.

Work descriptors (Figure 5.2) across most AW studies associate the creative industry-type work as a primary typology within expressed AW genres. As they identify their users as 'creative workers', so do their jobs (Moriset, 2014; Merkel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). For example, in his conference paper, Moriset (2014) identifies co-working spatial networks as synonymous with creative work.

Others directly link narratives that support the increasing capabilities to work mobile, such as flexible, virtual, distributed and autonomous (Ozgür, Hua and Kenan, 2015; Ruostela *et al.*, 2015; Kingma, 2016; Ng, 2016; Morrison and Macky, 2017) to new work types. Job categories like design and digital work (Moriset,

2014; Gandini, 2015; Merkel, 2015), heavily reliant on ICT artefacts and infrastructure, are subsumed within the creative industry sector (Figure 5.2). Only a few (Gibson, 2003; Kojo and Nenonen, 2015; Morrison and Macky, 2017) indirectly refer to work expressions as creative, even though creative-leaning references support their analysis. As AW users and their work are often connected and indicated in the pilot outcome, they suggest changing nature of work is related to these emergent spaces.

Spatial descriptors have unifying themes, like supportive, communal, collaborative, and social, that connect alternative provisions with people. They all portray socialised environments that seem unusual for work. They connote spatial fluidity promoting portable working patterns. Duffy, Laing and Crisp (1992) and Markland (1995) long predicted work geography shifts and spatial fluidity in their workplace research analysis. Their speculation that increasing technology innovation would directly alter future workers' spatial needs manifests in flexible provisions. As network computing has a destabilising influence on traditional work (Duffy, Laing and Crisp, 1992:12), it affords a future workforce socio-economically acceptable alternative spatial offerings to the traditional office that changes working practices and the consequential effects on future spatial requirements (Markland (1995:20-21).

Although analysed at an organisational level, their speculations hold in today's working patterns beyond this level of analysis. While their study did not account for changes to work arrangements seen in recent trends tending towards individual work patterns, they correctly postulated the impact of technology on work. Current working practices also show an increasing trend in portable working at an individual level with rising variations of self-employment (Gimenez-Nadal, Molina and Ortega, 2012; Boeri *et al.*, 2020). In addition, large organisations are altering work arrangements to cope with economic shocks by creating temporary contracts responsible for the so-called informal sector (Merkel, 2019). As we witness these increasing manifestations of small business variations often characterised by self-

employed and temporary work contracts and what is now known as gig work, working practices and patterns are becoming portable and socially constructed.

Most of these AW models control spatial adoption either with rules of engagement or constraints associated with their design, resources, and type. For instance, Kingma's (2016:183-184) 'conceived spaces' to engender desirable behaviours suggest scripted approaches to space use that may deter specific worker typologies within the younger cohort. Their suggestion opposes their portrayal of AW use promoting independence, autonomy, and self-governance, but instructive that their study demography is older than the millennial cohort. Ng (2016) takes a different position, purporting that working in public and semi-public spaces constrains knowledge workers' cognitive work and communications.

Agreeing that such spaces promote flexible work does not translate to the conceptual representation of knowledge workers undertaking all mobile work. This area of research lacks empiricism. Gylén (2011) acknowledges valid potential drawbacks related to health and safety risks and data security when accessing the internet using unsecured wireless networks. Constraints instituted to stipulate space use are akin to traditional office provisioning, and introducing such into AWs may deter workers from seeking autonomous environments. On the other hand, it may further push them to seek spaces and places sympathetic to their flexible and agile work needs. Pilot findings did not suggest overt rules with no public access and use booking system.

Working patterns and practices have become highly socialised as AW patrons operate a mobile office and secretariat. The emergence of AWs offers a variant workplace model of this social construct, and existing studies purport alternative environments by their differentiation from traditional offerings. Studies such as Merkel (2015) describe their highly communal, flexible, and socially networked modalities against normative spaces that are increasingly unfit for a digital age. They utilise mobile devices and artefacts such as laptops as their mobile office and smartphones as their mobile secretary.

Organised digital network technology that connects and facilitates work makes these working practices possible. The portable nature of such space users means they often trade their spatial requirements for time. What they lose by not physically being in a fixed location, they gain in temporal presence across many locations digitally. A consensus amongst case study participants across most AW studies is that their work will be impossible without digital devices and an internet connection (Kingma, 2016). Narratives from pilot participants highlight this connection between access to WiFi and capabilities to work mobile.

These studies reflect an intentional design, creation and planned purpose at the outset for these alternative spaces coined with different naming conventions like third workspaces (Kingma, 2016), co-working (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019), and flexible spaces. Such intention makes their use for work non-surprising, although intersecting characterisations typify the proliferation of AW adoptions. However, alternative spaces such as lobbies with specific non-work purposes and design intent suggest shifting perceptions of spatial functional utility by hotel owners, operators, and the public.

Closely examining how studies depict AW patrons as independent and creative along a socio-economic positioning might suggest their attraction to lobbies. The relevance of these AWs studies is the import of place and spatial materiality in supporting these emerging worker types. Place characteristics inform strategic approaches to understanding and determining ecosystems these sector actors demand. As an AW genre, lobby servicescapes do not have clearly defined users. Bitner's (1992) argument of the import of service environments in supporting organisations' goals brings to question how this individuation of work flourishes in lobbies. How do their users employ the servicescapes as an instrument of work production and performance to further their goals?

Consequent to these new working practices, AW research amplifies dynamic shifts in spatial demand terrain. Reconciling the shifting nature of work philosophy and workers demonstrable with rising AW genres calls for theoretical mapping of how

these workers consume place. Placemaking strategies and policies decoupling work from geography fixity demand demonstrably flexible built environments adaptable and sympathetic to the emerging demand for flexible places. The question is whether servicescapes like lobbies bridge this built environment gap. Overall, these AW characterisations suggest changing work philosophy in various studies that Figure 5.1 outlines as it connects five key workplace themes, including the enabling influence of ubiquitous technology. Backgrounding changing work philosophy with technology ubiquity informs a better understanding of shifting access and consumption of spaces.

5.2.5 Changing Work Philosophy

Twenty-first-century work is becoming increasingly creative and knowledge-intensive, catalysed by digitisation and mobile technology. Office for National Statistics (ONS) data and the recent publications by the Creative Industries Council (CIC) (Creative Industries Council, 2022) now supports previous associations of an emerging creative industry sector class of workers by Florida (2002) with the proliferation of AWs. Amongst other definitions (Santamarina-Campos and Segarra-Oña, 2018:21), the UK defines creative industries as ‘those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property’ (DCMS, 2016). Table 5.1 below lists their various expressions and groupings.

The ONS figures below illustrate the scale of CIS’s contribution to the U.K economy, with pre-pandemic growth at five times more than other sectors (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport and Adams, N., 2020) and an annual increment of 7.6%, making three hundred and six million pounds (£306M) every day in 2018. This incremental growth suggests sweeping changes leaning toward CIS work and worker types. As these figures support rising CIS employment levels, it is difficult to ignore the import of Florida’s (2002) theory, given the non-biased nature of the ONS report.

Table 5.1: Changes in Employment in the Creative Industry Sector (CIS)

Creative Industries Group	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	% Change 2014-15
1. Advertising and marketing	148,000	144,000	155,000	167,000	182,000	9.6%
2. Architecture	94,000	89,000	94,000	101,000	90,000	-11.2%
3. Crafts	9,000	7,000	8,000	8,000	7,000	-15.5%
4. Design and designer fashion	102,000	117,000	124,000	136,000	132,000	-2.9%
5. Film, TV, video, radio and photography	211,000	240,000	232,000	228,000	231,000	1.6%
6. IT, software and computer services	483,000	558,000	574,000	607,000	640,000	5.5%
7. Publishing	211,000	223,000	198,000	193,000	200,000	3.7%
8. Museums, Galleries and Libraries	91,000	86,000	85,000	84,000	97,000	14.6%
9. Music, performing and visual arts	213,000	227,000	244,000	284,000	286,000	0.7%
Total	1,562,000	1,691,000	1,713,000	1,808,000	1,866,000	3.2%

U.K's digital, culture, media and sports department released 2019 employment data suggesting it accounts for 15.7% of all U.K jobs at 5.3 million. It shows increased jobs allocated to these DCMS sectors, excluding gambling (DCMS, 2018). CIS has the highest employment growth percentage at 34.5% between 2011 and 2019 (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport and Adams, N., 2020). The significance of this figure shows when compared with the U.K's overall growth rate of employment at 11.4%.

This figure remains significant despite the slight 20% degree of error associated with data quality from the ONS annual population survey analyses. Considering CIS workers generate and exploit intellectual property through their creativity, skill, and talent determines a significant portion of the U.K's wealth and job creation

(Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2016), the import of ecosystems supporting this growing group becomes an important consideration. Unfortunately, this area is not well-researched (Florida, 2002, 2014).

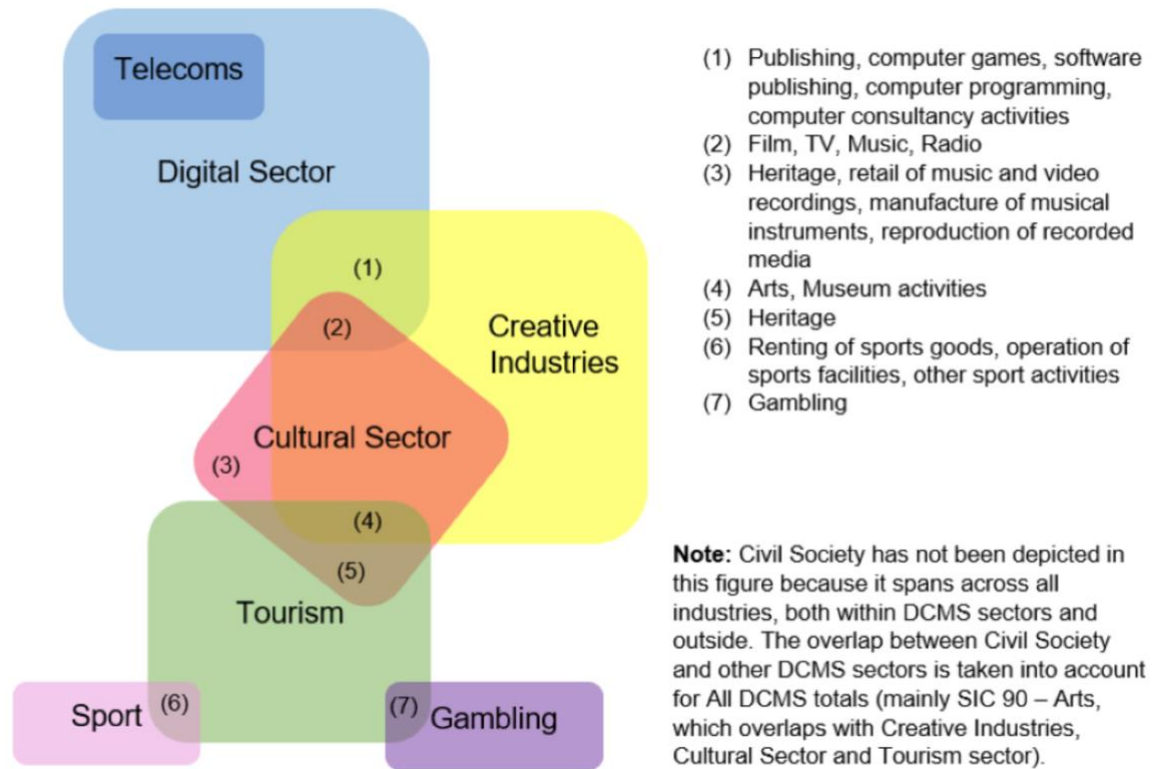


Figure 5.3: Proportions of the creative industry sector constituents (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021)

The extent of the overlap of digital, cultural and tourism in creative expressions of work (Great Britain. Office for Statistics Regulation, 2018) (see Figure. 5.3), coupled with their significant rise over the past decade, calls for the attention of built environment stakeholders. What role does place play (Florida, 2002, 2014) in supporting this growing economic contributor? Within this employment bracket are figures showing significant increments in self-employed and employed worker categories in age, gender, and working patterns (full-time and part-time) (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021) in ways similar to this research data.

ONS statistics drills further into the London share of this data pie highlighting incremental job creation of over two hundred and seventy thousand in less than ten years (Office for National Statistics, 2022c). Just under one-third of the creative

workforce is self-employed and accounts for 32% of the U.K's CIS employment compared with 16% for the economy more broadly (Creative Industries Policy and Evidence Centre, 2022). Beyond these statistical data are other arguments about the creative economy as an accurate depiction of a nation's creative contributors instead of the narrowly defined creative industries.

In an article in The British Council (Creative Industries Policy and Evidence Centre, 2022), John Newbigin argues that small and micro-businesses growing economic significance as harbingers of a holistic national economic order is at the cutting edge of creativity. The article claims that creativity is the fuel of the twenty-first century. Policies that further the cause of the creative class may be crucial determinants of success in this millennium. It defines the creative economy as those sectors specialising in using creative talent for commercial purposes (Newbigin, 2014). He echoes Florida (2002, 2014).

The implications of these statistics for the built environment lie in its adaptation and flexibility capabilities as emerging spatial access and consumption practices defy normative conventions. In addition, further clarity of changing nature of work may uncover why places outside the traditional workplace draw these workers. So, first, what is work?

5.2.5.1 Work and its changing nature

Work is a network of activities through which humans produce tangible and intangible things ((Gibbs, (2008); Heidegger, (1962) and Weiss, (2009)). It is typologically nuanced (Meyer, 1955; Brown, 1987; Polivka, 1996; Netzloff, 2014; Erickson and Jarrahi, 2016; Ng, 2016; Nelson, Jarrahi and Thomson, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017), dynamic and evolutionary (Meyer, 1955; Pearson, 1959; Brown, 1987; Drucker, 1993b, 2017, 2018; Love, 2001; Florida, 2002, 2014; Gibbs, 2008; Karlsson, 2015). Its evolution differs in meanings in different contexts and continues to be a much-researched topic due to its economic import.

Twenty-first-century studies claim work is predominantly knowledge-based (Jacobs, 2017; Popescu, Comanescu and Manole, 2017; Vuori, Helander and

Okkonen, 2018) after Drucker (1993a). He argues that postcapitalist society transcends education and posits that knowledge workers of various specialisms (p. 69-70) are the global transformational agents of societies (p. 52). Today, this transformation shows in post-industrial civilisation work that embraces the creative use of knowledge, as we witness rising CIS employment that Table. 5.1 enlists. This juncture is where Florida's (2002, 2014) theory contends that new work forms are the creative use of knowledge becomes relevant. His work offers new language for characterising modern work in ways that align with the predominance of creative work in modern times.

Without discrediting Drucker (1993), he advances the creative work conception as 'creating meaningful new forms' derived from established knowledge in ways that agree with other scholarly deconstructions of creativity (such as Csikszentmihalyi, 1998; Weisberg, 2014). Hence, both theories indicate that post-industrial work is progressively becoming a version of both, with examples in Figure. 5.3 above. This list includes knowledge-intensive sectors, such as finance and high-tech (aligning with pilot IPS' work).

However, Florida (2002, 2014) distinguished his work with attempts to correlate the economic prosperity of places and spaces to the extent of their accommodation of creative workers (pp.18-19). In his view, place geography plays an enabling role in promoting or stifling creative work (p.19-22). He opines that not acknowledging place in fostering creativity will ultimately lead to negative economic consequences. Underpinning his place-based analysis are three indices (Florida, 2014:197-199), of which technology is a standard index in other non-economic studies related to the changing nature of work (Merkel, 2015; Spinuzzi et al., 2019). The other two, talent and tolerance, are uncommon in AW studies.

However, this place-based economic posture toward espousing creative work as economically beneficial for regions has not been uncontested, attracting controversies over his conclusions (Peck, 2005; Pratt, 2008, 2009). While their critique has some merit, his influence on national policies (Evans, 2009:1014-

1016) and recent UK national statistics supporting his theoretical position to evidence an incremental trend in the creative industries sector (CIS) (DCMS, 2016, 2018) merit further exploration. Combining these with earlier rising CIS employment (Table 3.4) adds weight to his claims, making ignoring his work empirically unreasonable.

Moreover, the work-type breakdown in Figure 5.3 mirrors pilot study participants in advertising and marketing (9.9%) and IT, software, and computer services (5.5%). Coupling the preceding with other statistics suggesting significant increments in self-employed and employed worker categories in age, gender, and working patterns (full-time and part-time) (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021) raises enquiries about the spatial provisioning adequacy for increasing self-employed workers.

Statistics also indicate they are CIS workers, accounting for 32% of the U.K's CIS employment compared with 16% for the economy more broadly (Creative Industries Policy and Evidence Centre, 2022). In the average city, each creative job adds at least 1.96 non-tradable jobs over twenty years (Gutierrez Posada, D. Kitsos, T. Nathan, M. and Massimiliano, N. et al. 2021). These figures have consequential impacts on U.K's prosperity, and an equal response from the built environment to support these workers is much needed. As the pilot indicates, the occupation of lobbies by these types of workers highlights spatial demand.

Translating Drucker (1993) and Florida (2002) in twenty-first-century work language characterises modern work as creatively using knowledge to produce new forms of value. Work-related theoretical prognostications uphold both theories in an enriched repository of scholarly investment (Ruostela *et al.*, 2015; Ng, 2016; Jacobs, 2017; Nelson, Jarrahi and Thomson, 2017; Popescu, Comanescu and Manole, 2017; Holford, 2018; Vuori, Helander and Okkonen, 2018). Moreover, they often situate in Drucker's (1993) knowledge work typology with current qualifications associating capabilities to work 'mobile' with this work typology

(Erickson and Jarrahi, 2016; Inaba and Squicciarini, 2017; Jarrahi, Nelson and Thomson, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017).

The difficulty in characterising and defining knowledge work makes it challenging to utilise empirically. It means different things to different people. However, existing classifications (Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2019) of creative work support Florida's (2002, 2014) theory. More recently, AW studies position work in line with Florida's (2002, 2014) creative type (Moriset, 2014; Gandini, 2015; Rus and Orel, 2015; Merkel, 2019). While these studies debate policy implications of typological changes to work, a consequential impact is the shifting place geography of work seen in the rise of AWs (Ng, 2016; Felstead and Henseke, 2017; Merkel, 2019). Thus, an appreciable weakening tie between work geography and working practice is translating previously unqualified places as work environments. Worth discovering is whether this position applies to lobbies, by whom, why and how.

Meanwhile, studies within the culture and tourism (Banks and Hesmondhalgh, 2009; Cook, 2020; Olga, 2020), urban, geography and planning (Pratt, 2008; Moriset, 2014; Merkel, 2015, 2019), social and behavioural sciences (Perren and Grauerholz, 2015, Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017), and economic (Boeri *et al.*, 2020) domains highlight the precariousness and rising informality associated with today's work. Understanding this rise with Wright's (2018) argument of the rising 'work of the mind' encouraging short-term work justifies increasing reliance on alternative work arrangements (Polivka, 1996; WEF, 2018; Boeri *et al.*, 2020) that is mobile and flexible.

This unfolding nature of work captured in Moriset (2014:19) and Merkel (2019:531-542) connects precariousness and informal arrangements in the creative sector to emerging working landscapes AWs reflect. Merkel (2019) and Moriset (2014) discuss their implications within the scope of AW provisions for CIS workers. Thus, supplementing full-time jobs in CIS with additional informal work arrangements such as solo self-employed (SSE), self-employed workers, or small businesses

(Boeri *et al.*, 2020) is commonplace. In extreme cases, SSE is the only work arrangement type available to them (*ibid*).

While this review is not an exposé on work, a background of today's work peculiarities and changes is essential to appreciate this research interest. Much more, answering the 'why' and 'how' of where today's workers adopt for work presents a valuable premise for analysing associated impacts on built spaces. Crucial in this review is the evolution of work and its subjection to changes evident in current work types, practices and arrangements. Implications of these changes from a built environment lens are related strategic importance of places housing new work forms, questioning their flexibility and adaptation.

As CIS grows amidst work precariousness, informality and the uncertainty that characterises such arrangements, studies connect them with rising AW popularity (Moriset, 2014; Merkel, 2015, 2019). Over time, workers exercise agency to make the places suited to their work patterns and practices. However, most AW provisions are still commodified with market-mediated access conditionalities. Space is not free. Contrary to existing genres, pilot outcomes suggest the opposite, or does it? It projects non-market-mediated accessible and consumed lobby servicescapes. Its indicative non-market mediated access for work highlights a rent-free workplace access model with unknown underlying benefits.

5.2.5.2 The impact of changing work on workplace procurement provisioning results in variations in spatial offerings from no-rent to flexibly structured rent burden

Efforts to reduce space costs resulting in workplace alternatives find roots in increasing precariousness and informality (Göçer *et al.*, 2018: 227) as work becomes unpredictable and uncertain. Moving towards more flexible, agile, and mobile work patterns lessens the need for extensive contractual obligations (Duffy, Laing and Crisp, 1992; Lizieri, 2003; Regus, 2017) that typifies commercial workplace procurement. These responses vary across sectors and professions

(Dent and White, 1998; C. Leishman, N.A. Dunse, F.J. Warren, C. Watkins, 2003; Gibson, 2003; Gibson and Luck, 2006; Gylan, 2011).

In an Estates Gazette, Gylan (2011) observes how increasing capabilities to work remotely via technology enables coffee shops and hotel lobbies to offer attractive alternatives without the physical constraints and financial burden offices present. But her calls for developers and landlords to develop strategies to lure back those opting for these offerings (p.70) suggest an organisation-level focus excluding most flexible spatial consumers who are self-employed. Lizieri (2003) also highlights organisational structural changes that alter work practices by exploiting technology offerings to adjust space demand (pp.1154-1155).

While organisations should pay attention to these suggestions for their current and future staff, how these shifts impact other workers outside the boundaries of formal contracts (Merkel, 2019) is poorly understood. Creative options like serviced offices and co-working models with rising adoption suggest a growing appetite for models outside the normative provisioning. Still, differences exist between the design intent of these models to support work and those of emerging unconventional alternatives like coffee shops and hotel lobbies Table 5.2 below illustrates. Torres *et al.* (2018:215-217) refer to this space use-type as *subversive co-creation*, whereby consumers identify alternative ways to repurpose space in contradiction to the owner's original intent.

Table 5.2: AW typologies with primary design functions (Author's work)

AWs	work	social	recreation and leisure
Serviced offices	x	-	-
Co-working models	x	x	-
Coffee shops	-	x	x
Business incubators	x	x	-
Library	x	-	-
Hotel lobbies	-	x	x

Generally, an arm's length heavy contractual transaction (Lizieri, 2003) between occupier and landlord (lessee and lessor) differentiates AW provisions from traditional procurement modalities. With emerging flexible offerings challenging strictures of commercial workplace procurement, the supply-demand gap is shrinking. Users gain some economic cushion this varied, flexibly commodified, and market-mediated spatial provisioning affords. However, it is less clear what role finance plays in lobbies' publicness in fulfilling a rent-free, non-market mediated access. Differentiating these access types from commodified alternative space consumption requires an empirical analysis this study seeks to explore.

As the pilot suggests, occurrences of non-market mediated spatial access and use as extant AW studies also posit. This rent-free access parallels Merkel's (2019) argument that work venue choice correlates with rising informal work. Similar links to new work arrangements characterised by precariousness (Moriset, 2014; Gandini, 2015; Rus and Orel, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Cook, 2020; Olga, 2020) are synonymous with independent or gig work. In the context of exemplar studies in Figure 5.2, are a need to understand their manifestations in lobbies further.

5.2.6 Parametric dimensions of AWs' field of access

Leaning on Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:884-887) field of access as parametric indices for analysing the nature and drivers of accessing AWs offers six vectors: market mediation, temporality, consumer involvement, anonymity, accessed object, and political consumerism. Thus, the following sections explore these parameters through the lens of AWs and pilot findings to develop propositional dimensions for analysing access and consumption of lobbies.

5.2.6.1 Market-mediation in AWs

Access into AW models vary along market-mediated dimensions. In addition to Akbar's (2019) (see section 5.2 above) explication of market mediation, this form of access, like in renting, entails paying a fee in exchange for acquiring consumption time with use (Durgee and Colarelli O'Connor, 1995; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Studies like Kojo and Nenonen (2016: 309, 2017: 167-168) and

Curry (2019) show levels of market mediation into alternative spatial offerings, with financial flexibility differentiating them from commercial options. Still, they both represent spatial commodification. With users ranging from large organisations to solo entrepreneurs, their underlying motive is profit (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012).

Pilot data implies free, unrestricted, non-market mediated access and includes holistic spatial offerings such as WiFi technology infrastructure that supports work activities (see Chapter 2). Whereas a suite of nuanced market-mediated AW models (Gandini, 2015; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Morrison and Macky, 2017) draw new market segments seeking less draconian provisioning responsive to their flexible demands (Felstead, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Babb, Curtis and Mcleod, 2018; Torres *et al.*, 2018). Instead, pilot findings suggest a 'market' segment demanding no-fee charging spaces without clarity on the cost bearers.

To further understand this spatial freeness is to grasp reciprocity philosophies as in Goldstein *et al.* (2011) and Roethke *et al.* (2020) as grounds for attributing some indirect benefit to hotels but not outright market mediation seen in AW studies. Whether or not this spatial exploitation includes forms of barter explicated in Goldstein *et al.*'s (2011) principle of reciprocity-by-proxy is undetermined. Neither is Roethke *et al.*'s (2020) reciprocity and social proof argument tested in these study types. However, Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access dimensions refer to market mediation shaping consumer relationships with accessed objects, guiding ensuing exchange norms. Therefore, this study proposes a socialised spatial relationship akin to Torres *et al.*'s (2018) socio-spatial access form to determine the economic derivatives of users' expectation of free access and consumption of lobby servicescapes in proposition 1 in section 1.4.

5.2.6.2 Temporality in spatial access and use within AWs

The temporality variations in access duration windows for consuming alternative provisions relate closely to market mediation. For instance, co-working typologies (Kojo and Nenonen, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) offer weekly renewable, twice-a-

week helpdesk-use contract type (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019). This flexible temporal arrangement makes space commitment less binding contractually than traditional leases (BSI, 2009). Such leases represent an ownership-free, temporal, spatial access dimension (Lizieri, 2003: 1153). Some quarters offer short-term (Simmons, 2016: 65) hourly desk rentals to longer-term spatial offerings (Derrington, 1990) ranging from weekly, monthly, quarterly, and annual to lease-type contracts.

Traditional commercial workplace offerings temporarily lock users into access commitments with a false sense of ownership (Lizieri, 2003) and contractually binding obligations as though they owned the rented space for the occupation tenure. As the attendant financial overhead becomes less desirable, large to small businesses welcome more flexible, temporal tenure structures sympathetic to changing work landscape. Utilising Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) temporality access dimension to determine lobbies' temporal structure potentiates spatial access framed along asset usage and duration variations. In both instances, access can be short-term, from an extreme one-off transaction to long-term or a longitudinal socio-spatial relationship (p.884). Along these two extremes lie asset engagement variations of alternative provisions earlier discussed with Proposition 2 in section 1.4 aiming to discover temporality in lobbies.

5.2.6.3 Consumer involvement within AWs

The extent to which spatial users participate in the consumption experience (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885) is contingent on their level of involvement (Bitner, 1992; Mari and Poggesi, 2013). Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) reasoned that the consumer involvement dimension in the access field spans from limited to extensive (p.885)—experiential consumption matters in this dimension. Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) reference to these consumptionscapes as a full or self-service invoke Bitner's (1992:59) three-tiered servicescape's form and use. In this sense, variations in accessing AWs show high consumer involvement in co-creating specific models, as pilot findings indicate freedom of spatial co-creation (see section 2.2.3) in lobbies. Figure 5.4 below repurposes her model to reflect

AW variations along the customer involvement (performer of actions) and spatial complexity.

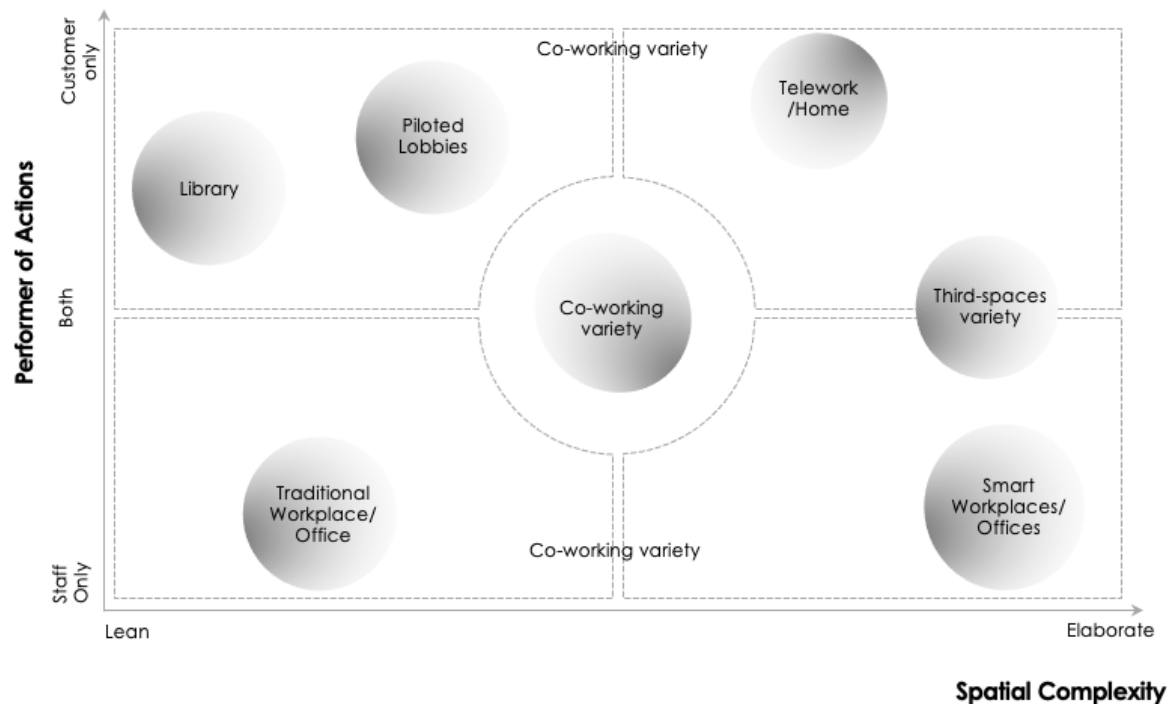


Figure 5.4: Workplace genres' servicescape co-creation model (adaptation of (Bitner, 1992) and (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012))

She acknowledged the variations within service environments and offered a typological depiction of their spectrum (Bitner, 1992:59). Interpreting this depiction with workplace models shown in Figure. 5.4 above typifies who 'performs actions' of creating an experience in their 'workscapes' and their complexity in a very general sense. A tendency towards publicness may involve high customer involvement to customise and co-create workplace experiences with expectations that users will self-serve, with minimal staff involvement. Libraries exemplify such spaces. Combining this with the spatial complexity axis is how public users consume and participate in customising elaborate environments into workplaces. This analysis is challenging to determine without users supplying spatial access, consumption and experience information. Supply-leaning AW studies highlight access variations of users' involvement based on their providers' strategic design intent. For instance, Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac (2016) describe how workers co-create spaces of high value through autonomy and empowerment that fits Bitner's (1992) self-service typology (p.59).

While this is neither a psychology nor marketing study, utilising these dimensions to understand the socio-spatial implications of AWs offers a means to interpret working practices and behaviours in lobbies. Connections between Bitner (1992) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) intersect at this socio-spatial level, where a hybridised self and interpersonal service characterise spatial access and consumption (based on pilot outcomes). Responsibilities of the 'performer of actions' in creating an AW experience rest on who chooses to engage, whether in a lean or elaborate space design. Though Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) offer implications related to consumers' commitment and identification with the accessed object and governance (p.885) on the side of asset owners, there are more links.

Yielding consumption experience to users has socio-spatial implications, and user behaviour is contingent on factors that satisfy spatial attraction and adoption criteria (Russell and Mehrabian, 1978). Although these are yet to be determined, pilot data indicate these include socio-economic and environmental factors. For example, narratives of users 'not bothered' (by staff) or having free WiFi access attract spatial access and adoption. These examples constitute other inquisitions into key consumption drivers that a broader study may treat further.

Exploring users' involvement in co-creating lobbies into workplaces with minimal staff involvement in such settings will firm users' role in this form of AW access and consumption. While pilot lobbies are less elaborate physical settings, and extended study may clarify their contribution to supporting their suggested creative worker consumers. To appraise what informs the access and consumption drivers of the transformational use of hotel lobbies, this study will explore the two axes' parameters. It will seek to determine the elaborateness of lobbies and the user and staff involvement of lobbies. Determining the two axes' parameters informs the access and consumption drivers of lobbies as Propositions 3 and 4 outlines.

Given that the pilot outcome suggests demographic and psychographic factors like users' age, employment status, and emotive relationship with lobbies' spatial

materiality are relevant to their adoption, further exploring AW users in these terms matters.

5.2.6.4 Introducing the users' modernity as AWs access parameter

Twenty-first-century workers have technology affiliations differentiating them from their predecessors. AW studies' user descriptors and ONS's corresponding demographic indicators of rising CIS (DCMS, 2016, 2018) workers indicate a growing, younger, independent, creative economy. Further to Richard Florida's theory (Florida, 2002, 2014) and extant AW study claims, the Pew Research Center's (PRC) model (Dimock, 2019) offers broad theoretical knowledge of these worker typologies. It presents a means to understand societal actions and behaviours using generational cohort analysis with birth periods.

While it has imperfections (Rahman and Tomlinson, 2018), superimposing technological advancements over the generational span reflect appreciable nuances partly responsible for formative experiences ostensibly shaping working behaviours, practices, and expectations that Figure 5.5 represents. It presents this study's pilot data within claimed compositions of today's workforce comprising five generations (Stewart et al., 2017; Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018; Nichols and Wright, 2018).

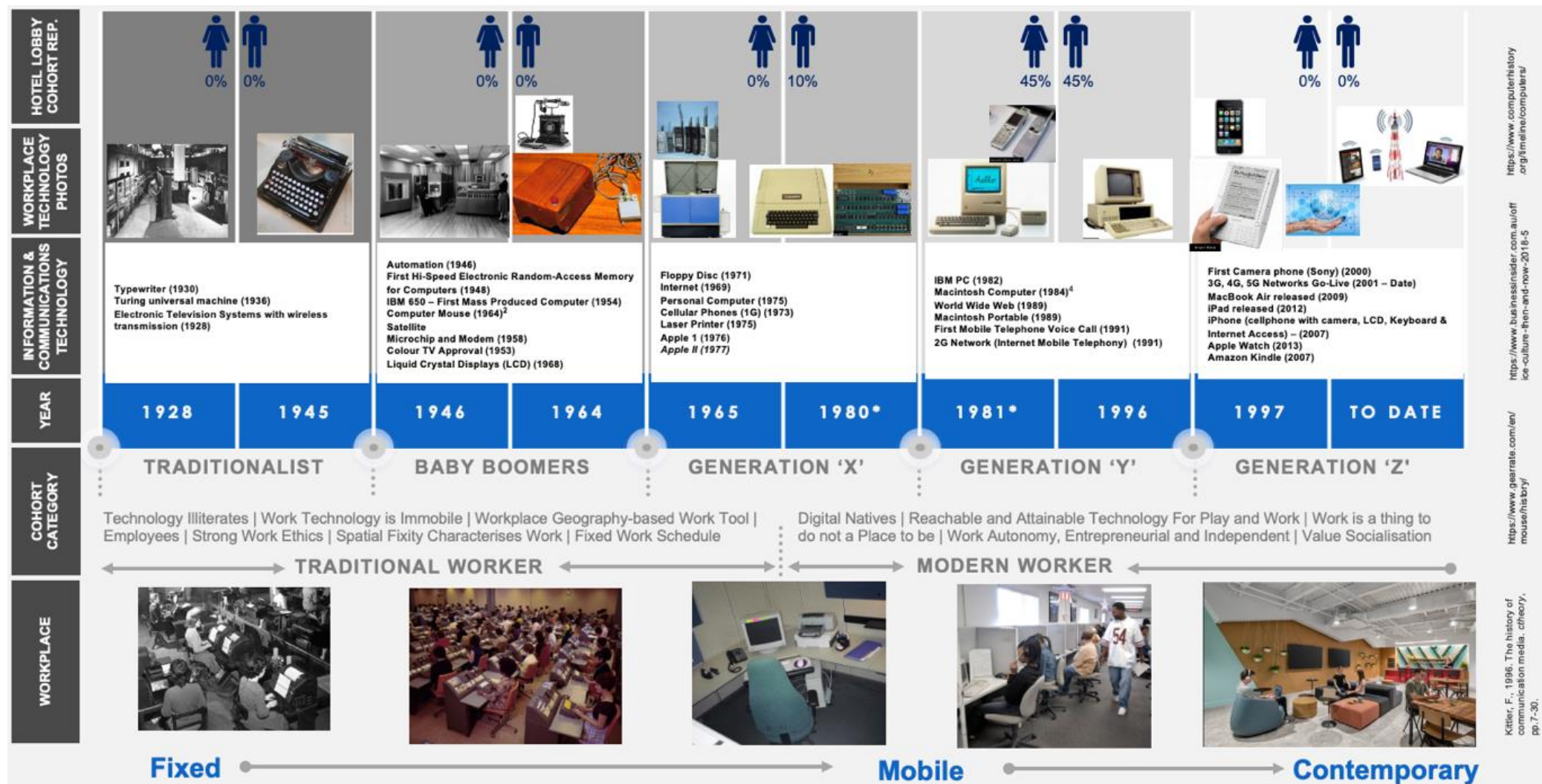


Figure 5.5: Intergenerational workplace constituency along developmental technology timeline (Author's adaptation of generational cohort based on PRC (Dimock, 2019)) with pilot data

Figure 5.5 outlines generational transitions through technology innovations impacting workplace provisioning to illustrate systematic worker detachment from geographic fixity (Felstead, 2012; Felstead and Henseke, 2017), thus, rationalising them into two primary worker typologies: traditional and modern.

Studies using the generational cohort argument to characterise today's workforce underscore their argument with technology proficiency and mastery (Nichols and Wright, 2018:177-185; Bursch and Kelly, 2014; Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018; Cahill and Sedak, 2012; Stewart *et al.* 2017). Along these lines of the argument, do they hinge workplace practices. So, those with a nontechnology orientation during the birth periods preceding the mobile and digital technology era are more traditional in their working practices, with workplace fixity defining their working hours (Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018:91-92). It seems instructive that they did not feature in the earlier pilot aligns with the notion that they are of a smaller percentage in today's highly heterogeneous workforce (Gandini, 2015; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016).

Between the generational extremes is a middle cohort, known as 'Generation X', straddling both classifications as they bridge the gap between nontechnology and technology-intensive cohorts. Born during a period of significant global technological breakthroughs, introducing them to the internet (Bursch and Kelly, 2014; Stewart *et al.*, 2017; Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018; Nichols and Wright, 2018) and information technology tools (Cahill and Sedak, 2012; Bursch and Kelly, 2014:6-7). Their openness to flexible working (Nichols and Wright, 2018) and collaborative consumption (Perren and Grauerholz, 2015:139) positions them as 'digital in-between', whereby older siblings are traditionally-inclined workers (Stewart *et al.*, 2017, p.49) and the younger, modern.

Modern workers fall within a digital nomadic demographic (Petrovits, 2014) of a highly digitised, mobile technological affinity that impacts their lifestyle, influencing work philosophy detached from geographic fix (Stewart *et al.*, 2017). Bursch and Kelly (2014:7-9) suggest their values lie in descriptors synonymous with CC's

highly socialised and community-oriented beliefs (Merkel, 2015). However, these entrepreneurial characterisations stem from distrusting centralised authority (Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018). These are the so-called 'Millennials' or Generation 'Y' and Generation 'Z' (Cahill and Sedak, 2012; Nichols and Wright, 2018) of the later cohorts in Figure 5.5. The abundance of technologies during their birth periods suggests lifestyle differences from their predecessors correlate with their high technology competence informing how they work, play and communicate (Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018; Nichols and Wright, 2018). Consequently, technologies afford their nomadic working practices that AWS studies and pilot outcomes reflect. They represent a growing workforce shaping and modernising the future workplace (WEF, 2018).

Pilot data uniquely identifies ninety per cent (90%) of study participants as 'Generation Y' (Stewart et al., 2017; Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018; Nichols and Wright, 2018), with average participants' age averaging 31 plus years. This outcome suggests lobby users are along the modern worker typology shown in Figure 5.5. However, this only represents a twenty-participant small-scale study percentage.

A more extensive study may uncover the extent of this modernity. Although related studies generalise findings from sample data varying between seventeen (17) and thirty-five (35) interview participants (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015; Kingma, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019), this study takes a position that demands further discovery, given its novelty. Furthermore, no extant research empirically argues that lobbies are workplaces, leaving no established grounding to build this enquiry. Therefore, it applies rigour in a more extensive research design to explore lobby users' modernity with Figure 5.5's model with Proposition 5 (in section 1.4).

5.2.6.5 Anonymity dimensions of AWS with the separation of proximity as an identified access dimension

Anonymity in AWS has access dimensions that shape relationships with and behaviours toward others (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884) within these

environments, characterised by partnerships, encouragement, learning, referrals, trust, and feedback (Spinuzzi, 2012:425). They consist of interpersonal or exclusive anonymity on the one hand and spatial anonymity on the other (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Anonymity is paramount in situations that demand personalised access to limit social interactions but gain exclusivity. In such cases, Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) refer to a self-to-other boundary in which socialisation is limited or controlled. Examples of exclusivity and publicness feature in co-working genres where patrons increasingly require exclusive rooms to minimise interactions with other users (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:196; Spinuzzi, 2012:427-428). Boundaries they establish lessen social encounters resulting in working alone, together. Thus, infrequent encounters among users produce a society of strangers (Simmel, 1950).

In contrast, the pilot study interprets this dimension differently. In the instance where lobby users sat together around a table, consuming and experiencing spatial offerings communally, they benefit from exclusive individual access. On the one hand, there are no formal access conditionalities for spatial access; on the other, no rules of engagement bind them to interact with other people. Interactions are serendipitous, contrary to other AW models imposing community collaboration (Merkel, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019). Fulfilling qualification criteria as a prerequisite for participating in the 'commons' consumption is exclusive and antithetical to its Roman conception (Botsman and Rogers, 2011) of publicness. Publicness in accessing spaces is a prosocial characterisation in Belk's (2010, 2013, 2014) sharing out proposition.

Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) proposition of this access dimension along the spatial anonymity basis seems misplaced. Spatial proximity may foster anonymity in car-sharing, but this differs in a non-mobile context like hotel lobbies. Their argument reflects *spatial proximity*, synonymous with geographic access dimension. Proximity may influence the convenience of spatial adoption, as pilot findings suggest (see section 2.2.3). Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) contention that assets close to the consumer's residence motivate access merits further

exploration into accessing lobbies. Perhaps underlying such a dimension are economic considerations, not just convenience.

In another context, spatial proximity may invoke juxtaposing teleworking with working in a local hub. Since telework characterises working practices conducted in workers' residences, lobbies may incentivise teleworkers to work within their locality. The convenience and economics of proximity combine associated distance implications influencing access decisions, such as transport costs with ease of access. The latter implies habitual spatial access may create a sense of *de facto* ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885), similar to having a fixed workplace. In this sense, lobbies become users' workplaces.

Decomposing AW studies mirror prosocial spatial access (Spinuzzi, 2012; Spinuzzi et al., 2019) of differentiated options ranging from publicness to exclusive extremes. Lobbies' functional role as AWs suggests prosocial access motivations reflecting the workplace definition (British Standards, 2012; ASTM, 2013). Nonetheless, the nature of lobbies in their original function connotes exclusivity (Bitner, 1992:59). Their dyadic manifestations suggest they uniquely combine exclusivity with publicness. Users secure their privacy by non-disclosure of access intent, with the liberty to access and leave at their will.

However, the extent and import of this user anonymity type as a lobby access driver are poorly understood. Added to a better understanding of proximity is isolating it as a standalone variable when analysing spatial access. This approach challenges Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:885) argument that subsuming proximity within the anonymity dimension is misplaced. This informs Proposition 6 and 7 in section 1.4. Ultimately, anonymity connotes a social dimension to spatial access, while proximity presents a geographical dimension of possible economic impact.

5.2.6.6 Type of accessed object dimensions of AWs

Access dimensions are based on the accessed asset's experiential or functional nature and materiality (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885). First, workplaces provide a specific function delineated (ASTM, 2013) to organise and support individual or

group work in enclosed or open office spaces (p.5). By implication, workplaces are functional assets with tangible objects that support work performance. This description situates AWs along the same functional characterisation.

In material terms, workplaces, in general, and AWs, in particular, provide tangible and intangible offerings to support work. Access to the built space, referred to as an AW, is to access material such as printers, scanners, desks, and intangible assets like WiFi connection, software, and other digitally shared assets. In this sense, the emphasis is collaborative since accessed assets are pooled for access within the space.

In piloted lobbies, however, there were no signs of specific workplace equipment in most AWs. For example, no printers, computers, phones or meeting rooms existed. Instead, lobbies retain their servicescape designed to serve their primary function while allowing a secondary function. The pilot demonstrates a servicescape provision and other material and non-material infrastructure (like WiFi connection). The critical consideration in this dimension (see Propositions 8, 9 and 10 in section 1.4) is identifying the content of AW packages offered for public use and to assess if these serve functional or experiential purposes, considering how these support work as free offerings.

5.2.6.7 Political consumerism dimension of AW

Rising alternative forms of consumption are laden with various motivations, of which the satisfaction of political persuasions is one (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Akbar, Mai and Hoffmann, 2016). Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012:885) advance the idea that some consumers choose access over ownership as a consumption mode to articulate and promote their ideological interests to society, business and government. How this influences lobby servicescapes' consumption is not well defined and differs through the lenses of AW consumption.

For various reasons, of which economic factors apply, organisations adopt AW. Choosing alternatives over traditional spaces by deploying strategic policies may appeal to prevailing political persuasions. In her work, Merkel (2015) points out

that the colocation of staff in big organisations has strategic implications different from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:885) suggestion. At an individual level, choosing to access AW as a mode of consumption applies if they had a choice for owning a workplace in the first place. A close comparison to this ownership is their homes. Leaving homes to work elsewhere, such as lobbies, suggest non-political motivations. This idea requires further exploration.

Furthermore, accessing lobbies for work may be a debatable antimarket consumption dimension (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885) because studies often make economic and social associations with AW choices. Rather than seeking access over ownership, pilot findings suggest *free* access over *rented* access characterises spatial appeal. Political consumerism and economic considerations may apply to this mode of spatial consumption. Seeking out free spaces in the face of rentable AW genres may be for monetary reasons, as suggested in previous sections or in addition to these two dimensions presented here.

Further enquiries about accessing lobbies for work will reveal the underlying intentions and motivations of their use. However, a plausible position is the unintended consequences of this collective access mode leaning towards an anti-market element of political consumerism. Such consumerism offers positive environmentally sustainable benefits under a collective space-share rather than working from individual homes. Furthermore, the associated social implications of such behaviours increase their spatial value as more people adopt them—the power of the commons (Botsman and Rogers, 2011).

Added to this perspective is advancing the proposition that increasing the utilisation of spaces like lobbies lessens the idling capacities of built assets, promoting better asset stewardship and spatial resource efficiencies. Achieving this sustainable resource utility lies more with asset operators and owners, although contingent on users' cooperation to make such arrangements work. User activities seen in pilot lobbies support this idea. Thus, the socio-spatial relationship implications in this access dimension shape the utilisation of spatial access and

consumption as tools to promote political intent, lifestyle practices and ideologies. Applying this idea to lobbies presents opportunities to reduce servicescapes' idleness with access to promote spatial functional efficiencies. Heritage assets are resource candidates for such efficiency experiments, but it starts with determining the underlying politics of spatial access, if any, as stated in Propositions 11 and 12 of section 1.4.

5.3 Dimensional mapping of accessing and consuming AWs

Mapping out the nature and drivers of emerging place geographies in AW forms from an access-informed purview is new to built environment research. Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) field of access facilitates exploration distilled into propositional constructs as previous sections query each dimension with AW literature. It seeks a conceptual basis for understanding alternative modes of accessing and consuming spaces for work with six access dimensions. However, it raises two additional ones extracted from extant studies as Figure 5.6 models.

This propositional construct sets parameters for contextualising why and how workers adopt lobbies as workplaces. Thus, the model below offers an analytical model for exploring dimensions of access-informed spatial consumption useful for understanding changing workplace forms to discover lobbies' transformation.

						
Access Dimension	Market-Mediated	Temporality	Consumer Involvement	Anonymity	Accessed Object	Political Consumerism
Access Drivers (Why)	Profit Vs Not-for-Profit	Short duration & use Vs Long duration & use	Limited Vs Extensive	Exclusive Vs Social	Experiential Vs Functional	Politics Vs Non-Political
Nature of Access (How)	Economic Vs Community Support	One-time transaction Vs Longitudinal transaction	Owner-only Creation Vs Consumer Co-creation	Public Vs Private	Material Vs Immaterial	Environmentally Friendly Vs Antimarket Consumption Alternative
			Proposed New Dimension: Space User – Older Cohort Vs Younger Cohort	Proposed New Dimension: Spatial Proximity – Close Vs Distant		

Figure 5.6: Dimensionalising AW access with AbC

Each access condition suggests dimensional extremes of shifting work geography expressions that underscore the changing world of work. It begins with the idea that profiteering drives market-mediated access into AWs or suggests their provision's economic (financial) or social (community support) nature. The convolution of community support with profiteering is, however, unclear in AW arguments, and this further makes lobbies' free spatial offering unclear. Perhaps, both coexist with AWs, but studies do not clearly define this position. With lobbies, this understanding is non-existent. Non-market mediated access and consumption of lobbies is an essential concept given the profit nature of the hospitality sector. Real estate is a commercial tool commodifying space (Bitner, 1992).

The pilot outcome suggests spatial idleness and underutilisation underpin decisional merit for this spatial provision approach. Hotels still deploy maintenance regimes, like spatial heating, even with idling lobby servicescapes, strategically managing hotels' public perception to further their commercial interests indirectly by granting free, non-market mediated access appeals to socially perceived altruism. Studies exploring the consequences of this approach claim that deploying altruism extracts reciprocity and social proofing values (Cialdini *et al.*, 1999; Goldstein, Giskevicius and Cialdini, 2011; Roethke *et al.*, 2020).

Consequently, the public footfall hotels attract into lobbies result in spatial reinterpretation, repurposing them into work environments. Botsman and Rogers' (2010) CC theory espouses idling capacity, and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC dimensions support this spatial conception. As workers seek publicly accessible alternatives to traditional workplace provisions, they discover and fill idling lobbies, customising them into work ecosystems as the pilot suggests. Discovering lobbies as supporting workplace needs refines and extends Bitner's (1992) servicescape theory of service environments like hotels.

Further developing knowledge of this spatial transformation into work venues contributes a different perspective to possible improvements of spare or idle spaces by repurposing them into useful forms. Such conception appeals to

sustainable aspects in built environment literature that explore repurposing existing spaces for social and economic purposes.

Thus, as work becomes more fragmented and distributed for various reasons (Djankov and Saliola, 2019; Boissonneault *et al.*, 2020) and workers become autonomous, demand for AW options and new ways to form communities and collaborate (Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) may continue to rise. Crucial to these new workplace expressions is work-digitisation and technology ubiquity. Independent and entrepreneurial working with increasing precariousness and informality (Moriset, 2014; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Merkel, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019) may further exacerbate this need.

Tendencies towards non-market mediated access into lobbies oppose co-working curated environments supporting collaborative and individual work to promote social and economic activities. As previously illustrated, autonomy characterises these AW patrons, but what remains unclear are parallels between studied AW and lobby users. Their work varies from popularised knowledge to creative typologies, and they mean different things in different contexts. Although creative work is also prevalent with AW adopters and characterises pilot study participants, further studying these users may provide robust knowledge of their attributes.

Discovering free access to lobbies suggests that the flexibility and cost variations of AWs in co-working models are problematic for some worker typologies. Pilot findings suggest these are CIS workers and agree with Merkel's (2019) argument of their socio-economic deprivation and need for a different workplace provision. They typify the progression of modern and contemporary work with Florida's (2002, 2014) theory of their rising ranks supporting these characterisations, U.K's national statistics endorses. He reasons with the generation of CIS workers and their specific interest in place attributes to inform their decision to approach or avoid access.

Bitner's (1992) work also reflects the import of this view, and Appadurai (1996) supports the notional perspectival construction of environments by their users. The

resulting place transformation seen in lobbies is much influenced by the demands of these worker typologies for non-commodified, work-supporting and socially inspiring places, among other factors. Following this non-market mediation are either extreme of access dimensions Figure 5.6 presents: temporality, consumer involvement, anonymity, accessed objects and political consumerism. Added dimensions highlight space users' demography and psychography, along with the proximity of spaces as relevant access conditions for spatial consumption. Exploring these dimensions in propositions through further studies grounded in data offers further discoveries of the less understood lobbies' transformation into alternative work environments. Each dimension appeals to varying social and economic necessities, informing spatial accessibility and consumption needing further exploration.

Methodological approaches in extant AW studies are mixed and nascent. They rely on limited but supply-thick datasets to characterise users and preferences are case studies averaging thirty (30) interviews. The resulting supply-demand imbalance suggests a lacking rigour in the knowledge development process within this growing body of research. Spinuzzi (2012) and Spinuzzi *et al.* (2019) typify these approaches. How this supports an in-depth and broad understanding of AWs and their users when subject to rigour and substantive test remains questionable. Added ethnographical studies do not effectively underpin the creative nature of workers but only indicate spaces consumed and workers' placement within them. Even Kingma's (2016) 'grounded theory' adoption fell short of the much-required saturation for his organisation-level analysis of AW spatial attributes.

Literature contributions sometimes only debate definitions and terms, offering alternative perspectives. While these enrich academic knowledge repositories, they lack the thematic quality that connects users/workers, their work and working patterns to influencing spatial detachments resulting in access and consumption of milieus like lobbies for work. Yet, Merkel's (2015, 2019) work is the closest research design that connects AWs' socio-spatial nature to the peculiarities of their autonomous, cultural and creative user groups. Bouncken and Reuschl (2016)

emphasise AW users' entrepreneurial nature, and how he connects this way of working to CC is also instructive. Although a conference paper, his CC approach was to analyse spatial consumption in a manner that transcends the types accessed over the internet (Belk, 2014).

The publication reveals the challenging nature of this research area, suggesting the sociological imperatives studies must factor into their analysis. After all, humans enliven spaces. The physicality of this CC type emphasises how sharing is synonymous with access, which co-working literature often suggests as a spatial consumption consequence. Even Botsman and Rogers (2010) (Table 3.2) identify spatial share as a CC expression. However, as previous sections delineate, Bouncken and Reuschl (2016) did not extend their analysis to explore the drivers and nature of accessing and consuming AW types in Figure 5.6 (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884-886).

Unfortunately, scholarly work on AWs adoption is less researched within the built environment domain and their sustainability implications. Not acknowledging the relevance of these challenger workplace options as symptomatic of misaligned traditional commercial workplace offerings to changing worker needs in a highly digitised society does not serve the built environment well. Changing spatial demands seen in the transformational use of piloted lobbies highlight much-needed academic research on user behaviour in built spaces. Harvested knowledge from such studies may translate into necessary built sector reforms and adaptations for retaining its strategic relevance, positioning it to shape future workplace provisioning.

5.4 Problem statement

Spatial users, their work and the spatial attributes supporting them are key theoretical elements for understanding AW access and consumption practices. As contributors to the nation's economic prosperity, all these users, as workers in full-time or solo-self-employment, require suitable environments to undertake their work. For those in non-traditional mobile work, this need becomes even more

critical with the shifting philosophy of work as flexible, autonomous, and portable. However, in the wake of the 2008 economic upheaval, rising work precariousness and informality (Merkel, 2019) with spatial autonomy and portability led to spiking demand for workplace substitutes. Without formalised structures or governmental interventions, these workers engage their creativity to survive and make life work (Assenza, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Balakrishnan, 2017; Kojo and Nenonen, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019).

Consequently, working patterns and practices are increasingly self-governed, self-organised and self-directed as highly technology-adept workforce access. They co-create work environments with owners and other practitioners experiencing a new work order. Studies characterise these workers as those in the creative industry, reported to have quintupled their contribution to the UK economy (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport and Adams, N., 2020). Richard Florida's theory arguing their rising ranks and U.K's national statistics reporting growing employment levels and their economic contribution sense makes AW studies claim and pilot findings. However, contributed economic prosperity bears no semblance to their working arrangements, especially in major cities like London (Office for National Statistics, 2022c), querying if there is a positive relationship between place and people in growing the economy (Florida, 2002, 2014) and workers' prosperity.

AWs are challenger models surfacing the strictures within the traditional commercial workplace structure and their tabled provisioning. Co-working models exemplifying AWs are popular alternatives gaining sustained scholarly attention. They reflect how normative offerings' inflexibility falls short of meeting twenty-first-century workers' demands. Their changing demographic and psychographics, linked to the increasing technological import on society, contribute to differences in work arrangements from the past (Meyer, 1955). Implied changing work and working practices demand a flexible and responsive built environment that anticipates even more future changes. These responses must cooperate with the built sector's decarbonisation efforts to reduce or eliminate its past detrimental

environmental impact. Unfortunately, this proactive approach to responding to workplace demands sustainably is less understood.

Limited studies focus on sustainable contributions of repurposing idling spaces as AW offerings. Instead, a litany of sociological AW spatial consumption conceptions floods the academic repository with various attributions outside sustainable built environmental interests. Most reflect flexible spatial commodification that panders to desires for cheaper provisions. The scarcity of studies examining strategic approaches bridging socio-economic gaps existing within informal CIS workers' spatial demands and traditional provisioning in sustainable ways highlights unexplored servicescape deployments, like lobbies supporting workers. Their possibility as work-supporting environments refines the commercial construct of Bitner's (1992) servicescapes. Extending her conception to embrace this unresearched spatial publicness to fulfil work purposes presents avenues for discovering their adoption mechanisms, repurposing them as workplaces and associated sustainability implications.

The novelty of repurposing lobby servicescapes as workplace evokes discovery research following Oluteye, McLennan, and Croxford's (2019) conference presentation Chapter 2 outlines. Further exploring this AW conception focuses on discovering and characterising lobby servicescapes' access and consumption nature, utilising the pilot study's proposed theoretical direction with three vectors. Then, contextualising these three vectors with the four elements underpinning shifting work philosophy technology ubiquity enables, it further explores five theories that help meaning-make lobbies' access and consumption construct.

First, work is changing into more creative use of knowledge that aligns with Florida's theoretical argument of the rising ranks of creative workers. Studies characterise AW consumers in highly social but unflattering economic terms (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989; Banks and Hesmondhalgh, 2009; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019; Boeri *et al.*, 2020; Olga, 2020) that appeal to adopting more flexible and cost-effective workplace options differentiated from

traditional tabled offerings. Users' lobby conception as an AW option differs from these studies' construct of spatial commodification. They suggest free, non-market mediated offerings unstructured in their availability.

Bitner's (1992) commercial outlook of servicescapes supporting service business ends differs from lobbies' amenable work-supporting access and consumption construct. To appreciate changes in twenty-first-century access and consumption activities and behaviours are Botsman and Rogers (2011) and Botsman's (2012) collaborative and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC consumption theoretical constructs. They sense-make servicescapes' temporal-spatial reinterpretation and customisation into workplaces.

Reconstructing changing servicescapes state by isolating the suffix '-scape' and replacing 'service' with 'working', the activity from Chapter 2's pilot presents the reality of lobbies when fulfilling work demands. Appadurai's (1996) 'scapes' construct supports this approach in a changing modern perspectival spatial reinterpretation. Accepting this argument implies today's modernised and creative worker reinterprets lobby servicescapes into 'working' scapes.

Thus, with the above-proposed construct, it seems appropriate to explore why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Continuing with methodological strategies the pilot adopts to maintain consistency in systematically collecting data and employing previously outlined propositions in sections 1.4 that the AbC model offers. Therefore, this study seeks to discover the nature and drivers of access-based collaborative consumption that repurposes lobby servicescapes. It focuses more on the demand-side of this spatial adoption. Further understanding existing buildings' role in meeting workplace demands from an empirical built environment study brings a unique perspective to the sector's strategic socio-economic contributions to twenty-first-century work.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter's analysis of AWs emphasises shifting spatial access and consumption practices that lobby servicescapes exemplify. It characterises AW users, work, and spatial attributes with four workplace elements and associated technology affordances. Although no one study connects all four aspects, this review argues their interconnectivity. It proposes a unifying construct underpinning shifting work philosophy as a review contribution to extant knowledge. Workplace literature offers different lenses and levels of importance to these elements: work, workers, working practices and workplace geography. However, a shift in one potentiates changes in others. Each element connects and orchestrates AW workplace manifestations that further individual and organisational objectives. While existing studies acknowledge rising creative worker typologies, they fail to connect the import of place and spatial attributes housing them to their prosperity.

Central to spatial access and consumption are interpretive use of environments that workers deem sympathetic to their specific needs and further their socio-economic situation. Pilot case study lobbies indicate non-commodified offerings to unpick this interconnected web of work practices, offering a series of discovery opportunities of non-commodified spatial offerings less typified in AW studies. Intersecting all four elements elevates technology's critical role in promoting portable working patterns and practices, characterised by mobile, agile, and recent hybrid work.

The essential nature of workplace studies stems from any nation's contingent economic strength on its population's productive work. Though work is 'the doing' of human agents based on an external necessity (Karlsson 2015), associated activities carry personal, social and economic value and importance (Latessa, 2012), requiring a responsive built environment. The many decompositions of work (Meyer, 1955; Netzloff, 2014; Brown, 1987; Polivka, 1996) correlate technological innovations to its changing philosophy, and Meyer (1955) explicitly

explicates its shifts in a continuum. Increasingly creativity and knowledge intensity in modern work is an offspring of technology innovations.

It is no coincidence that rising reports of zero-hours and gig work correlate with AW user characterisations and so-called third places. These new work arrangements imply that financial risks borne solely by these non-secure workers trigger a corresponding creative spatial adoption, perhaps to reduce their overheads. As such, sacrificing commercial space costs poses minimal risk to work performance to improve workers' economic position. Pilot lobbies Ips' narratives portray this position and so does extant literature (Merkel, 2019). However, the fallout of recent COVID-19 pandemic lockdown measures reveals a balance of economic prudence against eliminating social deprivation synonymous with teleworking (home working). Thus, as work practices suggest emerging technologically adept workers prefer autonomous and entrepreneurial work, so is the need for socialisation intensifying.

Rather than its usual lagging response to modifying the workplace, tools, models and frameworks that are effective for anticipating, evaluating, transforming, and fulfilling changing spatial preferences may secure much-needed proactive strategic positioning. It may start with understanding how existing environments, like lobby servicescape, circumvent traditional commercial workplace provisioning by creatively employing access-based approaches to attracting workers and transforming them into alternatives. This fresh perspective to offering workplaces sympathetic to workers' socio-economic needs potentiates sustainability benefits. Thus, the next chapter presents this study's research philosophy and methodological approach to discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces.

Chapter 6: Research Philosophy and Methodology

Having utilised the CGT method in the pilot (see Chapter 2), this study continues the tradition for the full-scale research. As such, this chapter outlines the philosophy and methodology undergirding this study's approach to answering the research questions and for testing its propositions.

6.1 Introduction

The diagram below depicts this doctoral research overview and captures the developmental stages, from data generation to theory building using case studies. CGT using case studies (Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 2009) is synonymous with this theory-building approach as advanced by Kathy Charmaz and Kathleen Eisenhardt (Eisenhardt, 1989; Charmaz, 1990, 2014; Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997) and expanded in the coming sections.

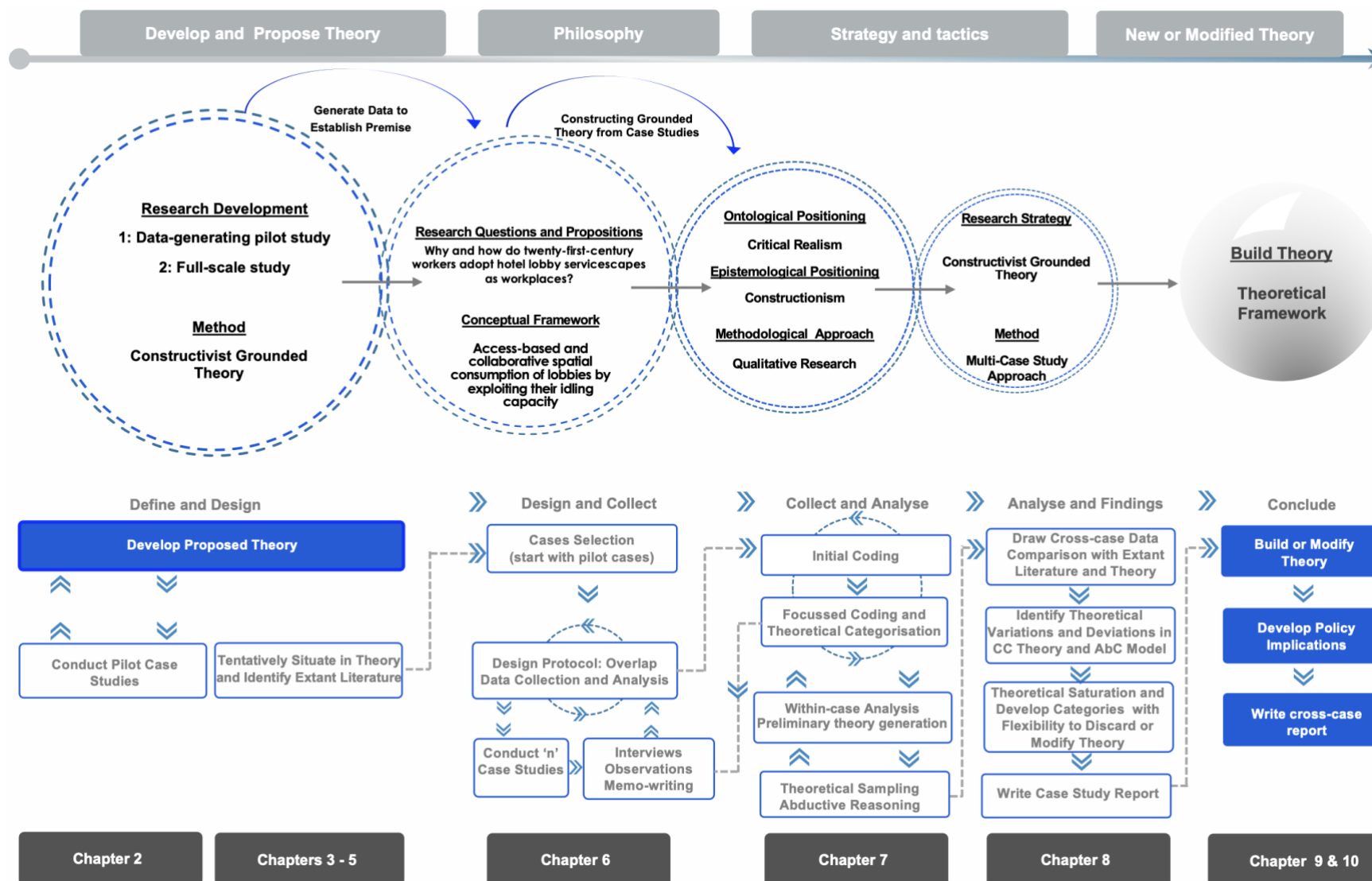


Figure 6.1: Overall Research Overview: Adapted from (Yin, 2017; Moon and Blackman, 2014; Charmaz, 2014; Eisenhardt, 1989))

6.2 Develop and propose theory

The absence of empiricism at the start necessitates a pilot detailed in Chapter 2. Figure below recaps the pilot study's discovery and data generation strategy using CGT with case studies (Robert, no date; Eisenhardt, 1989; Charmaz, 1990, 2014).

6.2.1 Define and Design: CGT pilot case study

Adopting Charmaz's (1990, 2014) first five steps in constructivist interviewing (see Chapter 2) offers a theoretical direction that Chapters 3 to 5 outlines in three states of literature. Generated data suggests access informs lobbies' spatial consumption (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) within the collaborative consumption (CC) theoretical (Felson and Spaeth, 1978; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012) premise detailed in Chapter 3.

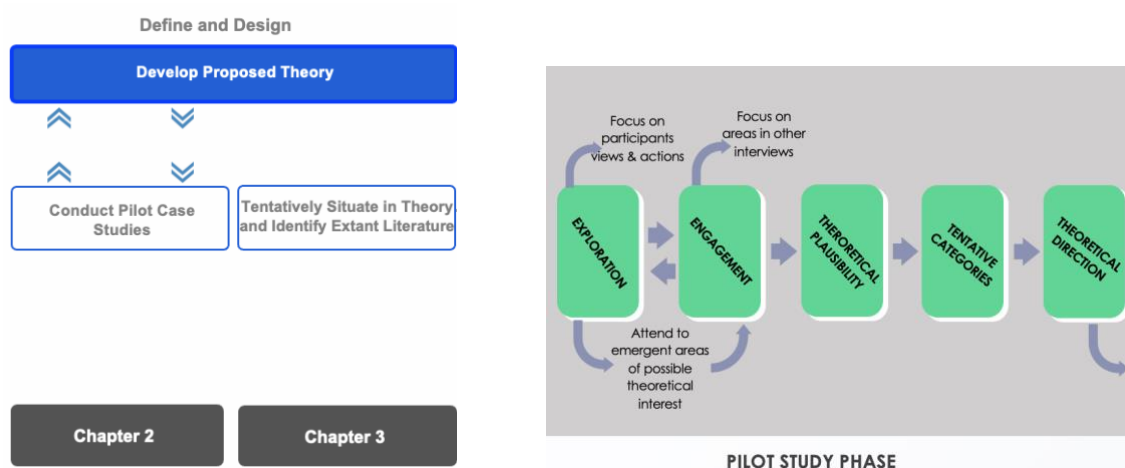


Figure 6.2: Constructing grounded theory strategy in the pilot study (adapted from Charmaz, 2014)

First, the initial CGT-based pilot in Chapter 2 outlines the 'Define and Design' stage of the research (in Figure 6.2 above) for generating initial data to situate its premise. Second, the chapter provides the guiding philosophy at research development stage. Third, it briefly focuses on generating data that offers empirical merit for further pursuing CGT qualitative research. Its outcome is a tentative theoretical direction of how idling lobbies afford spatial efficiencies that creative, independent, and entrepreneurial workers adopt. For example, pilot outcomes suggest these workers demand flexible but rent-free spaces, which hotel operators

fulfil by granting public access to their idling and underutilised lobbies during the week's working hours. These theoretical concepts require further exploration that the following sub-sections outline to answer arising research questions and sub-questions stated earlier in the introduction section.

6.2.2 Outlining research questions and approach to answering them

The interview questions below mapped against the areas of research interest in the use of lobbies are designed to generate data. Responses to them affords a comprehensive approach to answering the research questions by characterising users, work, the space used for work.

Table 6.1: Research questions and corresponding interview questions

Research Questions	
Main Question:	Why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces?
<u>Theoretical Phenomena of Interest</u>	<u>Interview Questions</u>
1 User characterisation – Lobby user typologies and their behavioural patterns and practices	Q _D : Age, Gender, Employment status and Occupation Q ₁ : What did you set out to do here today? Q _{1a} : Describe your typical day Q _{1b} : How often do you come here?
2 Work characterisation – Lobby user activities typologies within the lobby servicescapes	Q ₂ : What do you use to support your activities here and why?
3 Spatial characterisation – Spatial attributes supporting user activities in lobby servicescapes	Q _{3a} : What are the specific characteristics of this lobby that directly and indirectly support your activities here? Q _{3b} : What is missing in this space that could better support your activities?
Sub-questions:	How do users characterise themselves and the lobby servicescapes in the context of their spatial access and consumption intentions to work
1	
2	Why are these lobbies suitable for users in (1) to work

3	How do users' narratives in (1) and (2) resolve the twelve propositional access dimensions from Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) and inform a refined and extended version of Bitner's (1992) propositional framework into a typological framework that reflects why and how today's workers adopt lobby servicescapes as working environments?

6.3 Philosophy

AW studies do not formally situate their work under any philosophical paradigm. In its place, they adopt methodological approaches deemed fit for collecting data and reaching some conclusions. This approach does not serve academia well and presents no framing for new studies to further explore or challenge their philosophy and methodology. Ruostela et al. (2015) challenge studies to question existing working practices' suitability for meeting the needs of an ever-changing society. They suggest new working expressions are philosophical tools for challenging practitioners, like managers, to review existing policies (2015:384).

Extant studies do not pursue alternate views of rent-free, non-market-mediated spatial access and consumption seen in pilot lobbies. Instead, they focus on supply-leaning research designs often associated with spatial commodification (e.g. Spinuzzi, 2012; Spinuzzi et al., 2019). Thus, this study initiates a tradition offering a philosophical position within AW studies as a platform for future studies to challenge and build upon its approach or explore other methodologies.

In light of ancient Greek philosophers' gift to the research community with the two main branches of philosophy (Spirkin, 1983), Chapter 5 highlights AWs' ontological foothold, identifying truth claims about their reality and what it means for them to exist (Moon and Blackman, 2014). These studies examine AWs' nature and modalities (Jacquette, 2002) for understanding related objects underpinning their reality and characteristics (Spirkin, 1983; Olewnik and Lewis, 2006; Merkel, 2015; Ruostela et al., 2015; Kirk, 2018; Spinuzzi et al., 2019). This chapter focuses on developing study's epistemology, exploring its knowledge production (Moon

and Blackman, 2014), which limited studies demonstrate in their AW methodologies (Merkel, 2015; Kingma, 2016; Spinuzzi et al., 2019). While their philosophical premises are unclear, this study clarifies ontological beliefs and epistemological position shaping its outcome and contribution (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016).

Chapters 3 to 5 achieve the ontological requirement for setting out parameters in determining the assessment of new knowledge or the creation of value. However, owing to AW studies' nascent state in empirical knowledge development and critical understanding (Merkel, 2015; Spinuzzi et al., 2019), extant studies favour qualitative approaches using case studies to build and gain further conceptual knowledge. On the strength of this study's theoretical direction and preferred qualitative approach, it adopts a discovery strategy to potentiate new understanding of an unresearched phenomenon. It relies on the pilot study's theoretical vectors: 'Users, Work and Spatial', that extant studies embody in the materiality (e.g. Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017:407), functionality (Ivaldi, 2016), experiential (Mimoun and Gruen, 2021:3) ontologies of AWs when accommodating users' work needs.

Moreover, they bear a philosophical import, underpinning their experiential, functional and materiality ontologies (Jacquette, 2002a; Moon and Blackman, 2014). These three expressions connect to create environments supporting changing workplace demands. In this sense, this study assumes the position that users' (or workers') senses furnish experiential ontology translating into their knowledge of who accesses lobbies for work and other social connotations supporting their intentions.

Spatial represents the wholistic materiality ontology for analysing what constitutes lobby servicescapes. Work typologies (e.g., creative) convey the functional ontology that rationalises lobbies are suitable for work. While lobbies' spatial materiality is absolute, other non-physical existence (e.g., experiential ontology) and specific intangible and unquantifiable descriptors, such as 'vibe' from Chapter

2's pilot findings, are less easy to substantiate without empiricism. The qualitative approach offers means for discovering connections between social constructions of AWs' materiality in most AW studies (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Ivaldi, 2016; Spinuzzi et al., 2019).

6.3.1 Qualitative research approach

"Qualitative research is a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to self ... qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". Denzin and Lincoln (2011:3)

The above description emphasises the qualitative studies' scope as a broad church of approaches associated with different beliefs about knowledge of AWs' social world (ontology) and future discovery approaches (epistemology) (Ritchie and Lewis, 2014). By aiming to achieve an in-depth understanding of lobbies' social world, this research explores their users' social and material circumstances, experiences, and perspectives (p.23) further. It answers the research questions with this qualitative approach, starting on the premise that the world is a constructed experience of realities (Moon and Blackman, 2014). Following Tuomi (2012) to characterise users' behaviours, the research design imbibes his idea that systems and models construct abstractions of lived realities (p.746), and as such, takes the constructivist position for discovering philosophical underpinnings of users' workplace choice (ibid).

The emerging social practices that AW literature reflects are understood as emerging working practices they abstract using various analytical levels from continuous storytelling (Tuomi, 2012) from study participants' narratives. Past approaches that are more supply-leaning abstract newly emerging workplace alternative types. Co-working, from traditional work forms, associating them with new working practices exemplifies this position. Similarly, this study explores an abstraction of new work forms within lobby environments and affords new

knowledge of emerging patterns within the built environment, broadening and enriching AW literature. In this sense, it designs rich data-generating research from an in-depth exploration of lobby users’ social views, working practices, perspectives, and beliefs to discover their perspectival interpretive (Appadurai, 1996; Salazar, 2013) workplace adoption of lobbies. By adopting a naturalistic, interpretative approach from within the spaces, it considers participants’ views, after Flick (2009), to rebalance a supply-thick AW body of research.

6.3.2 Study’s ontological positioning: critical realism

Nuanced ontological paradigms exist between these two belief systems (Moon and Blackman, 2014), modified to address extreme assumptions (Ritchie and Lewis, 2014). The figure below shows this ontological spectrum and the belief systems they bring to research.

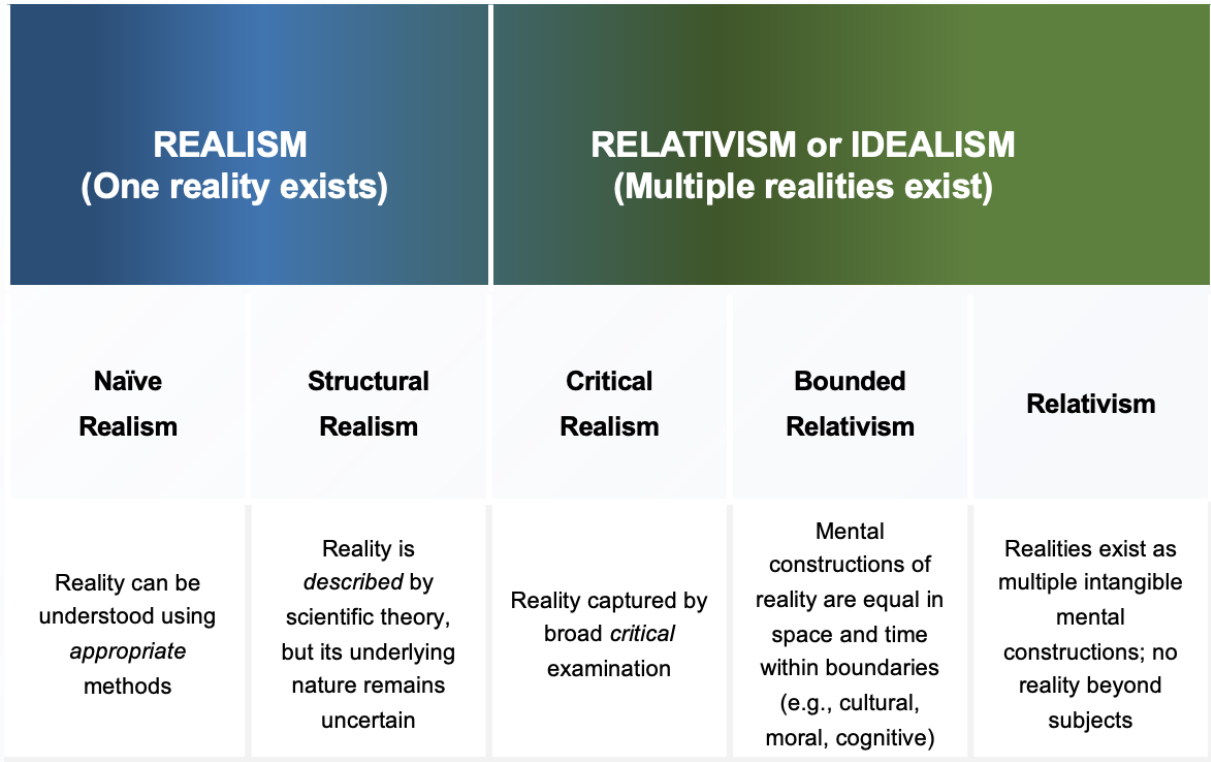


Figure 6.3: Ontological framework: What exists in the social world by which knowledge can be acquired – Adapted from (Moon and Blackman, 2014)

Situating between the two extremes of the relativism paradigm, this research takes a critical realism position, as Figure 4.3 illustrates. Adopting this position reconciles (Archer et al., 2016) ontological paradigm extremes arguing either for beliefs in

external reality and independence of people's beliefs or that reality is only knowable through the mind and social constructions (Moon and Blackman 2014:1170). Positioning ontological realities lie in an unchanging domain existing regardless of observed experiences, it then acknowledges an empirical field which the social world experiences through the senses (Ritchie and Lewis, 2014).

This belief balances lobby users' experiences with unchanging spatial realities in lobby servicescapes. Further illustrating this concept is the consideration of how falling from stepping on a banana peel may be a valid observation. The observation must recognise that there are other contributors, like gravity, to this event, to present a holistic and balanced view of observed and unobserved realities. Though unseen, gravity cannot change as it was there, regardless of the incident. As such, knowledge to the critical realist is epistemically relative and context-reliant (Bhaskar, 1983, 1989).

Positioning this study within critical realism qualifies the CGT (continuing from the pilot study approach) strategy with case studies (Charmaz, 2014:201) to construct both observable and users' interpretations empirically. Furthermore, lacking empiricism of changing servicescape phenomenon further informs this choice. Given CGT's flexibility accommodates discovering realities, it is best suited to constructionism epistemology.

6.3.3 Research's epistemology positioning: Constructionism

Knowledge production in this study and the extent of its applicability to cover all areas of research validity, scope and methods satisfies epistemological requirements (Moon and Blackman, 2014). Figure 6.4 below frames the three central epistemological positions. This discovery research assumes the constructionism position that people construct knowledge as they engage with and interpret the social world (Crotty, 1998). They may, then, construct various meanings of the same phenomenon (Moon and Blackman, 2014).

Influencing these meaning-making processes are cultural, historical, and social perspectives arising from their human community engagements (ibid) that include the researcher too (Charmaz, 1990). In this constructivist view, lobby users and operators construct their realities of lobbies with less regard for lobbies’ functional design intent. Assuming this concept suggests that each lobby user and management define and frame their perspectives, study’s objective lies in understanding their constructions in its knowledge development process (Moon and Blackman, 2014), using questions in Table 6.1. Other positions Figure 6.4 outlines defeat this possibility, given the outcomes of the previous chapters.

OBJECTIVISM	CONSTRUCTIONISM	SUBJECTIVISM
Meaning exists within an object: an objective reality in an object independent of the subject	Meaning created from an interplay between the subject and the object: subject <i>constructs</i> reality of the object	Meaning exists within the subject: subject imposes meaning on an object

Figure 6.4: Epistemology Framework: How knowledge is created – Adapted from Moon and Blackman (2014)

Objectivism or positivism assumes reality is independent of the individual mind (Moon and Blackman, 2014). It seeks causalities and explanations, emphasising generality and universality (Charmaz, 2014:229). The epistemic locus of objectivism in scientific enquiry ignores the researcher’s beliefs. It gives weight to numerical data for theorising (Cooper and Schindler 2006) and systematisation of analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), characterising quantitative research by sacrificing research details to deduce theories from ‘countable’ data. Such a position misses discovering behavioural drivers, limiting the knowledge-building purpose of an unprecedented phenomenon missing in academic literature. Thus, this hard-line objectivism position defeats opportunities for contextualising the ‘why’ and ‘how’ underpinning lobbies’ transformational use as AWs.

Contrasting objectivism is subjectivism’s opposite epistemic extreme view imposing values and meanings to fit a perceived reality (Moon and Blackman,

2014; Crotty, 1998). It also does not wholly support the notion that knowledge is acquired by sensory experience since not all knowledge is completely observable (as in the case of the gravity). Subjectivists lack clarity of the observed and observer, assuming specific purposes sense-makes the social world (ibid).

In contrast, lobby users' imposition of interpretive meaning and values of lobbies as AWs does not automatically convert into reality outside lobby operators' permission. For instance, hotels disallowing access for workplace consumption in the pilot underscore this point. It suggests that co-constructing activities of users and operators meld the user-work-spatial theoretical vectors into observable spatial transformation. So, relying on such a position leads to an unfruitful enquiry, making the subjectivism position untenable for this further enquiry. Thus, through constructionism, the interplay among spatial offerings, hotel operators (supply-side) and public worker-users (demand-side) transforming lobbies into AWs offers a holistic approach towards enquiring why workers are drawn to such milieus and how users reinterpret the lobby servicescapes to suit their working demands.

6.3.4 Theoretical perspectives and social constructivism implications

Social constructivism posits that individuals' meaning-make reality and its deployment are useful for understanding concepts and emergent behaviours (Moon and Blackman, 2014). Within this view is critical realism research that challenges assumptions made by objectivism's position that observable phenomena are binary towards a true or false confirmation (Moon and Blackman, 2014). Instead, it permits nuances associated with the changing social world while acknowledging that specific world order remains unchanged. For instance, this study believes that work is an unchanging phenomenon.

Still, approaches to work are subject to changes due to the shifting social world order associated with mechanisms and tools, like technology innovations, for producing work. In sharp contrast (Charmaz, 1990), objectivism premises its position with an initial statement of objective reality and then employs a deductive

research model to test or build its theory. As such, it moves from theory to data using numeric instruments to provide statistical confidence for validating the theory under review. The problem with this approach in this study is its lacking premise of lobbies' as workplaces in existing literature, necessitating an initial pilot.

Employing inductive strategies to build a theory for this study's phenomenon presents opportunities for deriving findings from specific populations using them, allowing data to drive theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Charmaz, 1990; Charmaz, 2014). The objectivist critiques this inductive approach by questioning the weakness attributable to statistical representations of the sample population. To this weakness, the critical realist responds with a clear research intention. Then, it seeks to understand observable behavioural patterns through collected data for reaching plausible theories explicating the phenomenon. Given its novelty, it also accommodates abductive reasoning with induction when encountering unexplainable concepts (Charmaz, 2014).

During the research process, the invocation of abduction as imaginative reasoning accounts for surprising or puzzling findings (Charmaz, 2014:200). This may challenge deductive rationale focusing on theoretical proof, yet it cooperates with the inductive operationalisation of phenomena. Pilot's employment of this cognitive process shows in raising the surprise element non-market mediation in accessing lobbies. Abduction helps researchers make an inferential 'leap' to explore theoretical explanations for the observed event in testable propositions for a plausible theoretical interpretation (Reichertz, 2007). Chapter 3 explicates these propositions with Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access dimensions.

Therefore, abduction is not a reckless utilisation of unexpected data but extends CGT beyond inductive reasoning to allow for surprising elements from research (Charmaz, 2014: 201). It forces further empirical scrutiny to challenge previous assumptions, driving research rigour and critical thinking (ibid). Deployed rigour in this process may further lead to weeding out 'unfit' data from theoretical categorisation (2014:201). Bhaskar (2014) attributes this rigour to critical realism's

attempt to account for the holistic research cycle, not its elements. In so doing, abduction improves study's theory-building with data collection strategies for reconstructing and explaining how the social world works (Vincent, 2014; Winch, 2018) within the AW scenarios of lobbies. It is neither objectivist nor subjectivist.

6.4 Methodological approach

Methodology explains the research design for this study by describing its strategy for answering the research questions through data generated employing CGT with case study strategies, after the tradition of Charmaz (1990, 2014) and combining Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin's (2009, 1981a, 1981b) approaches. Case studies answer why and how questions (Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 2009; Eisenhardt, 1989) often synonymous with the general AW literature (Ruostela et al., 2015; Kingma, 2016; Lewis, 2016; Spinuzzi et al., 2019).

This study's qualitative research design methodology differs from objectivist quantitative methodologies. Enquiring an emerging social order of a nascent domain (Merkel, 2015) that lobbies are an AW genre necessitates the methodological tools qualitative research offers. More pertinent are absent and non-empirical studies concerned with the phenomenon, making the flexibility of CGT an appropriate strategy for generating much-needed rich data. CGT poses a valuable research tool for discovering novel and unresearched phenomena.

To this end, Eisenhardt (1989:533) and Charmaz (1990, 2014) offer systematic but flexible processes for conducting this critical realism study in section 6.4. Its strategy and tactics are in keeping with generating appropriate data (Eisenhardt, 1989) for answering the main research questions (Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 2009) that the CGT method promotes for discovering new phenomena (Charmaz, 1990). The proposed approach engages access and consumption behaviours outside lobbies' original function as waiting areas (Tallack, 1998; Kazmi, 2012; Thapa, 2007). Its strategic approach circumvents legitimate access and consumption behaviours of lodging consumers (Harrison, 2002; Cook, 2020)

By this means, the study distinguishes lobby use from business travel functions that apply to paying lodgers' (Harrison, 2002; McNeill, 2008:391; Dizik, 2012; Cook, 2020) spatial adoption to support their travel intent. The activity of interest relates to lobbies' publicness as alternative work environments through multiple data points to access users' belief systems, intentions, work typology, lifestyle, attitudes, and behaviours.

6.5 Strategy and tactics

Employing the methodological tools from the protagonists of the CGT and case studies research strategies (Yin, 1981a, 2009; Eisenhardt, 1989; Charmaz, 1990; Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997), Figure 6.5 illustrates a methodical route towards constructing theories of this research phenomenon.

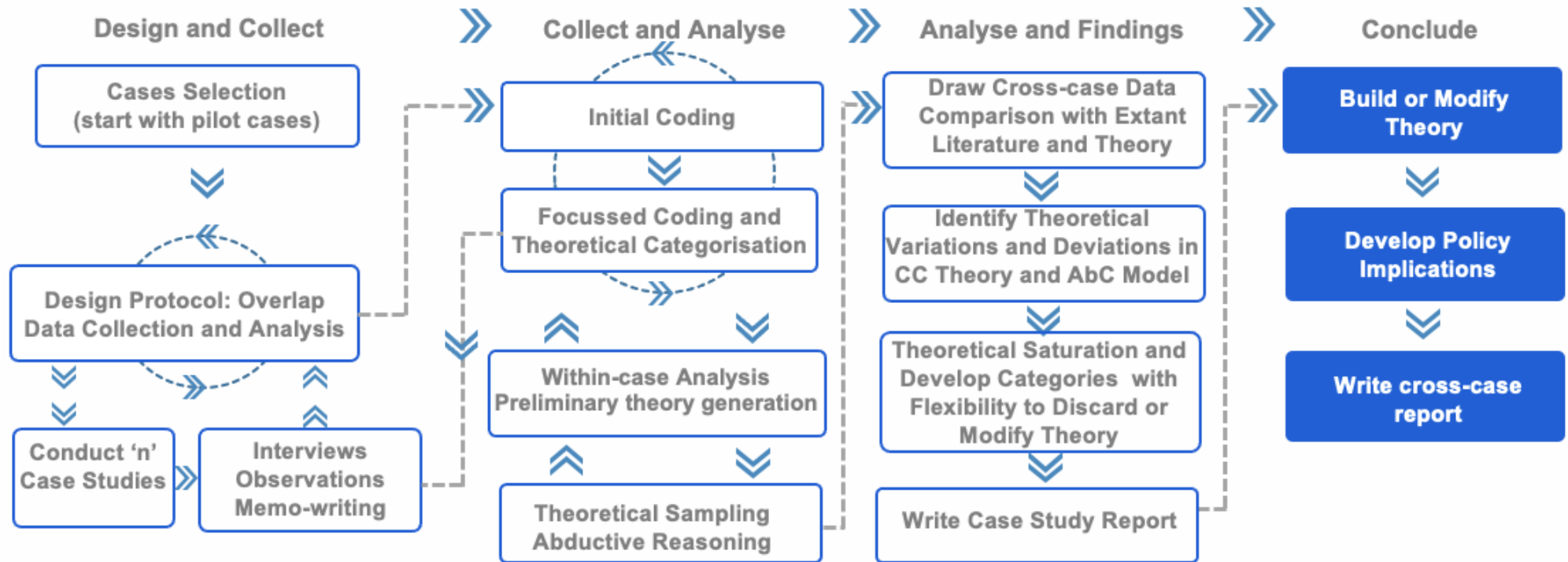


Figure 6.5: Research study method for CGT using case studies (Adapted from Charmaz, 2014, Eisenhardt, 1989 and Yin, 1981a, 2009)

6.5.1 Constructivist grounded theory (CGT) method

'CGT adopts methodological strategies such as coding, memo-writing, and theoretical sampling ... shifts its epistemological foundations and ... attends to the production, quality, and use of data, research relationships, the research situation, and the subjectivity and social locations ... Constructivist grounded theorists aim for abstract understanding of studied life and view their analyses as located in time, place, and the situation of inquiry' (Charmaz, 2014:342)

From case selection to theory development shown in the figure above, this methodological depiction focuses on establishing CGT intentions to demonstrate relationships between abstract concepts with explanations or understanding (Thornberg & Charmaz 2012:41) of their reality. The process in Figure 6.5. aims to systematically construct theoretical analysis from data (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2012:347) with Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access dimensions. It achieves this using inductive, comparative, emergent, interactive, and open-ended approaches (Charmaz, 2014:12). This inductive approach differs from Glaser & Strauss' (1967) deductive analysis. It explores AW paradigms from the inside (Flick, 2009) to gain demand-informed empirical accounts with ethnography in multiple case studies (Yin, 1981a; Eisenhardt, 1989) guided by the CGT approach.

6.5.2 Design protocol

Within this study's design protocol are the CGT principles as a guiding lens for framing theory development without locking itself within its strictures. Such an approach provides a structure for methodological purposes (Eisenhardt, 1989) set out in the subsequent sub-sections. Charmaz (2014) emphasises that adopting CGT principles (e.g., using coding, memo-writing, and sampling) with comparable methods to achieve research intentions is permissible given its flexibility (2014:12). Although transportable across epistemological and ontological positions (Charmaz, 2014), it relies on a clearly stated research stance. Thus, this research articulates its position with previous philosophical loci from which it approaches theory building.

First, its constructionism stance acknowledges specific conditions potentiate AWs manifestations are oblivious to and extend beyond the researcher's influence (Charmaz 2014:13). Second, its critical realism embraces some subjectivity, acknowledging unconscious bias may exist in its theoretical construction throughout this process (see Figure 6.5). As such, it sets parameters to limit interferences employing three data sources and extant literature for substantiating this grounded theory (Thornberg (2011:7). Charmaz (2017) also acknowledges scholarly arguments are strengthening tools for establishing research credibility (2017:308) to avoid individualistic and radical subjectivism (Charmaz, 2014). Thus, this study engages extant scholarly studies and theories to limit any bias after gaining a theoretical direction.

Defining the research question supports theory construction broadly from case studies (Eisenhardt, 1989) with added sub-questions to further explore the proposed CC and AbC's (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) theoretical application. This strategy facilitates a well-organised and focused approach to systematic data collection (Mintzberg, 1979: 585).

Relevant AWs, such as Merkel (2015) and Spinuzzi et al. (2019), define their research questions to understand co-working use through the supply-side lens. While their approaches show some flexibility in data collection, their interviewing strategy emphasis on suppliers limits the knowledge of holistic spatial access and consumption. Others, like Spinuzzi et al. (2019), first explore existing theories to seek those their research findings fit as applicable constructs. Such approaches deviate from CGT's argument against fitting outcomes with existing theory (Charmaz, 2014), which this research avoids by not superseding any newly emergent data with these predefined concepts.

A firm empirical grounding is then given to the emergent theory should the previously proposed constructs prove relevant to the data as the research progresses (Eisenhardt, 1989:536). With this structure, this study utilises specified research propositions to analyse interview responses for exploring and

triangulating ground emergent theory (1989:536). As did Eisenhardt (1989), this study recognises the challenge of achieving an ideal clean theoretical state when starting a theory-building research.

Thus, it formulates a research problem along with the pilot's theoretical direction. Using extant literature to guide the process without delimiting itself to the specificities of extant theoretical claims, it further adapts and embeds Charmaz's (2014) listed CGT process, modifying it with Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (1981a, 2009) in Figure 6.5. Even Yin (1981a) supports considering a repertoire of empirical research strategies from a pluralistic perspective since different approaches suit different conditions (p.989). Therefore, the following sections outline the steps and processes it incorporates with the CGT method.

6.5.2.1 Research Ethics

The direct and ongoing user interface within the case hotel lobbies visited necessitated an ethical approach to undertaking this research. As such, this study strictly adhered to the UCL's ethical research code of practice. It followed the process of applying for permissions to proceed with the research design (see Appendix O). Evaluated as a low-risk study provides confidence to proceed with data collection as this chapter describes.

Engaging the hotel management and lobby guests (users) involves approaching the hotel management at each visit, making introductions. Then, the researcher shares intention by explaining an interest in conducting interviews for doctoral research. While a few hotels, such as Hotels X and C1, did not welcome interviewing their lobby guests, they afforded this research opportunities of interview their staff and management.

In permissible cases to interview the lobby guests, a standard introductory narrative along with evidence of doctoral student status (ID card) offers further assurances to validate research intentions. This means to engage in interactive sessions with respondents often yields productive outcomes in which few users

expressed desire to connect further on LinkedIn professional platform. LinkedIn seems to further validate stated claims. Refer to Appendix O for details.

6.5.2.2 Design and collect: Multiple case studies

Case studies support research description, exploration, prescription and theory building because they offer robust and rich data sets from single or multiple cases (Ritchie and Lewis, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Creswell, 2015). Furthermore, they facilitate phenomenon description (Kidder, 1982) in a manner that leads to theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989 Gersick, 1988; Harris & Sutton, 1986). However, as case studies are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not populations, this study's goal focuses on theory-building. Hence, it makes analytical and not statistical theoretical generalisations (after Yin, 2018: 20-21) that it deploys using the AbC model (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) and CC theory (Botsman and Rogers, 2010) within alternative uses of idling servicescapes (Bitner, 1992). Thus, Figure 6.5 above outlines a non-linear analytical strategy with case studies towards theory-building.

Approaching the study's phenomenon aligns with the grounded theory approach (Yin, 2018:133), as case studies benefit the inductive process (Yin, 2018: 169). Utilising case studies arises from a need to empirically enquire about lobbies' access and consumption within their real-life context, given unclear boundaries existing between phenomenon (work) and context (hospitality) (Yin, 1981:98). Moreover, AW studies commonly adopt this case studies (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Fiorentino, 2019a; Spinuzzi et al., 2019). While case studies have their set of unique challenges, like data overload (Yin, 1981:98), intervening with the CGT provides an iterative analytical process for developing knowledge of the phenomenon throughout data collection. This way, the study puts data through ongoing refining to limit the plethora of variables the case study approach often combats.

6.5.3 Cases selection: Conduct ‘n’ case studies

‘Grounded theorists evaluate the fit between their initial research interests and their emerging data... do not force preconceived ideas and theories on ... data...follow leads that we define in the data, or design another way of collecting data to pursue our initial interests’ (Charmaz, 2014:32)

Four lobbies within London’s eastern and central regional corridors (marked in Figure 6.6) with characteristic boutique and lifestyle hotel typologies (Balekjian and Sarheim, 2011; Curry, 2019) form the cases this research studies. These lobbies reside within London’s creative hubs (Evans, 2009:1015). Accessibility, convenience, and geographic proximity also inform their selection to enable ongoing relationship development with the sites (Yin, 2018:107), which supports ethical approvals (see Appendix). After this tradition (Yin, 2018), the table below shows the acronyms this study applies to each hotel.

Table 6.2: Selected lobbies for CGT case studies with acronyms

Hotel	London Region	Acronyms
Hotel A	Eastern Region	AHS
Hotel B1	East Region	HHS
Hotel B2	Central Region	HHH
Hotel C1	Eastern Region	CMH

It retains chosen pilot lobbies to ensure continuity and consistency for this study, continuing data gathering within them as they fall within London’s creative boundaries in Figure 6.6 (Evans, 2009:1015). In addition, it systematically explores other lobbies from interview responses by always following emergent data (Charmaz, 2014:32). This initial population defines the set of entities from which to draw the research sample (Eisenhardt, 1989). It ensures the research continuum from the pilot while controlling extraneous variations and providing boundaries for research outcomes (1989:537). This principle promotes research resource prudence and a focused approach. Fiorentino (2019:1772-1773)

demonstrates this in the co-working space study in Rome. She specifies the research region (Rome) and population (Italian), thus, lowering extraneous variations. This approach clarifies the research domain and its operational application in particular interest groups and spatial typologies. Similarly, this study continues data collection in the London regions where sufficient data resides but flexibly explores other emerging lobbies from interview responses or other relevant data sources.

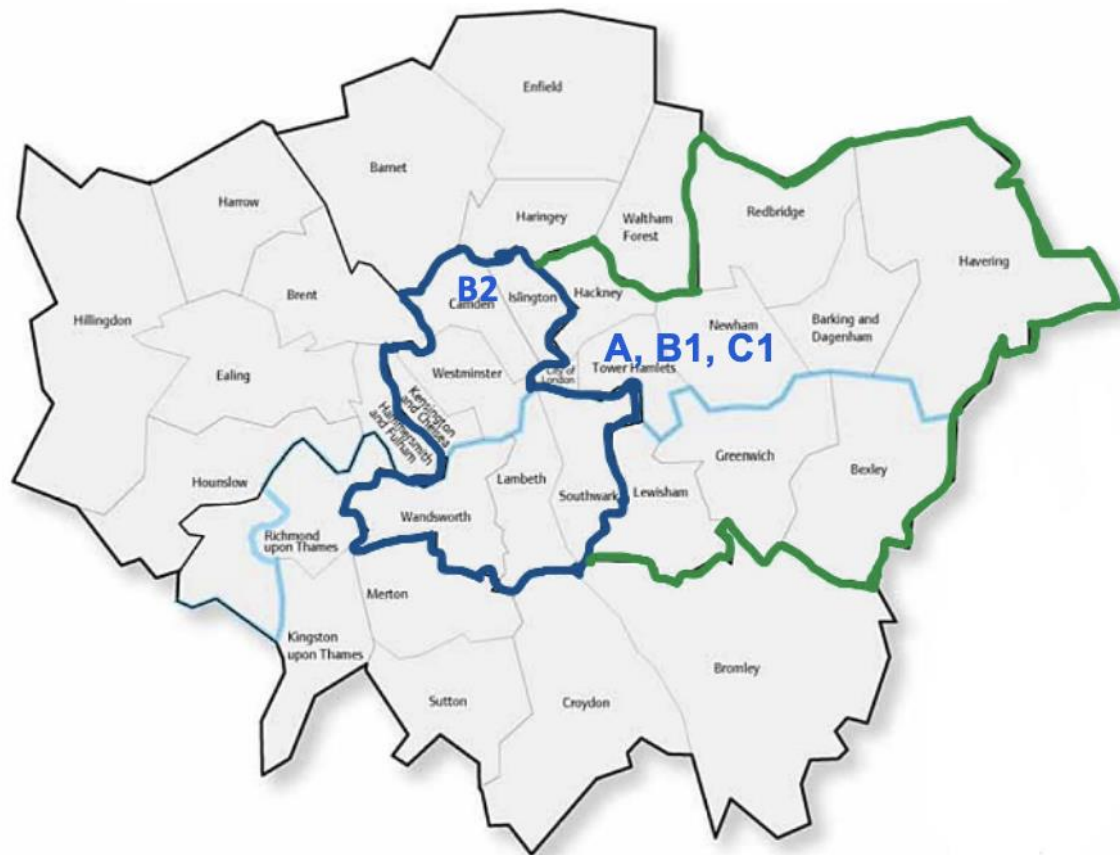


Figure 6.6: Four case lobbies on London's regional map with acronyms (Author's work that shows lobby sites are within London's creative hub (Evans, 2009:1015))

The London regional map above indicates hotels' locations with letters A to C1 identifying their acronyms. Hotels A, B1, and B2 allow the bulk of data collection by granting full, unrestricted access synonymous with their publicness. Hotel C1 only permits discourses and interviews with their staff. Relying on these cases affords this study to follow a conscientious data collection protocol (Figure 6.5).

6.5.4 Research protocols and data collection strategy

Three principal data source informs this research, consisting of printed and online documents and archival records, direct observational and participatory data, and semi-structured interviews, as Eisenhardt (1989:534) suggests. Although theory-building researchers adopt multiple data collection strategies, they are not confined to these specific tools (p.537). Study addition of other data triangulates, like online legacy and historical data, to enrich case descriptions and substantiate theoretical constructs and research propositions (Eisenhardt, 1989:533). Furthermore, approaching data collection through various sources limits any research bias and preconceptions from this study (ibid).

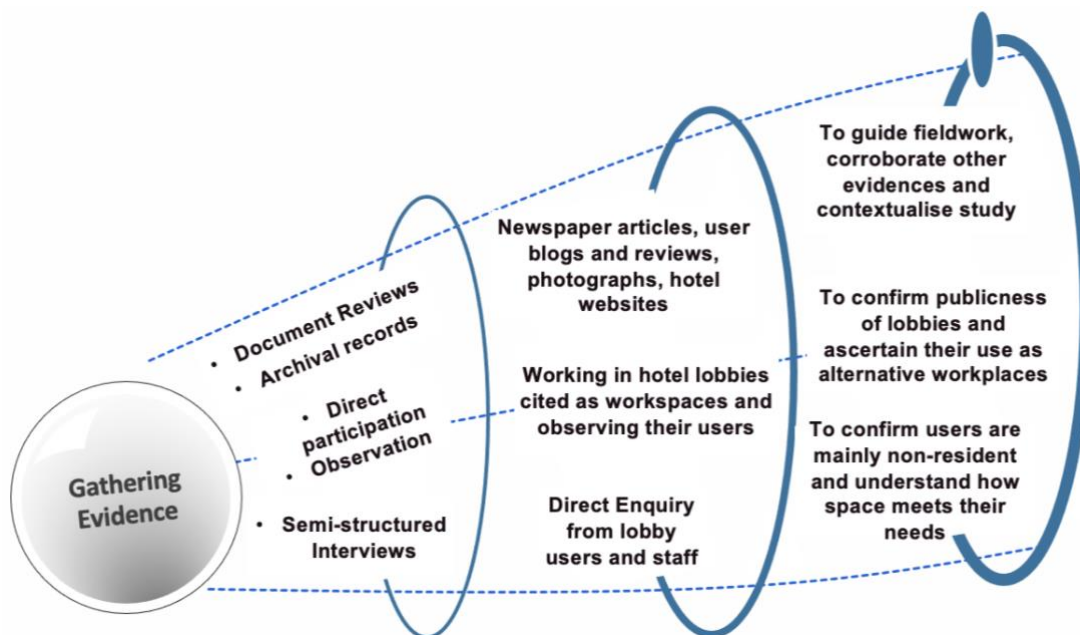


Figure 6.7: Evidence gathering relies on three primary information sources (Author's work)

6.5.4.1 Data (evidence) gathering

To gather evidence, it relies on the information garnered (Figure 6.7) from:

- Document Sources: these were available in archival records and online documented reviews of lobby access and consumption. The knowledge gap and absence of empirical research results in a reliance on online accounts of lobby use. Examples of these data sources include newspaper articles, online blog sites, reviews, photographs, and hotel website information

(Mooro, 2020, Grassin, 2017, EPR Architects, 2019, Concrete Architects, 2016a, 2016b). With these multiple data sources, patterns and data correlation offer background conceptualisations of hotels' spatial intentions (Pook, 2019, Tripadvisor, 2019a, Laura, 2022) and 'how' their consumers' narratives in online reviews, blogs and comments support their access and consumption activities with photographic evidence. This modern social proof (Cialdini *et al.*, 1999; Roethke *et al.*, 2020) presents early conceptualisations of meanings they attribute to their conception of freely public lobbies, their support of flexible work and its consequence (Goldstein, Griskevicius and Cialdini, 2011) for hotels.

- b. Observations with Memo Writing: Creswell (2014) suggests research document observed events in field notes with participation options. Thus, direct research participation occurs at the latter stages of data collection to rationalise users' experiential narratives to observable lobby utilisation. However, this participatory approach was non-immersive to avoid biases resulting from becoming too familiar with the users and the environment (Charmaz, 2014) and done later in data collection. Observational records during visits aim to decipher new concepts, highlight unusual behaviours, actions, or events, and form field notes and memos to document impressions and events unfolding during the ethnographic sessions (Eisenhardt, 1989).
- c. Semi-Structured Interviews: Finally, semi-structured interviews for answering the main research question distinguishes non-lodgers and pursue understanding their access and consumption approach in how lobbies meet their workplace demands. Constructing these questions explores user knowledge, behaviour, and spatial attributes in Table 6.1.

The CGT approach involves non-linear iterative processing of simultaneous data collection and analysis and following the direction of emergent data to add more case study sites for further data collection and analysis. Thus, it identifies three additional sites during this process it later drops due to their unproductive outcome. Charmaz (2014:15) refers to this process of following data to add more

cases, as theoretical sampling section 6.4.3.4 addresses further. While collecting interview data, inductive abstract analytic categories development commences through systematic data analysis. Afterwards, the study draws on its data pool to develop theoretical categories from narratives and descriptions.

6.5.4.2 Collect and analyse

Figure 6.8 below outlines the interview process, beginning with the exploration and engagement process in section 2.1, that Chapter 2 explicates. For the first part, seventy-six (76) participants contribute to this study of the eighty-two (82) users it approaches. Six hotel staff from the four case lobbies also contribute to the supply-sided narratives for contextualising user accounts. Interviews start with structured questions (Table 6.1) and continue in open-ended conversations with no time impositions (Glaser and Strauss, 2017; Charmaz, 2014; & Hiller and DiLuzio, 2004). Thus, the process from theoretical sampling to developing a theoretical framework is continuous throughout the research, as Figure 6.8 outlines.

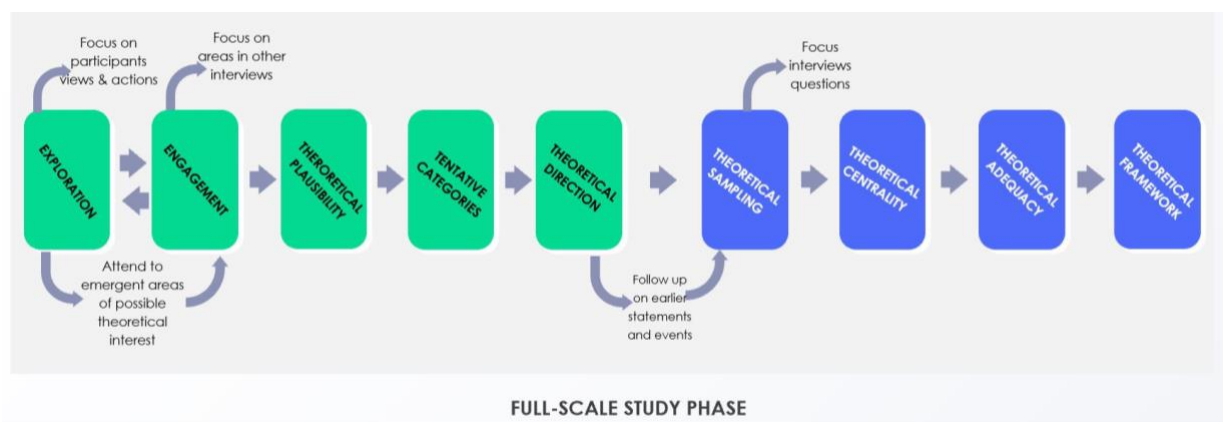


Figure 6.8: CGT Interviewing Methodology (Adapted from Charmaz, 2014)

CGT interview nurtures mutuality and develops social bonds between the interviewer and participant to explore emergent understandings, identity legitimacy, and experience validation (Charmaz, 2014:91). Due to this project's participatory approach, it gains social acceptance within the case lobbies as a consumer, paving the way for an intensive, one-sided conversational interview style that explores participants' perspectives on their experiential use of lobbies (Charmaz (2014:56). It records and later transcribes these interviews to capture

information delivery nuances, preserve and contextualise feelings and emotions often lost in translation by just taking note. Although demand-led, it collects data from users and hotel management as spatial co-creators and curators by adopting a supply-thin and demand-thick interview focus shown in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Interview participants for each case study site (Author's work)

Hotel Pseudonym	Users	Hotel Management	Total
CMH	0	1-Hotel Manager 2 – Lobby Staff	3
HHS	22	1-Hotel Manager	23
HHH	23	1-Hotel Manager	24
AHS	31	1-Hotel Manager	32
Total	76	6	82

Interview questions first capture demographic details, such as age, gender to understand the population type since extant literature and pilot suggest these are significant variables emerging workplace alternatives. Interviews are face-to-face within each lobby over the summer and winter months of 2019, averaging 25 minutes per person and totalling over 2500 interview hours. In this way, study gains in-person experiences. Daily analysis of interview recordings populates notes and memos for the collection duration (Charmaz, 2006), and as Eisenhardt, (1989) observes, the frequent overlap of data analysis with data collection is a striking feature of case studies research for theory-building (p.538).

6.5.4.3 Coding: Initial and focused CGT coding

The research assigns labels to name data segments and simultaneously categorises, summarises, and accounts for each data piece (Charmaz, 2014:111). This manner of coding progresses from using factual statements in the data to making logical sense of narratives and observations. This first tranche of coding compares data against other data, grouping them to create analytical or theoretical

categories (see Appendix) within the criteria of their relevance and fitness to the research intention (Charmaz, 2014:133). Crystallising study participants' experience from initial codes into theoretical categories reflects how this study fits into the empirical world and prevents self-interpretation (ibid). While Figure 6.9 depicts a flow from case study data to CGT, this process is iterative, as Figure 6.5 previously illustrates.

During this process, within-case analysis for each site progresses as data collection continues to overcome potential data overload (Eisenhardt, 1989:540). Studying field notes daily for words, puzzling expressions, and attributions contributes to the study's analytical import (Charmaz, 2014:109). For example, 'vibe' becomes a code as it recurs in interviews that Charmaz (2014) refers to as in vivo codes to preserve the meaning contextually (p.134). This codification further explores such recurrent words in interviews to clarify their meaning.

Continuous interaction and information sharing with participants during the interview data collection introduces the interactive analytic space (Charmaz, 2014:109) whereby users' construction of their world manifests. This process ensures data informs the initial coding (Charmaz, 2014) process for combining manual coding with the NVivo version 12 computer-assisted software (Yin, 2018). Throughout this iterative process, coding is more focused with selective analyses of frequently emergent codes to sort, synthesise, integrate, and analyse the data (see Appendix). NVivo version 12 software assistance (Yin, 2018) supports sorting through the emergent categories and deals with copious data sets.

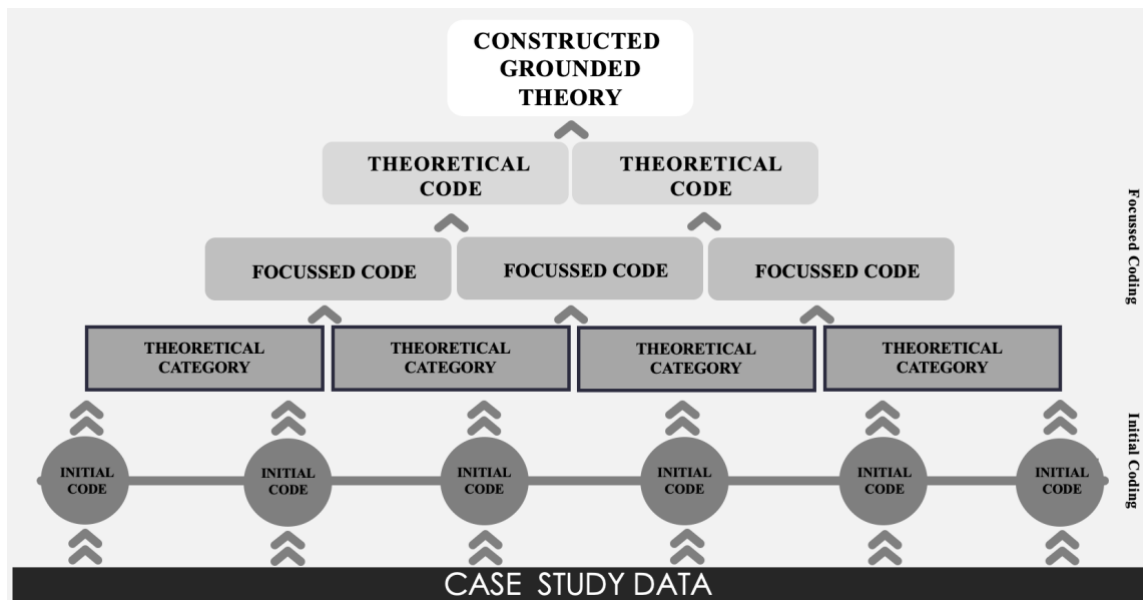


Figure 6.9: The coding process for constructing grounded theory from case study data (Adapted from Charmaz (2014))

Study gains further clarity at the focused coding stage through sense-checking and meaning-forming with data integration through active iterative coding. Further analytical progression and data collection from code constructions lead to each lobby's tentative categories (Charmaz, 2014:114). As interviews become more focused, data offers theoretical plausibility, showing theoretical centrality (Figure 6.8) around specific concepts about the nature of the users, the tools critical to their use of lobbies and the function attributed to the space Chapter 5 covers. In this sense, theoretical coding supports the relationship specification between previous categories (Charmaz, 2014:150), sharpening the analytical process (2014:151). Upon gaining this theoretical direction, study undertakes theoretical sampling, reviewing integrated data sources with emergent theoretical codes.

6.5.4.4 Theoretical sampling and abductive reasoning

Theoretical sampling in CGT addresses the conceptual and theoretical development of the analysis process for pursuing puzzling findings (Charmaz, 2014:198) by continuously moving from data to coding and memo-writing to sampling using analysis (2014:199). It differs from addressing research questions, reflecting population distribution, finding negative cases, stopping when no new data emerges or choosing cases for theoretical and not statistical purposes

(Charmaz, 2014:197; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Chapter 2 reflects this process. By this means, this study delineates and develops lobby access and consumption characterisations.

Thus, the research goal in adopting theoretical sampling is to choose cases likely to replicate or extend the emergent theory the pilot study suggests for prudence and efficiency. Therefore, it contrasts quantitative research's traditional experimental and hypothesis-testing studies that rely on statistical random sampling that often seeks to obtain accurate statistical evidence (Eisenhardt, 1989:537). While the CGT process is not linear, theoretical sampling aims to attain robust theoretical categories by studying lobbies and their users' attribution of their suitability for work. It correlates with Yin's (2018:197) multiple studies cross-case analysis for inductive research with intentions to uncover new findings, differing from pattern-finding.

6.5.4.5 Analysis and findings

As an iterative process, the focused coding stage bleeds into data comparison processes, moving from within to an across-case analysis of lobby cases (Figure 6.5) to determine the study's theoretical adequacy (Figure 6.8) and initial codes' conceptual strength (Charmaz, 2014:140). At this stage, it triangulates the centrality of emergent theories with specific themes from the interviews with other data sources through constant iteration until the process reaches theoretical adequacy. Finally, it compares these codes with previous theories in Chapters 3 to 5, analysing any relationships, correlations, or irrelevance. More of this process is in later chapters.

According to Yin (2018:174), the best preparation for conducting case study analyses is to have a general analytic strategy. Figures 6.1, 6.5 and 6.8 above illustrate analytical strategies, connecting data collection to theory building. Its purpose is to link each case study data to significant conceptual construction attributable to why and how users adopt lobbies as workplaces in a manner that offers a sense of direction in data analysis. The iterative process supports this

process to prevent data overload and provides a continuous data engagement towards achieving theoretical adequacy for constructing new or modifying the existing theoretical frameworks Chapter 3 to 5 identifies. Utilising study data to resolve research propositions begins this theoretical framing for understanding servicescapes' transformation into work environments.

This study's analytical process modifies Charmaz's (2014) version and incorporates Eisenhardt's (1989:540) suggestion to select dimensions or categories for examining within-group similarities and intergroup differences of lobbies. The dimensions chosen for this research are the propositions, literature review and pilot outcomes. In addition, for practical purposes and to achieve research intention, it juxtaposes and compares emergent theory with existing AbC and CC theories (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) with Bitner's (1992) propositional framework. The resulting analytical output identifies and articulates similarities, variations, or deviations from these theoretical concepts, as later chapters present.

Finally, the study checks for theoretical saturation (see Figure 6.5), pursuing category development. Theoretical saturation is the achievement of conceptual density after comparisons do not yield new or different properties or categories (Glaser, 2001). For instance, daily analytical replicates of the three theoretical categories: users, work, and spatial suggest category saturation. Integrating this analytical output into a research proposition to rationalise Bitner's (1992) framework generates a holistic, grounded theoretical framing with completeness (2001:191). This process differs from other studies' interpretation of saturation as a repetitive pattern during analysis (Charmaz, 2014:213); instead, it is the saturation of categories or theoretical sufficiency (Dey, 1999:257).

However, the CGT method's flexibility affords a judgement call to consider resource availability (Carolyn Wiener, 2007:306). It also affords the relevance or adequacy of extant theories (Bitner, 1992; Appadurai, 1996; Florida, 2002, 2014; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) to either discard or modify

them (Charmaz, 2010:11; 2014: 15). If irrelevant, the emergent theory becomes the new theory built from the cases studies.

6.5.5 New and Modified Theory

Theories try to answer questions of how an event ensues, what happened and why. In this study, a modified theory emerges from answering the research question. This chapter's final piece to this theory-building exercise outlines, identifies and compares the emergent theory against existing theories by examining their similarities and contradictions and why (Eisenhardt, 1989:544). Hence, Bitner's (1992) servicescape theory undergoes refinement and extension as study findings inform a theoretical framework as its contribution to existing knowledge.

6.6 Conclusion

The 'conclude' section of this study's CGT process (Figure 6.5) builds theory through the epistemological constructionism lens. It introduces concepts from CC and AbC's theoretical models (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012, Charmaz, 2014:285) to analyse findings within Bitner's (1992) servicescape framework, with added contextual framings from Florida (2002, 2014) and develops explains the study's conceptual logic. Engagement with leading ideas position the emergent theory for further exploration and application. Thereby, implications of the reconstructed conception of service environments (see later chapters) from a workplace perspective becomes possible. It achieves novel theoretical insight into previously unresearched phenomenon, presenting fresh conceptual discoveries for future scholarly probing.

Further, as Chapter 8 pulls study findings into a coherent narrative following the emergent theoretical framework in the next chapter, it suggests policy implications and future research areas in the conclusive chapter. The research outcomes are plausible accounts of lobby servicescapes becoming *discoverable worksapces*.

Chapter 7: Employing theoretical vectors to discover the transformation of lobby servicescapes into workplaces

The first empirical chapter in Chapter 2 generates three theoretical vectors (Figure 7.1) suggesting entrepreneurial individuals take advantage of publicly free lobbies to undertake creative work. These three vectors satisfy the requirements for the experiential workplace ecosystem that this study discovers.

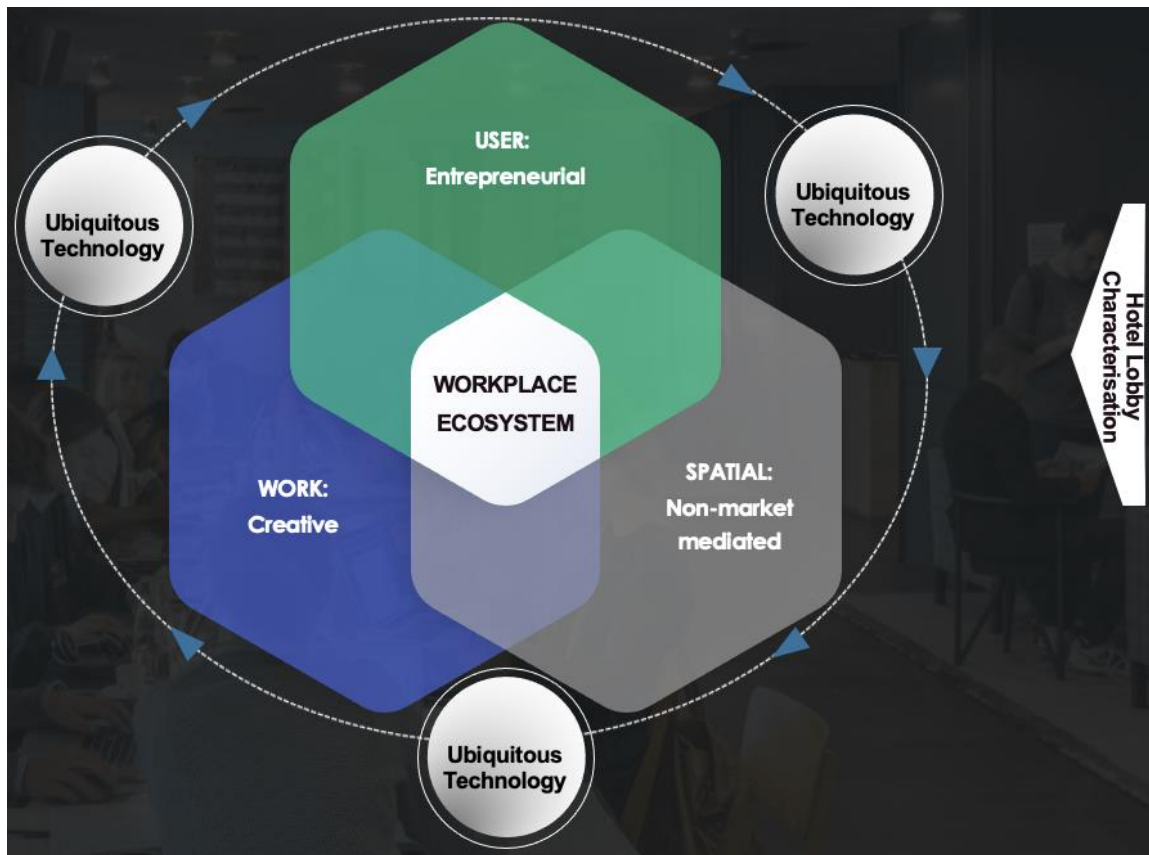


Figure 7.1: Three theoretical vectors characterise lobbies' publicness for work

Therefore, such outcome informs previous literature reviews identifying five theories underpinning pilot outcomes and the general AW literature coverage (Bitner, 1992; Botsman and Rogers, 2010, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). They show rising workplace alternatives, popular with coworking, and the lacking empiricism position of lobby servicescapes within the AW genre. Furthermore, extant literature is sociological and disproportionately supply-thick (e.g., Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019), resulting in a limited empirical understanding of AW users within built environment studies. This state of literature

will benefit from characterising lobby users and their work to determine lobbies' suitability as AWs from a built sector perspective. As such, this study adopts a demand-leaning approach the previous chapter outlines to answer the research questions to rebalance the less understood user needs in workplace provisioning.

7.1.1 Discovering hotel lobby users through enquiry

This second empirical chapter engages the three research triangulates to broaden and develop an understanding of this study's phenomenon and presents user narratives characterising holistic access and consumption of lobbies. It relies on interview data depicting how users create their lived experiences as primary drivers of its constructions (Charmaz, 1990). To do this end, the following sections outline case study outcomes for answering the main research question below with interview responses to the questions in Table 7.1:

Why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt
hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces?

Table 7.1: Interview questions designed to characterise theoretical vectors

<u>Theoretical Phenomena of Interest</u>	<u>Interview Questions</u>
1 User characterisation – Lobby user typologies and their behavioural patterns and practices	Q _D : Age, Gender, Employment status and Occupation Q ₁ : What did you set out to do here today? Q _{1a} : Describe your typical day Q _{1b} : How often do you come here?
2 Work characterisation – Lobby user activities typologies within the lobby servicescapes	Q ₂ : What do you use to support your activities here and why?
3 Spatial characterisation – Spatial attributes supporting user activities in lobby servicescapes	Q _{3a} : What are the specific characteristics of this lobby that directly and indirectly support your activities here? Q _{3b} : What is missing in this space that could better support your activities?

Subsequent sections present an in-depth descriptive analysis of the study's case lobbies for characterising users, their (work) activities and the spatial offerings

facilitating those activities. It starts by developing a typical public user's profile by reconstructing their daily experiential journey to lobbies and activities they set out to do and how the space supports those intentions from study data.

7.1.2 A day's journey of a typical hotel lobby public user

'I start early because of the different time zones, and you know another thing about freelancers is we do long hours, ...we work in a charette sense, ...until the project's done, and you just get the sleep you need and the substance you need ... and then you will take a few days where you relax'. (Self-employed Designer/Architect)

7.1.3 Setting out to work in case lobbies

Stepping out of a 7.45 am London train, a youthful man in trainers wearing round glasses adjusts his backpack as he walks out of the underground tube station. From behind, he seems intent on his destination. He gazes at the façade of a nearly fully occupied hotel lobby on a sunny morning in May 2019. It was Monday.

7.1.4 Regular and unstructured daily access and consumption of lobbies

Upon arrival, he takes the lobby's second entrance that leads straight into its café to bypass the front entrance-facing reception check-in desk for lodging guests. It is not his first time here, but he has no typical routine, arriving at 8 am, sometimes 10 am, three times a week.

7.1.5 Personal artefacts and lobby servicescape support user activities

He quickly shuffles through the busy café to take the only available seat at the 6-meter-long, 16-person library-style table. It has a 5-meter-long, high-output linear dimmable LED light fitting with built-in and concealed electric power sockets (Foundry, No Date). He sets down his backpack and laptop on the table and plugs his power pack into the concealed socket in the table's leg to start working on his computer like the others. Occasionally, he reaches into his bag to retrieve items like a drawing pen. As an entrepreneurial, creative designer consulting for

Amazon, these are the 'tools of the trade'. Other workers, like him, focus on their laptop screens, giving off a tacit 'do not disturb' air. An unspoken rule of quietness and concentration echoes through the space, with ambient music lacing this spatial 'vibe'. It is jazz today.

7.1.6 Public users and lobby staff co-create a working environment

A casually dressed blonde in a colourful t-shirt, blue jeans and white trainers sets an empty glass cup on the table by this new arrival. He nods without looking up as she pours him a drink of water from a bluish-green glass bottle, setting the bottle by the cup. He looks up at her smiling. No words are spoken, but both understand the unspoken. She returns to the bar and reappears with another bottle to serve another guest. By 9 am, another lobby staff serves him a pot of porridge and caramelised banana breakfast. He is a familiar guest.

7.1.7 End of work activity at the lobby

The music volume is slightly louder at lunchtime but significantly louder between 4 – 5 pm. This user packs up his backpack and leaves. He is earlier the next day and finishes later at 5.35 pm. The music is even louder, and the lobby's mood changes as people switch to socialising activities, like networking at the lobby bar.

7.1.8 Summarising the typical public users' journey

Critical touchpoints in the public lobby user's experiential journey and actions inside the servicescape above suggest an intention to visit the lobby for work. Demonstrable familiarity with the servicescape through regular treks to access without enquiring, attending with personal artefacts to work, and lobby staff's knowledge of users' needs results in a collaborative creation of an experiential working ecosystem.

The following section outlines a broader perspective of users' narratives from interview responses with demographic data summaries and other data supplements.

7.1.9 Hotels and their lobby servicescapes characteristics and features

Three case study hotels, HHH, HHS and AHS, share similar features, while CMH, the fourth differ as Table 7.2 outlines.

Table 7.2: Overview of studied hotels(Author's work)

	HHH	HHS	AHS	CMH
Hotel Classification	Boutique and lifestyle hotel	Boutique and lifestyle hotel	Boutique and lifestyle hotel	Lifestyle hotel
Date Hotel Opened	2006	2014	2013	2017
Affiliation	American	American	American	Dutch
London Sub-region	Central	East	East	East
Hotel Management's characterisation from interviews and website	<i>'The lobby is open to the public as long as they can find a space to sit ... Some people book the lobby ahead, but the left side is open to the public. You can see so many laptops everywhere, people use our Wi-Fi freely'</i>			<i>'Our hotels are not open to the public in the sense that is being used. We are not a boutique hotel but a lifestyle hotel and set out to cater for the needs of our customers, who are mobile citizens. The clue is in the name of our hotel'</i>

HHH, HHS and AHS are boutique and lifestyle hotels of American affiliation, with HHH and HHS of the same hotel brand. However, an eight-year gap separates their year of founding, with HHH located in the central region of London and HHS in the east. AHS is of a different brand but located in the east, like HHS. CMH is

of a Dutch affiliation, also east of London, but associates with lifestyle branding, as the interview excerpt from the hotel's management suggests in Table 7.2, divorcing the brand from the boutique classification. The hotel is younger than the other three, opening in 2017. Figure 6.6 represents the spatial location of all four lobbies on the London map and indicates their regional positions. Management representatives of AHS, HHH and HHS confirm their lobbies' publicness as HHH except for CMH (see examples of quotes in Table 7.2 above).

7.1.10 Users

Responses to interview questions in Table 7.3 inform user characterisation as young, entrepreneurial, independent workers from the creative industry sector (CIS).

Table 7.3: Interview questions for characterising lobby users (Q_D, Q₁, Q_{1a}, Q_{1b})

<u>Theoretical Phenomena of Interest</u>	<u>Interview Questions</u>
1 User characterisation – Lobby user typologies and their behavioural patterns and practices	Q_D: Age, Gender, Employment status and Occupation Q₁: What did you set out to do here today? Q_{1a}: Describe your typical day Q_{1b}: How often do you come here?

7.1.11 User attributes

IPs' responses suggest a high degree of agency, autonomous workplace choice, and an entrepreneurial disposition to how they work. Figure 7.7 below summarises these responses, showing behaviour patterns in their routine access and consumption of lobbies averages two to three days a week. Their demographic distribution falls into three main categories: students, employees, and entrepreneurs, with U.K's classification (Great Britain. Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport and Adams, N., 2020) and Florida's (2002, 2014) creative secretariat organising their occupational typologies. It shows a percentage distribution of their CIS affiliation is over seventy-eight per cent (78%) at each

lobby. Their top twenty occupational descriptors also support this creative work's specialisms and employment categorisation. Finally, their ages average early to mid-thirties, and gender percentages show more male IPs in AHS and HHH and more female IPs in HHS.

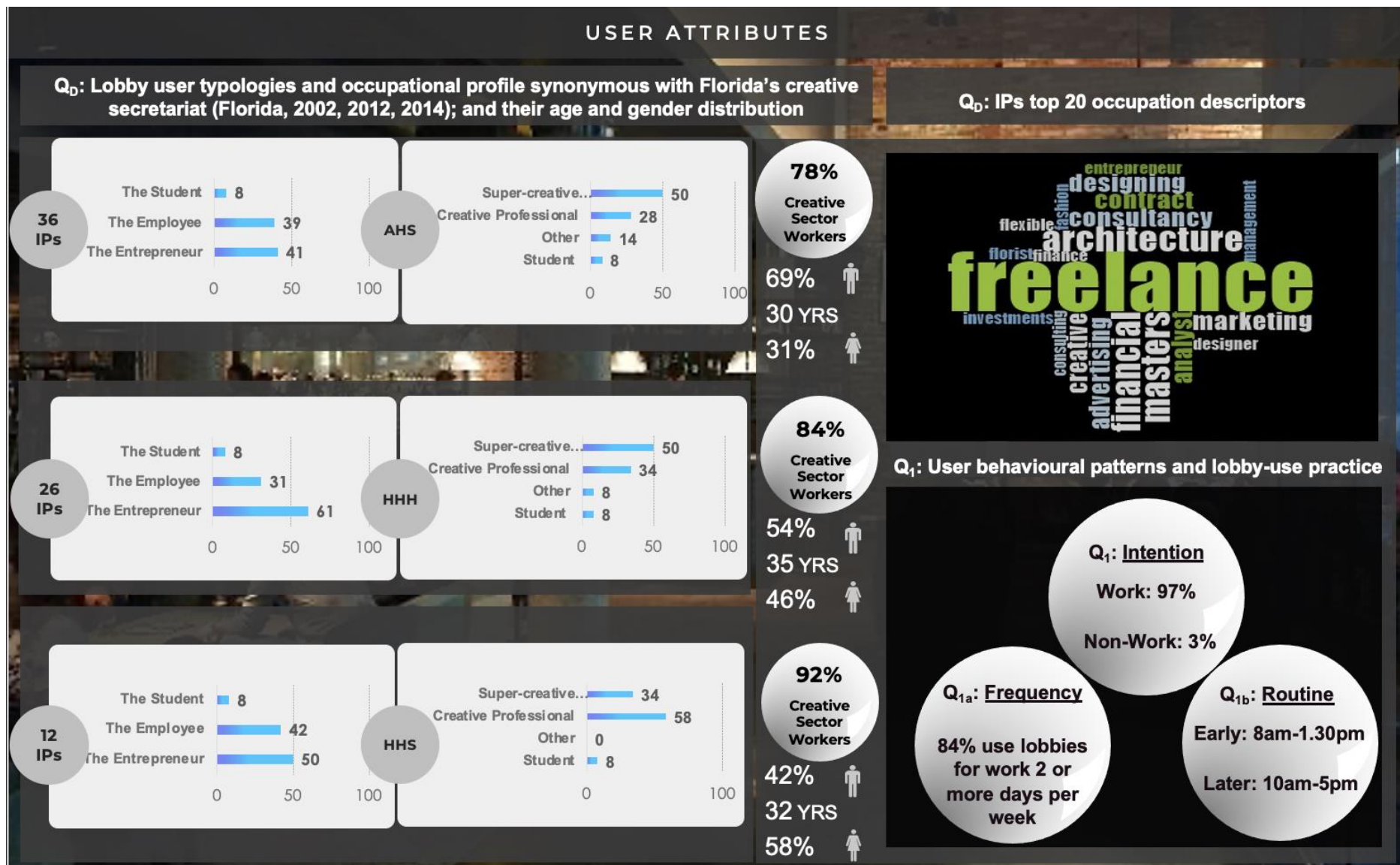


Figure 7.2: Lobby user attributes: demographics, typologies, and behaviours.

7.1.12 User demographics by age and gender (QD)

IPs average thirty-two (32) years old across the case lobbies, with the youngest at 22 and the oldest at 61 (see Appendix for details). Average ages across the three lobbies are thirty (30) years old at AHS, thirty-five (35) at HHH and thirty-two (32) at HHS, and a higher percentage of younger generational cohorts with male to female ratio. Their combined proportion within Gen 'Y' and 'Z' total 83% after accounting for two IPs visiting to charge their phones and not for work.

Table 7.4: IPs age and gender spread by generational cohort across lobbies

	Birth Year (Min)	Birth Year (Max)	Baby Boomer Cohort	Generation 'X' Cohort	Generation 'Y' Cohort	Generation 'Z' Cohort	Total Age
Female	1958	1998	1	1	24	4	30
AHS	1982	1998			9	2	11
HHH	1958	1997	1	1	9	1	12
HHS	1986	1998			6	1	7
Male				10	31	3	44
AHS	1967	1999		5	17	3	25
HHH	1968	1994		4	10		14
HHS	1968	1992		1	4		5
Grand Total			1	11	55	7	74

Combining data from Figure 7.2 and Table 7.4 shows the gender ratio of IPs shows more male to female at AHS and HHH at 69%:31% and 54%:46%, respectively, compared to HHS at 42%:58%. Research memo also notes daily headcounts record more male to female users at an average of 57%:43%, with no data on visitation purposes. These data sets suggest IPs are of younger demography and mostly male similar to U.K's higher male worker percentage (Buchanan, I., Pratt, A., and Francis-Devine, B., 2023).

7.1.13 Users' demographics by occupation (QD)

Most IPs prefix or describe their occupation with 'freelance' synonymous with entrepreneur user type. Overall, IPs comprise seventy-eight (78%) per cent of creative sector workers at AHS, eighty-four (84%) per cent at HHH and ninety-two

(92) per cent at HHS. Figure 7.7 breaks down these figures using Florida's (2002, 2014) creative secretariat. See the Appendix for a complete occupational list.

7.1.14 User typologies and their behaviours

Ninety-seven per cent (97%) of IPs set out to work in case lobbies (Figure 7.2), with eighty-four per cent (84%) routinely accessing them at least twice a week between 8 am to 1.30 pm and 10 am to 5 pm. These IPs consume lobbies as their main working site or as alternatives to their homes, schools and workplaces and fall into three main user typologies the following sections portray.

7.1.14.1 The Entrepreneur: creative, autonomous, and anonymous worker

I think ...it's mainly us creatives and freelancers that use it because, I mean, you don't know what the technicalities of being in here is – you just buy a coffee, and you can work here (Self-employed Filmmaker).

'The Entrepreneur' user comprises self-employed business owners or founders, often self-identifying as 'freelancers' and creatives. They are the dominant IP across the case lobbies at 41%, 61% and 50% (Figure 7.2) and most of the CIS classification (Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2013). A business owner running a workplace design solutions company, does not own a desk and prefers working in lobbies whenever possible, exemplifies this user. He distances himself from the trappings of spatial fixity characterised by desk ownership, asserting that autonomous working requires geographical detachment. Others like him have no typical days. Demand for anonymity informs their choice of lobbies over other alternatives like coffee shops to avoid workplace distractions, and since getting their work done is a priority, they seek 'invisibility'.

...I can pretty much work anywhere. I do not have a typical day, and I've never had an office or own a desk in our business, so I work anywhere. Some people can't. I can. I knew I was going to be here for 3- or 4-hours cos there's some people in the office I generally don't want to see so I avoid the office. I don't want to go to a coffee shop where I felt very visible; I think you're more invisible in a hotel – so invisibility is important... (Business owner, AREA²)

This user's intent to escape work interruptions by avoiding employees or colleagues to ensure their productivity corroborates this female business owner:

So, at the moment, I am escaping my employees... I've got so much work on, and they will just keep asking me questions, so I just needed to focus and finish what I'm doing before I go back to the studio. (Creative Director and Founder of ODDITY)

These responses highlight that agency and autonomy feed CIS workers' spatial determination. They deliberately search for spaces offering anonymity that they associate with hotels. Terms like 'invisibility' and 'escaping' that inform accessing lobbies reflect deeper productivity issues related to traditional workplaces.

7.1.14.2 The Employee: creative, collaborative, autonomous worker

'The Employee' user either operates in a group (A) or solo (B) when accessing lobbies for work (see Figure 7.3 below). For example, a real estate company team that adopts the AHS lobby for work exemplifies the user (A) type. Their manager's response represents their access intention to use the lobby as their office:

'I'm here to work for my company...a real estate company. We are estate hunters; ... So, we all start here at around 9 am here, though we arrive earlier, say before 8 am, for the table. We work until 6 pm. This is our office'. (Manager, Real Estate Company)

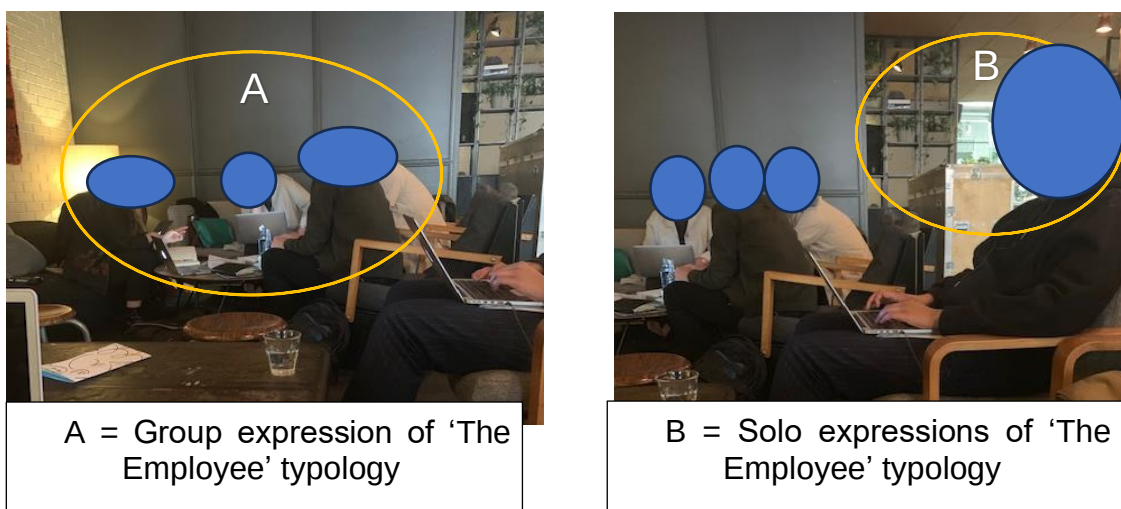


Figure 7.3: 'The Employee' typological expressions in the AHS lobby area (Author's photos)

Another group from a large U.K organisation work away from their offices on the third week of each month to explore more effective working practices.

‘...To take some time away from the wider team so that we can be more focussed without the everyday interruptions of the office.’ (Comms & Marketing Employee)

Again, this narrative suggests that productivity issues reside in traditional workplaces.

User ‘B’ in Figure 7.3 works autonomously with varying workplace choice levels ranging from pre-agreed to unrestricted teleworking days with an employer. Common to them is their value for autonomy they deploy in accessing lobbies over their homes.

‘...So, you have a set number of things to achieve. It doesn’t really matter where you are as long as you get those things achieved. The thing I most value in any kind of job is being trusted; ... a sense of empowerment, independence, and autonomy. So that’s what this place kind of gives me.’ (Digital Editor, Employee)

Senior executive IPs habitually access lobbies because of their organisation’s entrepreneurial disposition to working practices. They adopt lobbies as strategic thinking environments, avoiding workplace distractions they describe as ‘minutiae of day-to-day office life’:

‘...No, I come here for work. Like, I come here regularly, say twice a week, for more thinking time for creative work and doing time...’ (Head of Product Development, Fintech Company)

‘...I find in an office environment, I get drawn into lots of different areas of work by people for production-based stuff, whereas here I can think strategically, creatively, look at the bigger picture and not get distracted by all of the kind of minutiae of day-to-day office life, so that’s why I come here.’ (Head of Production, Media Company)

Again, this user type adopts lobbies to avoid workplace distractions and to think creatively and strategically.

At the extreme is the solo ‘creative’ employee working in isolation but exercising agency to combat loneliness in case lobbies’ communal servicescapes:

'My default is working at home on my own in complete isolation. ... my head office is ... in New York, so I like to get out of the house... be around other human beings just ... to be a bit happier. Because...I end up feeling a little flat and ... lonely, so I come here to work in a communal space.' (Creative designer, U.S Based Company)

Although the above narrative comes from a CIS worker, they are an extreme User 'B' type with significant geographical detachment from their primary workplace. So, User (A) 'Employee' adopts lobbies daily or at pre-determined frequencies for collaborative and uninterrupted work. User (B) 'Employee' has varying levels of autonomy contingent on flexibility, trust and seniority levels. They also seek to work without distraction, and their interpretation of lobbies' anonymity influences why they adopt lobbies. Senior executives associate lobbies with anonymous or invisibility-promoting spaces for thinking strategically while appreciating their flexible, communal, and collaborative environments without distractions like others.

7.1.14.3 The Student: autonomous, focused

'The Student' user typology consists of university-level students preparing for exams and tests or writing their thesis. These IPs access case lobbies as study spaces to avoid the 'stressful' study environments like libraries; this 22-year-old IP tries to explain:

'I am a student doing my master's in Global Politics. I have an exam on Monday, so I'm just revising. It's just nice to have a change of environment...library is obviously quite a stressful place: It's really crowded, ... some people are crying ... it's a whole thing over there, so I kind of like to get away from that.' (M.Sc. Student)

Other students echo this narrative, placing lobbies as viable environments for avoiding the stress they associate with their institutions' study provisions. Their study areas also fall within the CIS bracket (see Appendix for more).

7.1.15 User profile summary: autonomous, anonymous, creatives

Using the U.K's classification, the entrepreneur, employee, and student user typologies represent IPs as CIS workers based on their employment status,

occupation and study area. These occupational descriptors correlate with Florida’s (2002) creative secretariat.

Behavioural patterns and narratives reveal that these user typologies possess varying autonomy levels enabling them to adopt lobbies as workplaces. Their search for environments supporting focused work as anonymous or ‘invisible’ users drives their spatial access and highlights challenges within normative workplaces. Their lobby-use patterns as offices and alternatives to homes, schools or workplaces indicate a demand for unconventional flexible spaces by CIS workers.

With an awareness of alternatives to traditional workplaces, these users access lobbies to retain their anonymity and uninterrupted work. This implies that users interpret case lobbies as suitable environments for undistracted work. Freedom to work mobile makes lobbies attractive within this autonomous, anonymous work-supporting provision. Lobbies appeal to IP’s dislike for spatial fixity synonymous with desk ownership in a fixed geographical location, supporting their independent pursuit. Yet, the consequential effect and trade-off of remote work of the solo employee reveal other access drivers associated with avoiding loneliness. Accessing and consuming lobbies to combat such problems presents even deeper consequences of independent working practices and the need for communal working milieus.

7.1.16 Work

Table 7.5: Interview questions for characterising work attributes (Q₂)

<u>Theoretical Phenomena of Interest</u>	<u>Interview Questions</u>
Work characterisation – Lobby user 2 activities typologies within the lobby servicescapes	Q ₂ : What do you use to support your activities here and why?

The creative nature of IPs that the previous three user typologies express implies they engage in CIS work. Lobby users’ responses to Q₂, that Table 7.5 states above, further supports their creative affiliation. Thus, work attributions from IPs’

responses focus on principal activity-supporting attributes, like personal artefacts and lobbies' infrastructure, necessities enabling their capabilities to work mobile and portable.

7.1.17 Articles of work primarily supporting IPs in lobbies

Figure 7.4 presents what IPs name for supporting their activities in response to Q2:

- a. Photo capture of IPs' personal devices, such as laptops, mobile phones, and earphones, with lobby supplies, such as cups of water and coffee.
- b. Access to lobbies' infrastructure, furniture, and catering provisions. Most infrastructure and furniture are freely accessible for users' consumption.
- c. Word cloud of the top twenty items IPs use to support their activities relate to work. Lobbies' WIFI and IPs' laptops rank as the top two.
- d. The top ten named items of why IPs use them relate to work activities.

7.1.18 Personal Artifacts: non-lobby articles of work support lobby users

...I'll always have my laptop with me; I can't work without my laptop. I can work from anywhere in the world as long as I have my laptop with me. And my phone as well... My phone and power pack, absolutely. (Business consultant in AHS)

IPs' laptops are the second most frequently named work activity-supporting item. Responses such as the above show that working practices connect personal devices with capabilities to work anywhere. They de-emphasise workplace geography fixity so long this working equipment are available:

Just laptop and a phone – that's all you kind of need for my business. I think most businesses are online now so a lot of them don't really need a physical location to work from. (Real estate entrepreneur in HHS)

IPs reference work, business, start-ups, accessing files 'in the cloud', the nature of the creative sector and remote working in tandem with articles they rely on in lobbies. However, WIFI rank first as essential lobby infrastructure that is freely accessible to support their capabilities to work mobile with laptops and phones.

WORK ATTRIBUTES

a. Photos of articles of work supporting IPs activities in case lobbies



b. Named lobby infrastructure, furniture and catering supporting IPs in case lobbies

Lobby Infrastructure

1. Free access to WIFI
2. Free electric power
3. Free access to ICT data ports
4. Free space
5. Ambient music

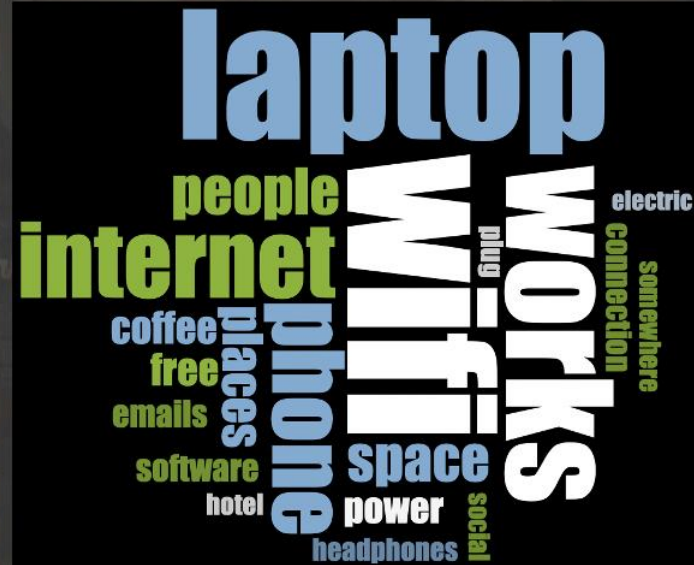
Lobby Furniture

1. Free library-styled table
2. Free use of sofas
3. Comfortable seats
4. Ergonomic seats

Lobby Catering

1. Coffee
2. Free water
3. Breakfast bar
4. Restaurant
5. Beverages

c. Top twenty named items IPs use to support their activities



d. Reasons IPs use the top ten items to support their activities

1. 'Free' Wi-Fi
2. Laptop
3. Phone
4. People
5. Space|Place
6. Electric|Plug|Power
7. Coffee
8. Software|Emails
9. Headphones
10. Social

- Internet Connection
- Work
- Client Calls
- Vibe and Motivation
- Hotel Space Works
- Charging Devices
- Enable Work
- Share and Do Work
- Silence Noise/Music
- Networking

Figure 7.4: Work attributes: IPs' personal artefacts and lobby infrastructure support activities of a predominantly creative secretariat in case lobbies (Author's work with photos taken with user's permission during the observational study)

7.1.19 Lobby infrastructure: freely accessible for supporting users

... a nice space where it's comfortable – and the WIFI here is very good yeah ...I need these to access files in the cloud and electricity (HHH User)

I definitely need a coffee to start my day off, and that puts me in the zone to start work in (HHS User)

Apart from catering provisions like coffee and food in all lobbies, IPs freely access lobby infrastructure and furniture. From technology infrastructure like WIFI, electric power, ambient music, people, and the space (see word cloud in Figure 7.6) itself to furniture provisions, IPs value the accessible nature of these offerings.

This space obviously helps in terms of saving money, no paying rent and stuff. Since everything's online, our system is built online so we have free WIFI here, so you can access the internet here. (HHS User)

Furniture provisions such as library-style tables, ergonomics, and comfortable seats make IPs' lobbies suitable for their work activities.

I need this kind of comfortable workspace, like this table, where my laptop can be at the right height, where I've got a comfortable chair (AHS User).

7.1.20 Why IPs use these articles of work to support their activities (Q2)

'Electricity is important, so I can charge my laptop' (HHH user)

Free access to use lobbies, work-supporting servicescape infrastructure, and IPs' artefacts dominate why IPs use named articles of work. Free WIFI gains a significant ranking, with IPs' acknowledging their inability to work without it. They also appreciate the ease of access, good quality and speed of using lobbies' WIFI. Most state it is a primary driver of their accessing lobbies to work. With accessible, good quality WIFI infrastructure connecting to the internet comes the need for their laptops to work. Without both, work is nearly impossible.

'...Free WIFI, otherwise I wouldn't come' (HHS User).; '...To use the WIFI. Just use the WIFI' (HHH User); '... and obviously WIFI, that's one of the big reasons I'm here,

the WIFI's good' (AHS, User) 'well, for what I need to do, to code, you need to do it on your laptop' (HHS User)

Although not mandatory, IPs highlight purchases in lobbies, especially buying good quality coffee, as avenues for reciprocating hotels' granting them free access, as this IP refers to it as informal rent.

'I spend, I don't know, £5-6 – one or two coffees. It's my rent, yeah no, it's an informal kind of rent' (IP at HHH).

Free WIFI access through their devices helped IPs connect to other articles of work for thinking, planning, designing, communicating, and sharing information (See Appendix for coding details). These include mobile phones, software, electronic mail (emails), slack, Google platforms, and Trello. IPs find ambient music provides a white noise wall that aids their need to concentrate. Few use headphones to focus (see word cloud in Figure 7.4). Ultimately, as hotels increase the music volume as the day matures, majority leave by late afternoon.

People types adopting lobbies complement IPs' need for community. Utilising terms appealing to co-creating ecosystems with a creative working community connects to why they access lobbies for work. 'Creative vibe', 'motivation', and 'everyone is working' exemplify their descriptors, even though each works alone. They christen the servicescapes atmosphere as 'vibe'. They link this term with what other creatives state as lobbies' attractive working environment offering:

'This is generally quite a creative place like there's a lot of tech companies here, there's a lot of start-ups, there's a lot of media companies, a lot of creative people. So, if you are wanting to work alongside people of that nature, it's good to be in here, meet different people. Yeah, so that's why I'm here in HHS' (IP at HHS)

'And so, the vibe that creative types of people here create helps' (IP at HHH)

'I like this place because there's a good vibe to it. You know it's all people that are in the creative or tech industry, and it's just a great place' (IP at AHS)

These responses indicate people's importance in driving users' adoption of lobbies. The regional characteristics may also be essential in driving creatives' attraction to these lobbies.

7.1.21 Work profile: Creative and relies on digital technology infrastructure

IPs require work-supporting hardware and software digital and mobile technology infrastructure in lobbies. The principal items exemplifying each are the lobby infrastructure and personal devices. The top two on their list are free WIFI and laptops that facilitate internet access often required for using their software, like email. Other enlisted items heavily rely on technology tasks like designing, creating and administrative tasks (see Appendix for full list). Money-saving, anti-spend and anti-market value system drive IPs' adoption of freely accessible lobby servicescapes. To better understand this adoption decision is to fully represent how IPs interpret these servicescapes against their operators' function construct.

7.1.22 Spatial

Scrutinising the demand-supply representation of users' experiential knowledge and interpretive use against hotel management's depiction of their lobby servicescapes' purpose indicates three different positions. First, the alignment of the three hotel lobbies' (AHS, HHH and HHS) policy position aligns with the public spatial interpretation of lobbies' publicness, observable workplace access, and consumption.

Second, the case studies oppose the lobby's publicness in CMH, resulting in access denial upon their management's awareness of the public interpretation. It emphasises CMH as an outlier lobby in this study as the public interpretative use conflicts with operators' policy position.

Third, CMH's management decision to monetise their lobby's access as workplaces suggests an additional policy position may also exist. In this sense, public access is chargeable before consumption. Thus, while this result does not mean most lobbies are public, it indicates three policy positions impact accessing and consuming lobbies. Results indicate that lobbies' spatial adoption practices as workplace alternatives are mainly non-market mediated, except for one.

7.1.23 Case hotel lobbies' spatial characterisation

Table 7.6: Interview questions for characterising spatial attributes (Q_{3a}, Q_{3b})

<u>Theoretical Phenomena of Interest</u>	<u>Interview Questions</u>
3 Spatial characterisation – Spatial attributes supporting user activities in lobby servicescapes	Q _{3a} : What are the specific characteristics of this lobby that directly and indirectly support your activities here? Q _{3b} : What is missing in this space that could better support your activities?

Similar to the work attributes, IPs' spatial attribution echoes work-supporting features, including free WiFi, people, coffee, and the environment. Figure 7.5 summarises their responses using AHS' ground floor plan that offers the highest number of IPs.

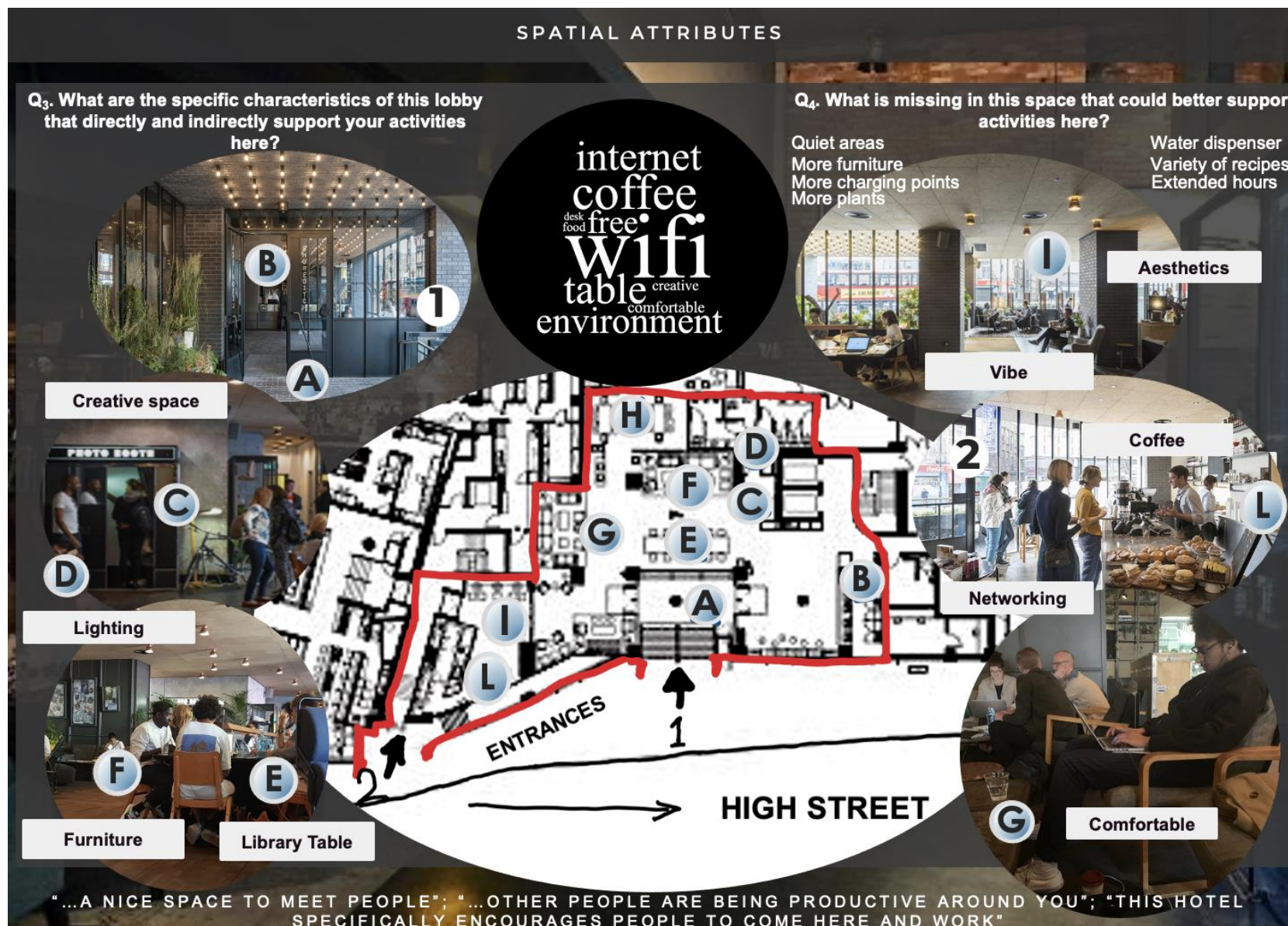


Figure 7.5: Spatial attributes supporting IPs activities in the case lobbies (Author's work)

Bounded within the red line is the AHS lobby servicescape. Alphabetic annotations corresponding with pictorial data denote servicescape setting with static photos of user activities. The layout mimics provisions IPs identify as enabling their work-related activities. For example, accessing the AHS lobby from entrance (1) leads onto landing (A), with the reception desk (B) to the right. Turning left offers options to either use its photo booth or cash machine at (C), the toilets (D), take a seat on the 16-person table with fixed chairs or other varied seating options at (H) and (F). The second entrance (2) leads into a seating area in the lobby foyer (I) and café (L), offering breakfast and beverages. The combination of these elements translates into lobbies’ work-supporting attributes.

7.1.23.1 Work-enabling spatial characteristics

Lobbies’ characteristics supporting IPs’ activities constitute free, unrestrictive, anonymous access to direct and indirect servicescape offerings. Ten frequently occurring words from their responses exemplify these offerings the Nvivo word cloud above in Figure 7.5 illustrates. The direct services offerings include technology and furniture facility infrastructure (e.g., ‘free’ WIFI, internet and table). Indirect ‘soft’ services comprise experiential elements (e.g., creative vibe, coffee, and comfortable environment) in Figures 7.5 above and 7.6 below.

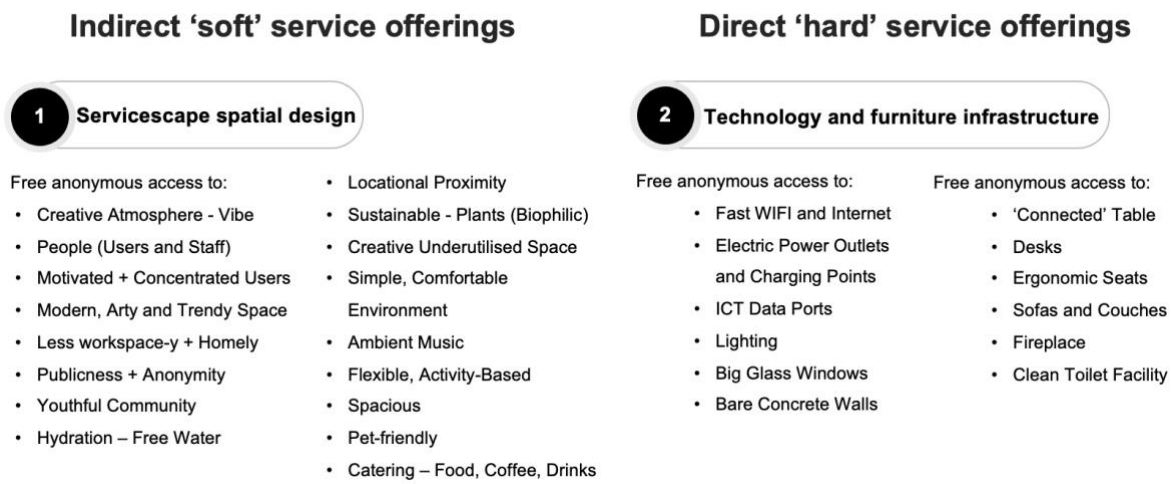


Figure 7.6: Direct and Indirect service offerings characterise case lobbies in how they support users’ activities

IPs rank free WIFI/internet, table/desk, and coffee as the top three attributes.

7.1.23.1.1 Indirect ‘soft’ service offerings

Indirect ‘soft’ service offerings are primarily freely accessible lobby attributes appealing to feeling or an emotional outcome and informing users’ experience. While these offerings may have a physical element, IPs’ representations suggest they evoke feelings attracting them to access lobbies.

1. Servicescape spatial design: Lobbies’ spatial character

The servicescape spatial design incorporates thematic descriptions from respondents. This section provides detailed descriptions of the case lobbies and their users’ insight, perceptions and knowledge of why and how they serve their work-related needs.

‘So, they want you to work here because actually people are buying...’ (HHH User)

The façade of the two British (HHH & HHS) and American (AHS) brands are alike, with locational proximity encouraging public access, except for the Dutch (CMH). Moreover, their glass panelling offers views of internal activities that may appeal to and attract the local public footfall, with HHS, HHH and AHS entrances directly facing London streets and their doors leading into lobby servicescapes.

- **Locational proximity**

‘Close to my house – It’s about 1 minute away from my house, yeah’ (AHS User)

‘... I think also with the proximity to transport links, different schools around here, and lots of people that come here to just work’ (HHH User)

‘Here and AHS – just anywhere around here really that’s local’ (HHS User)

Their regional locations in Figure 6.6 and Table 7.2 represent AHS, CMH and HHS position east of London and HHH, central. IPs’ narratives support the notion that locational proximity informs access for the immediate local community and non-locale IPs via public transport or walk routes.

- **Sustainable Design**

Biophilic elements with tree plantings, a wall of foliage (Pook, 2019) and natural potted plants feature in HHH, HHS and AHS hotels' façade and lobbies. With direct access to their lobbies on the ground floor, varied fixtures and vintage stripped-back furnishings subdivide them into activity zones. AHS design is deliberately sustainable themes of inexpensive, repurposed, reclaimed furniture (Benchmark, 2023) and fittings (Universal Design Studios, 2023) that AHS entrance door handles depict in Figure 7.7 below:

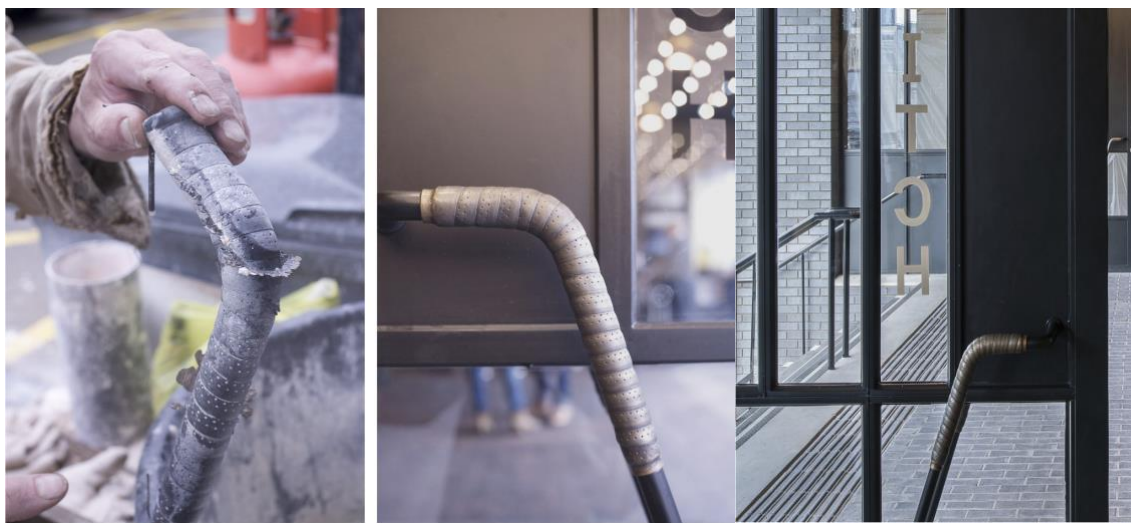


Figure 7.7: Old pipe reclaimed and repurposed as door handles (Photo from AHS Architect, Universal Design Studios (2023))

These sustainable themes complement their holistic servicescape IPs describe as simple, comfortable, and creative.

- **Simple and Comfortable**

'...the most comfortable place to work; it's more simple for me to do good work (AHS Users); it's comfortable and aesthetically pleasing; It's simple, it's comfortable (HHH Users); It's a very comfortable place (HHS User); It's simple (HHH User)

The most observable servicescapes' feature is their departure from the traditional grand hotel lobby styling. Instead, they are simple, non-intimidating, and public. AHS' co-founder succinctly corroborates IPs' responses (Gott and Anderson, No Date). His narratives appeal to lifestyle branding that absorbs its cultural setting (Civilian London, 2013, Anand, 2017 & Williams, 2015). Furthermore, his remarks

suggest flexible design intentions that afford community hybridisation and mingling between lodgers and the public (Anand, 2017) this HHH user describes:

I work in advertising, so I'm always thinking about a consumer or lifestyle or ... what do people do every day, what do they or don't they need in their lives, you know how are they interacting with adverts and technology and messaging and all that kind of stuff. So, this place kind of helps build an idea of what that market looks like – who am I talking to, who's my audience, you know (Creative Director at HHH).

Lifestyle choice correlates with all the case hotels theming, although their classification is unclear. Non-empirical sources vacillate between their boutique and lifestyle classifications (Bon-vivant, No Date, Fawaz, 2015; Simmons, 2016, Ayers, 2016, Ting, 2017, CitizenM, 2023), while their operators' responses echo this lifestyle branding, raising queries about what their users' attribution of 'vibe' suggests.

- **Creative vibe**

Recurrent indirect servicescape offerings are psychographic spatial interpretation IPs refer to as 'vibe' that match AHS co-founder's depiction of their ideal hotel clientele.

'We don't look at demographic. It's more psychographic. They could be 19, 20, 21...or 45. They're usually just into a vibe or aesthetic or an uncomplicated attitude ...cultural creatives, designers, ad agencies...' (Gott and Anderson, No Date)' (AHS Co-founder)

'Vibe' represents a combination of spatial atmospheric elements and user typology in lobby environments that evoke positive feelings, as this IP attempts to define.

*'...vibe is a mix of things: this place is cool because it's very **spacious**, an exception in London. There's a **big table** where we all **work**, and that leads very easily to conversations being started and getting to know new **people**. And also, the **décor**, the way they did it is really cool, very like **modern**. And there's people coming and going all the time, so I think that's interesting' (HHH User) '...and so, vibe that the types of people here create helps' (AHS User)*

This definition combines servicescape elements that promote work-enabling environments in lobbies (see sections 7.4 & 7.5) to foster social connections that underscore the importance of people accessing and consuming case lobbies.

- **People: Lobby staff and users**

Friendly staff and users represent elements of vibe. Section 7.2 above captures unspoken collaborative spatial creation seen in staff and users' amenable dispositions, except in CMH. Networking opportunities, access to other creatives and meeting users of similar interests are attractive and work-supporting spatial attributes. Being in an environment filled with other workers and creatives is a source of motivation and concentration, indirectly supporting IPs' activities.

'There are many people here who have come to work, not that they would come to bother you, but their presence encourages you to work. When you think of the open-plan office, it can be really noisy and distracting, but here, though it is open, you still have some sort of privacy' (AHS User).

This combination of demand for communal settings that foster anonymity accompanies some IPs' need for catering provisions.

- **Catering provisions, publicness, and anonymity**

Morning breakfast servings are commonly observed shortly after most users arrive and begin work (see section 7.2.4). However, afternoons are busier, with lunch bookings spilling beyond the restaurant area that this lobby supervisor explains:

'Our lobby is open to the public. However, when I have a really busy lunch, and the restaurant is busy and bookings are full, even this side (right-hand-side from the façade) is used for the restaurant, so I ask workers to move further to the section closer to the front desk so I can accommodate lunch bookings. Lunch bookings are very popular, as you can see, it is very busy' (HHH Lobby Supervisor)

Although public, prioritising lunch bookings show hotels' concern for their commercial interest yet accommodating their projected altruism. IPs also participate in these paid service provisions, especially coffee purchases, which

they strongly associate with reciprocity. To them, the result of lobbies' publicness and the public using them for work is symbiotic.

- **Creative use of underutilised space**

'Hotels' lobbies would have been dead space before. You know, maybe there's people coming in and out; they're just using it for check-in. The people staying in the hotel just come down to wait for a friend, but now they get to use this space ... say this is coffee – how much coffee are they really selling? – it's not a large amount, but it's something more than having a dead space, yeah? And then I think also the culture that it promotes is sort of hip now – the idea that you're in a place for like or different minds to exchange ideas.' (Freelance Creative Designer and Architect)

This CIS worker's rationale demonstrates an understanding of the beneficial offerings associated with hotels' departure from the traditional underuse of their lobbies. Reference to coffee sales and other possible value extractions from offering free servicescape access in a quid pro quo is a view most IPs share.

'So, the hotel lobby looks a lot better for them than if it's completely empty. So, I mean for them...I think they like it; it attracts like modern young people'. (Entrepreneur)

Drawing 'modern young people' into servicescapes' atmosphere is among other appealing attributes transforming lobbies into work venues.

- **Other servicescape attributes**

Subsumed in some of the above are descriptors and words that capture the feelings that support IPs' activities in lobbies. These descriptors include a mix of vintage (Cranshaw, 2019) and modern themes. For example, the London Telegraph describes HHH as a trendy lobby and 'a magnet for laptop-wielding creatives' (Wong, 2019). Other tangible references evoking emotions include their pet-friendliness, the homely (better than home) settings that make lobby environments less workspace-y for IP's work activities and the anonymity previously discussed. In addition, exposed and plastered brickwork with displayed wall hangings, fixtures, and fittings with local artwork, such as paintings and other handicrafts, presents an arty space. Finally, IPs sometimes discuss indirect offerings in combination with direct offerings. However, direct 'hard' service

offerings are infrastructure-type elements, like WiFi influencing users' access decisions.

7.1.23.2 Direct 'hard' service offerings

Direct hard service offerings are all lobby servicescapes' facilities and amenities their management grants free and anonymous access to use. While these may evoke an emotional response, IPs mainly utilise them for 'work' activities, as these responses exemplify:

'I can stay a long time because they have plugs here and very good WIFI' (AHS User)

'Without the WiFi, I wouldn't come (HHH User).'

'Because without WiFi, I wouldn't be able to do my work here' (HHS User)

2. Technology and Furniture Infrastructure

All case lobbies have amenities that can support portable work. They include good WiFi signals, electric power sources, communal tables and seats, and an abundant supply of electrical sockets.

I'm sitting in London working on a project in Washington DC and another in the Bay Area in California ... and this technology and resource access to it, the resource in this space, in this hotel lobby, is what provides me to be able to work from wherever I want to work from. (Freelance Creative Designer and Architect)

According to most IPs' responses, such as above, access to lobbies' technology and spatial resource support capabilities to work mobile. IPs' often refer to free WIFI and electrical plugs and sockets casually as though it is the norm.

- **Technology**

IPs enjoy free, unrestricted, and anonymous access to good quality and fast WIFI, electric power supply and data ports.

'Well, internet obviously the most important' (HHH User)

'Well, I need to get onto my emails, I need to do some research on the internet, and so it is essential – I can't do without the internet' (HHS User)

'Everything is now digital, isn't it? So it's very easy for me to just carry around, and then because I'm on the WIFI you can download sort & work through that' (AHS User)

- **Furniture**

All four lobbies boast a variety of ergonomic and comfortable seats and library-style tables with electric sockets and data ports built into their legs. Library-styled tables rate highly as a favourite lobby offering. For instance, AHS has the longest table with an overhead lamp fitting, perhaps because it is a much darker-toned space. The space also features dark wood floors, bare concrete walls, tufted couches, and soft corner armchairs (Pook, 2019). Tall cabinets, floral décor and building features like columns demarcate seats to group activities zones, breakouts spaces and natural boundaries. Floors are wooden with colours and rugs visually grouping seats, introducing a break into lobbies long span.

- **Lighting**

Lobbies' long-span glazing affords the introduction of daylight, brightening the space, with CMH as the brightest with a note that its lobby is on the first floor. Artificial light fittings, such as chandeliers and lamps, provide well-lit and bright spaces. While the AHS lobby has similar features as HHH and HHS, it is distinctively darker, relying on natural and few dim lightings (Beckett, 2014). This may also explain the reduced number of female (IPs) in the space.

Other features include high ceilings and the provision of accessible, clean, and well-maintained toilet facilities from observational and interview data. Each site differentiates itself with unique designs and offerings. For instance, AHS has an operational card machine and photo booth service for passport photographs. In addition, HHS boasts of a fireplace that IPs enjoy in the winter months of this study. According to the hotel management response, HHH has a popular lunch booking service.

7.1.23.2.1 Contrasting lobbies with other flexible work environments

Within the context of the spatial attributes is a constant comparison IPs make with alternative offerings, such as homes, coffee shops, coworking spaces and

libraries, and traditional workplaces. They reiterate that lobbies' value as freely accessible with all its attendant benefits is not very dissimilar from the key offerings other places provide for a fee. A generous length of stay without pressure to leave, ease of WIFI access, clean toilet facilities, invisibility, professional enough environment to meet a work colleague or client and ability to focus constitute some of their arguments. Gaining all these benefits without charge is a strong value proposition to IPs:

'A time I tried a coworking space – it was alright, but...they are too expensive, given what you get, some of them are like £300 and think that this type of space is available for free. There is no justification for going there in my view'. (AHS User)

'... Pret and Costa have WIFI, but you have to ask as well, so it's limited' (HHH User).

'WIFI is for streaming. So, this presentation is streaming from the internet, if I use my data, it's actually quite expensive, but if I go on WIFI it's free'. (HHS user)

7.1.23.3 Missing spatial attributes that could better support lobby use

To improve lobbies' services, IPs' named missing attributes mainly focus on improving or expanding their offerings. IPs' top ten missing spatial items for better supporting their work activities consist of more tables, free drinks, food, freely accessible meeting rooms, private booths or spaces designated as 'quiet' to make calls. Other requests include more plants, charging points, water dispensers, and extended hours without increasing the music volume in the evenings. These elements are not necessarily 'missing' as most already exist in the lobbies. Instead, they reflect needs that replicate AW models like coworking.



Figure 7.8: Top 10 words used in response to Q_{3b} of the missing elements in case lobbies that can better support IPs' work-related activities

CMH management's policy clash with IPs' perceived publicness of lobbies shows the unintended consequences of branding intentions that appeal to the societal working demographic, like AHS. CMH's hotel's intent to attract paying 'mobile citizens' also attracts mobile working members of the public. Successfully monetising their lobby access suggests a public embrace of flexible market-mediated lobby access. Using economic curtailment to constrain lobby access differentiates CMH from the other case lobbies. Thus, while AHS, HHH, and HHS grant free, anonymous access to public users seeking alternative work venues, the CMH market mediates theirs.

7.1.24 Employing the user-work-spatial theoretical vector to discover the functional switch of lobby servicescapes into workplaces

Three theoretical vectors in Figure 7.1 facilitates this research's discovery of CIS workers as principal actors behind flexibly adopting lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Extracting the knowledge and wisdom from IPs' narrative construction of their lived experiences (Charmaz, 2014) to answer the research question of 'why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces?' begins with the first two sub-questions.

1. How do users characterise themselves and the lobby servicescapes regarding their spatial access and consumption intentions to work?
2. Why are these lobbies suitable for users in (1) to work?

7.1.25 Lobby users are autonomous CIS workers intent on accessing and consuming lobby servicescapes for work without market-mediation

Study indicates that users represent an autonomous, entrepreneurial, independent, and modern CIS worker demographic. It classifies them into entrepreneur, employee and student typologies with occupational descriptors correlating with Florida's (2002) creative secretariat. Their modernity imbues values connecting the last two generational cohorts (see Chapter 5). These creatives mostly premeditate their regular visits, with the study suggesting occasional chance encounters.

Rather than working only from designated employment addresses, they have full or partial autonomy of their work location choice with preferences for working mobile and anonymously. They exercise this choice as workers to access and consume lobbies' accessible communal environment without charge. Behavioural patterns and narratives suggest that users leverage varying levels of autonomy to choose where to work by electing lobbies. Motivating this adoption is a search for non-market mediated accessible environments supporting their need for

productivity, community, anonymity, and invisibility, among others. Lobbies substitute their offices, homes, and schools; in a few cases, they are their primary work base.

Accessing lobbies with intent and preparedness to rely on personal devices and direct and indirect offerings to produce their creative work indicates value extraction activities in lobby servicescapes. These workers leverage the intrinsic value of idling case lobbies by personalising their chosen working area with mostly free direct and indirect offerings to work, like the hotel's WIFI. Connecting personal technology artefacts, like computers, to the internet through lobbies' WiFi infrastructure is primary to their capabilities to work mobile.

An unwritten, tacit social contract between operators and the public governs user access and consumption activities. During and at the end of the consumption process are implicit but unsolicited transactions to reciprocate or barter access rights to work in lobbies. These transactions are cloaked in beverage and food purchases, in other cases, positive online reviews. Therefore, how users adopt lobby servicescapes convolutes non-market mediated access with reciprocity actions of perceived hotels' altruism that meet their socio-economic work-related needs.

7.1.26 Why are lobbies suitable for CIS users?

This study indicates CIS workers' working practices and lifestyle values influence why lobby servicescapes suit their workplace needs. First, their narratives suggest that consuming direct and indirect servicescape offerings with unrestricted, non-market-mediated and non-charging access informs why they access lobbies. Chief among lobbies' work-supporting attributes is free WiFi connectivity, enabling CIS workers to access online software (e.g. emails) and platforms (cloud) from their devices, such as laptops.

Second, CIS workers rate lobbies as suitable places for escaping workplace distractions. Escapism from social interactions that make them less productive in

their workplaces informs why workers adopt lobbies. In this sense, the three expressions of lobby users escape from work colleagues, employees, and other distractors, seeking the invisibility they believe lobbies offer to work uninterrupted. They interpret case lobbies as sympathetic environments to their demand for working undistracted and anonymously.

With an awareness of other alternatives to traditional workplaces, the study indicates they qualify lobbies as places accommodating access and anonymity, promoting uninterrupted work. For example, the entrepreneur chooses lobbies over other possible spaces and their office; the employee swaps lobbies for their workplaces or homes, and those utilising lobbies as their primary workplaces, while the student prefers lobbies over institution-study provision. As much as they dislike spatial fixity, characterised as desk ownership in fixed work geographies, so do they seek out spaces offering user anonymity. Thus, these behaviours imply a growing demand among CIS workers for traditional workplace substitutes, regardless of their employment status. Within this construct are nuanced motivations, such as efforts to ease feelings of social isolation often accompanying remote working.

Thirdly, few find lobbies suitable for combating isolated working conditions synonymous with lone working, remote-working employees, self-employed or gig workers and entrepreneurs. These reasons highlight efforts towards improving productivity and limiting social isolation in the working practice context.

Fourthly, CIS workers' lifestyle value alignment with case lobbies' publicness philosophy supports their exercising agency and power of spatial choice for free access. An anti-spend, anti-market, and money-saving value system, opposing adopting equivalent but fee-charging AWs drives this spatial attraction. Study narratives indicate that an anti-spend, anti-market and money-saving lifestyle value system drives this spatial attraction to access lobbies. Their users' reason that freely accessible lobbies with all their attendant benefits are not very dissimilar from the critical offerings of well-known market-mediated AWs, like co-working. A

generous length of stay without pressure to leave, ease of WIFI access, clean toilet facilities, invisibility, professional enough environment to meet a work colleague or client and ability to focus constitute value users extract. They leverage lobbies' public infrastructure offerings to achieve their work intentions.

Finally, lobby servicescapes afford CIS workers the collaborative communal working ecosystems they seek and value. Their involvement in co-creating these working ecosystems meld lobbies' value offerings with users' value extraction and value system. Both lobby staff and CIS workers co-create motivating working milieus with a 'vibe' users associate with the holistic servicescapes offerings that include the people.

Their need for socialised environments demonstrable in experiential servicescapes includes networking, community, collaboration, feeding off energies, 'doing the same thing', 'everyone is working', and creating a collective sense of togetherness, even though most are working alone. The environment created with these components engenders an atmosphere that evokes positive feelings. For example, staff and public guests generate an atmosphere that connects a community of strangers mostly there to work away from distractions they experience in their workplaces, homes or schools. More importantly, without these CIS workers' active participation in co-creating such environments, the case lobbies may remain idle and underused.

Supply-sided narratives present a unique perspective suggesting lobby servicescapes are in an idling spatial condition. Consequently, this servicescape state occasions 'opportunity spaces' that grant public access to their lobbies. Most IPs recognise this spatial idleness and deduce that hotels allow access for commercial purposes. Thus, this implicit reason for lobbies' publicness is their idling capacities during working hours of the week, which their operators recognise as avenues to exploit peripatetic workers' needs.

Indications of socio-economic factors underpin why and how users adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Prominent in their approach is an economic

emphasis on lobbies' free, unrestrictive accessibility that influences social behaviours and work-related activities. Knowledge of non-market mediated access precedes users' intentions that customise and co-create servicescapes into work venues. Moreover, dialogic comparisons between freely accessible lobbies and well-known alternatives, like co-working, indicate an economics of spatial access toward an anti-market and anti-spend value system. Added to this economisation is a compensatory rationale to reciprocate hotels' perceived altruism, resulting in a conundrum. For example, unsolicited purchases, positive online reviews, and other brand-supporting actions are informal compensations for freely accessing lobbies.

Hence, social factors integrate hotels' sympathetic collaborative access offerings with workers' servicescapes interpretation to fulfil their demands for flexible communal work ecosystems. Ultimately, study indicates CIS workers choose specific lobbies over other possible workplace alternatives for various reasons connected to financial prudence and needed socialisation. Considering the study's user demographic and associated informality and precariousness of self-employed CIS workers (Merkel, 2019), public access to free, work-supporting lobbies and infrastructure presents an attractive economic proposition.

7.1.27 Understanding lobbies' transformation into workplaces with existing conceptual frameworks and theories.

Hotel lobbies are not typical alternative work environments permissible to non-paying, non-logging public guests. Yet, the preceding sections present study outcomes that imply otherwise. They suggest creative industry sector (CIS) workers discover, access, customise, co-create and consume non-market-mediated, idling lobby servicescapes they interpret as sympathetic and supportive to their workplace needs. Underpinning how these workers exercise their agency to customise case lobbies into workplaces mostly begins with their knowledge of free access that hotel operators grant. This discovery creates conditions suitable for these workers to develop access intentions for regularly visiting lobbies, leading to their functional but temporal switch from servicescapes (Bitner, 1992) to working

'scapes' (after (Appadurai,1996)) daily. Understanding the structural nature and drivers of spatial access is in resolving Chapter 3's propositions.

Therefore, discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt lobby servicescapes from the preceding sections lies in further uncovering their socio-economic motivations. Herein lies the relevance of study narratives with the collaborative and access-based consumption theories (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Non-market mediated spatial access temporarily into lobbies with idling capacities that preserve user anonymity align with their users' antimarket value system. After access, it permits their involvement in servicescapes' customisation into communal worksites, indicating access drivers underpinning spatial consumption behaviours. To further discover the relevance of these theories, is to analyse each access dimension structurally in the next chapter.

Chapter 8: Comparative analysis of case studies with theories to resolve research propositions

Demonstrable utility of lobbies for work in the previous chapter demystifies the normative workplace construct of spatial fixity. The theoretical plausibility that emergent user typologies customise lobbies to satisfy their flexible spatial demands upends the historical nature of workplace geographical fix. While mobile working is not novel, the empirical expression of work practices in lobbies is new.

8.1.1 Introduction to case studies' comparative analysis

How each lobby produces similar consumption outcomes through free, unrestrictive spatial access differs from established servicescape uses but aligns with existing consumption theories. Although Bitner's (1992:57-71) servicescapes framework foundations an understanding of case lobby service environments, users' experiential use differs from its convention. Her framework reconciles supply-sided contribution towards users' consumption behaviours, offering compelling grounds for seeking answers to differentiated use.

On the other hand, building an empirical understanding of this phenomenon into theory evokes Botsman and Rogers' (2011) and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) conceptual offerings. These two models sense-make the theoretical construction of IPs' access and consumption narratives. Botsman and Rogers (2011) frame an overarching system and principles of collaboratively co-creating and consuming lobbies. Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) theoretical relevance is in the precursory role access plays in studied lobbies. This chapter employs the latter theoretical taxonomy through the lens of the former to analyse for a better understanding of the case study narratives and data.

8.1.2 Applying CC principles in case lobbies' consumption

Botsman and Rogers' (2011) CC philosophy transcends consumed entities to how and why people consume products and services. In her 2010 and 2012 TED talks, Botsman (TED, 2010, 2012) characterises CC as the social and economic system

driven by network technologies that enable exchanges in ways and a scale previously impossible (Botsman, 2012). The following sections examine this study's workplace discovery in lobbies employing four underpinning principles of CC (pp.95-181).

8.1.3 Critical mass of consumption

Choice and social proof underpin the CC principle of critical mass. It is the demonstrable attainment of enough momentum in a self-sustaining consumption practice (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75). In this sense, the self-sustaining practice is choosing from a growing pool of AWs and creating a working ecosystem of enough users in lobby servicescapes. The former explains how CC encourages many options that lead to informed decisions best suited to the user. In the latter, case lobbies' transformation into workplaces largely relies on mass public consumption of lobbies without hotels' direct intervention.

Study narratives indicate CIS workers, having experienced other flexible environments like coworking and libraries, choose lobbies suited to their needs. Herein lies the risk of straying into the consumer research territory. Understanding consumers' preferred places to work (Mooro, 2020, Grassin, 2017) is a form of consumer research. This demand-focused approach helps workplace stakeholders, like facility managers and space designers, better understand and provide valuable servicescapes that meet users' needs.

Social proof encourages unfamiliar users to cross the psychological barrier to try lobbies as a new alternative (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:81-83). The emphasis here is on the information source leading to the working practice these narratives infer. They show the direct (people) and indirect (online) social proofing of lobbies.

'I work completely from home remotely. My head office is based in New York, so I work from home, so I like to get out and about. I said to him (cousin) recently, why don't you work from home every now ... and hang with me for the day' (U.K-based Digital Editor)

‘...when I search for ‘Where do I want to work from today’ –you see all the lists of top 10, top 15 places to work from... AHS, they have that association... I’d say I’m a designer, so they are known for attracting creatives’ (Designer)

The critical mass principle in lobby consumption leans into users’ reciprocity that hotels benefit from granting public access into their lobbies. Study narratives show how social proof offers a cognitive shortcut for people to access lobbies as work venues based on shared experiences or recommendations (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:81-83). Cialdini *et al.* (1999) provide a probable explanation for the concentration of creatives using case lobbies: people tend to copy the actions of others they deem similar to them (1243-1244).

8.1.4 Trust between strangers of consumption

Study narratives suggest a measure of trust exists among the working ecosystem of strangers consuming case lobbies. This trust affords self-governance among the CIS workers due to their shared interests within the lobby consumption environment (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91-93). This principle is in step with social proofing in that validation and positive reviews of other users introduce a new intermediary for trust and familiarity (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:92).

The difference is that a non-commercial spatial engagement is at play within these lobbies, as the coming sections further explicate. Therefore, these predominantly entrepreneurial CIS workers generate a sense of collective responsibility to monitor spatial access and utilisation in these lobbies. A few expressions of caution and reticence towards trusting this collective communal space use identify WiFi security concerns and lobbies’ publicness for work:

‘There is one thing where I’m not 100% sure it’s okay; it’s the fact that the WiFi is completely free, there is no password protection. And I think it would be better if there was a password protection’ (Financial services consultant)

Yet, free WiFi access is precisely why most IPs adopt lobbies for work. While only this user expresses this concern, this IP raises concerns about taking breaks.

‘...you do feel nervous about leaving like £1000 laptop while you wander off to the toilet or whatever....so yeah I guess it’s not amazingly secure’ (Digital Editor)

Although security misgivings are not prevalent in study narratives, the examples above highlight trust factors within freely accessible spaces, even when unspoken. Overall, study data suggest high preferences for freely accessing WiFi without password protection with no expression of security concerns. Thus, a collective sense of responsible spatial consumption may exist through tacit communal monitoring as individuals work as a group of strangers.

8.1.5 Belief in the commons of consumption

Underpinning this principle is access to lobbies’ resources by ‘the commons’ (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-91) participants. Characterising this CC principle is a shared belief that case lobbies are not for a selected class (p.89), hence departing from privatising access (Kreiczer-Levy, 2017, Mildemberger, 2019); this comment reveals:

‘Our lobby is open to the public as long as they can find a space to sit. You can see so many laptops everywhere. Startups, students and people that need a space... Some people who can’t afford an office come here. Because we offer free WIFI, we attract all kinds of people that need digital connectivity’ (HHH Lobby Supervisor)

HHH’s publicness exemplifies the outworkings of ‘the commons’ similar to the Creative Commons platform⁴. Narratives attest to accessing non-censored and registration-free milieus that supports this ‘belief in the commons’ principle (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-89), demonstrable in any public user taking up available spaces to engage in activities like focussed work, meetings, job interviews, and project collaborations.

‘People come here to focus, and there’s less of a distraction’ (HHS Lobby User)

‘We have a presentation ... so we’re working out of the hotel’ (AHS Lobby User)

‘I had a meeting here this morning with a newly married couple that are looking to buy a home. So I set up here as my office for the day. (HHH Lobby User)

⁴ <https://creativecommons.org>

I've seen two job interviews here just this morning... (AHS Lobby User)

The network effect this belief generates (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91) suggests lobbies are communal work environments that better serve the common user. Hence, the quest to participate in collaboratively customising them into workplaces further attracts more workers of similar interests (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:90). This might partly explain the high percentage of CIS worker interview participation.

8.1.5.1 Idling capacity of consumption

Idling capacity is lobby servicescapes' unused potential when not in use (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:83). At the heart of their transformation into work venues is the reckoning to 'redistribute' their idleness for public consumption. Idling capacity is the most relevant and directly applicable CC principle in this study's discovery. The demand and supply narratives reconcile the most logical resolution of lobbies' idle conditions: their accessibility and publicness. Since study data shows periods the public extract value from them coincide with nine-to-five working time, lobby servicescapes' idling capacity resides within this window. IPs chorus a sense of appreciation for and awareness of this spatial state of idleness:

'...Lobbies would have been dead spaces before. Maybe there's people...just using it for check-in. The people staying in the hotel just come down to wait for a friend, but now they get to use this space...' (Freelance Creative Designer & Architect)

'..It's given me more than what I would expect from a hotel lobby... I don't need a fax machine...you know it suits my purposes' (Strategic Management Consultant)

Spatial idleness in such servicescapes is holistic, not just empty seats and tables. For example, the narrative above shows how the public exploitation of lobbies is possible because of increasing detachment from old technologies like fax machines and growing reliance on mobile and digital technologies. Moreover, IPs' narratives show the near-impossible task of working in such spaces without access to hotels' technology infrastructure.

'Well, I need to get onto my emails, I need to get onto particular applications that are used for work, and I need to get onto LinkedIn. I need to do some research on the internet, and so it is essential – I can't do without the internet' (Fintech Consultant)

The technology factor in the above narrative prevails across responses. For instance, access to the internet is a caveat to working capabilities in lobbies because technology affords value extractions possible in idle lobbies (Botsman and Rogers, (2011:84-86); Botsman, 2012). Similar CC practices reliant on technology for service delivery are consumption models like WeWork, Zipcar, Uber, and Airbnb. However, extracting value from lobbies' idling capacity in this study does not suggest a direct commercial motivation like these models. Instead, lobbies technology supports user activities. CC in lobbies is an access-informed route to a holistic servicescape consumption, chiefly reliant on free WiFi access.

8.1.5.2 Principles of collaborative consumption of lobbies

Study indicates choice and social proof features of the CC's critical mass principle (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76) underlie how CIS workers consume lobbies. They influence decisions to work in lobbies, amongst other flexible spatial options. Word of mouth and online sources exemplify social proofing routes to CIS workers' access decisions. They validate and recommend case lobbies as work milieus, drawing even more public footfall. This indirect reciprocation by way of free advert generates trust among similar user groups in promoting lobby consumption practices. Their belief that lobbies are publicly accessible work milieus fosters a shared sense of non-hierarchical spatial customisation.

These practices model a social space of consumption equality promoting trust among strangers working together alone (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:167-169; Spinuzzi, 2012) as a common collective. However, such consumption practice is only possible because of lobbies' idling capacities the public exploit during the usual working hours of the day. For this to work, access to hotels' technology promotes value extraction differently from other CC types. Freely accessing hotel's technology enables users' work activities rather than via technology platforms.

8.1.6 Constructing the nature and drivers of AbC dimensions in lobby servicescapes

Cars and lobbies are spatial consumption entities differing in portability. Nonetheless, their spatial similarity offers an initial analytical reference point for engaging Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access-based consumption taxonomy. The met demand in car-sharing is transportation, in case lobbies, workplaces. Due to its exploratory nature, Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) model for studying car-sharing sets a useful contextual premise for analysing the lobby-working phenomenon. At the heart of this research is the reckoning that hotels redistribute their idling and underutilised lobbies (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:84) by granting access to users, who then repurpose them to fulfil flexible workplace demand.

Figure 8.1 below unifies lobby consumption as collaborative, informed by access with the two consumption CC and AbC positions. Thus, this analytical chapter utilises Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC dimensions as structural framings for repurposing idling lobbies. So, it combines their car-sharing field of access (pp. 887-894) with Botsman and Rogers' (2011:84) CC principles to analyse case lobbies consumption. The outcome is a theoretical framework with taxonomies outlining elemental units of study findings to characterise modern working practices seen in the materiality of studied lobbies. Structuring and applying each dimension to lobbies' operational outworking supports the constructivist comparative theoretical analysis Charmaz (1990) advances. This structured approach provides a framing for theorising the transformative use of lobbies by examining their access drivers (why) and nature of access (how) from research data.

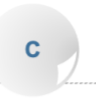
CC Principles	Critical mass 	Critical mass 	Belief in the commons 	Trust between strangers 	Idling capacity 	Idling capacity 
AbC Dimensions	Market-Mediated	Temporality	Consumer Involvement	Anonymity	Accessed Object	Political Consumerism
Access Drivers (Why)	Profit Vs Not-for-Profit	Short duration & use Vs Long duration & use	Limited Vs Extensive	Exclusive Vs Social	Experiential Vs Functional	Political Vs Non-Political
Nature of Access (How)	Economic Vs Community Support	One-time transaction Vs Longitudinal transaction	Owner-only Creation Vs Consumer Co-creation	Public Vs Private	Material Vs Immaterial	Environmentally Friendly Vs Antimarket Consumption Alternative
Introducing New AbC Dimensions in lobbies			Psychographic (Lifestyle) Dimension: Traditional Vs Modern Fixed Vs Mobile	Spatial Proximity Dimension: Affordability Vs Convenience Productive Vs Sociable		

Figure 8.1: Analytical framework for theorising lobbies' spatial adoption adapted from Botsman and Rogers (2011) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012)

Such unorthodox spatial access infers complex sociological and economic dynamics that may prove challenging to lock into a theory. Beginning the construction process of sense-making research narratives, knowledge, patterns, activities, and observations with existing theories yields generic outcomes towards theory development. This analytical enquiry with the above analysis in Figure 8.1 initiates this construction. As such, the following sections analyse research outcomes against this research propositions and employ AbC lenses to uncover their theoretical relevance and variations with the help of other relevant theories.

8.1.7 Market-mediated AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 1. Non-Market-Mediated Spatial Access: Users of hotel lobbies expect such service environments and their infrastructure to be publicly accessible and free to use.

Market-mediated access involves asset owners/operators granting consumer access for a fee without ceding ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881). In this sense, they identify, extract, redistribute and convert their assets' residual value or idling capacity into liquid forms (Botsman and Rogers, 2010, 2011:83-88). Inversely, non-market mediation involves granting access without the attendant direct financial exchanges. These definitions are supply-side-heavy, a shared trend with most AW research. Contrasting this approach is this research's

discovery of the non-market mediation consumption theme from lobby users' narratives drive lobby access.

8.1.7.1 Access drivers: Not-for-profit motivation of lobby access

Research data suggests that lobby operators grant users spatial access without direct reference to profit. Similarly, users emphasise money-saving opportunities they benefit from accessing the servicescapes.

'Our lobby is open to the public' – Supply

'I come here to save my money – free WIFI, free space to work' – Demand

Money saving is an access driver as IPs unapologetically express economic motivations governing their work venue choice. Lobbies' publicness fulfils creative workers' demand for free-to-access flexible spaces. This access approach goes against the convention of private service businesses designed for profit-making (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). They acknowledge that not-for-profit AbC typifies public sector transactions (p.885). Yet, studied cases follow the latter type in lobbies' private hospitality settings. At least not directly. Other attendant factors suggest that lobby access results in consumption practices that neutralise financial concerns (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:132-134). The implications of gaining free access to these lobbies unfold a conundrum suggesting unsolicited transactions that manifest as indirect reciprocity.

8.1.7.2 Nature of access: Economic conundrum of consuming lobbies

Lobbies offer a no-prerequisite, non-market mediated access to servicescapes comparable to home or office environments. Free publicly accessible work-supporting elements like WiFi and desks exemplify spatial attributes informing lobby access. IPs express the problematic nature of finding freely accessible 'convenience of everything' in other service environments and celebrate the ease in lobbies.

‘... it’s the convenience of everything that I would have at home ... or an office environment; it’s difficult to find places that have the free WiFi, plus outlets, with spaces’ (Lobby User)

Study informants’ value perception of free lobbies and associated cost advantages influence their spatial choice over commercially structured offerings. Connected to how IPs engage in this spatial use is their employment status.

‘Like WeWork is a popular place people go to – but (I don’t miss it), cos it’s quite pricey, and until you’ve got like a solid team, you’re building something where you need to have that you know 5, 10 hours a day a private room, then you probably don’t need it’ (Entrepreneur Lobby user)

Linking the entrepreneurial and freelance worker type to the cost-space relationship indicates IPs’ precariousness and the informal nature of their work. Entrepreneurial work is informal, unpredictable, and precarious (Merkel, 2019), and the above connotes this fact. Dimensionalising this economics of lobby consumption leans on comparisons made between lobbies’ spatial package and commercially designed alternatives that often feature in their responses. Each touchpoint along the typical lobby users’ journey (see section 7.1) reveals activities in a non-commodified space. Although some IPs express their disbelief in lobbies’ non-market mediated access when juxtaposed with other alternative offerings, they highly rate these charge-free lobby access.

‘...you come to places like this because you ...well, you can rent desks in places, but they’re quite a lot of money. I didn’t think this would exist; to be honest with you, I thought they’d tell you to get out after a while’ (Lobby User)

Lobbies’ servicescape design fulfils their users’ economic rationale that does not leave their patrons out of pocket. Immediate financial benefits from their non-market-mediated offerings against other commodified flexible spaces set case lobbies as IPs’ preferred flexible workplace option. Access, in this sense, is about choice. As mentioned in section 8.2.1.1, choice underpins the critical mass principle of CC and frees IPs to select suitable work venues, among other alternatives. In addition, users demand service expectations that incorporate good customer service with accessible infrastructure and facilities. Consequently,

lobbies draw the footfall of users that rejects transaction-based spatial service access that characterises so-called ‘third places’ (Oldenburg, 2006, 2013) expressed below.

‘Pret – you can’t really stay very much. We finished our coffee (here) about an half an hour ago, and you feel like you could stay here. At Pret, you have to pay to even sit down, and I’m not really into like paying whatever the surcharge for you to sit and have a coffee. You pay extra if you sit down in Pret – there’s a tax if you sit down! So, when you buy a sandwich they say, ‘are you eating in’? so they can charge you for it’ (Financial Consultant at HHS Lobby)

However, their non-interest in using chargeable flexible spaces partially reflects their accessibility demands. Instead, they reveal an AbC transactional conundrum demonstrable in users reciprocating hotels’ seeming altruistic gestures (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:894). Accessing these free, flexible lobbies elicits a transactional response from their IPs—a covert quid pro quo. Botsman and Rogers (2011:132) suggest these responses cater to an innate propensity to reciprocate in service to their benefactor’s long-term self-interest as below:

*‘I think a lot of the times with the spaces, you’ve got to find somewhere where you **aren’t forced** to order something. I always order like something, a coffee obviously, **to take a rent on your space for the day**’ (Lobby User)*

*I wouldn’t go back if I was specifically told like ‘You need to order something now’, right? So, I guess long-term custom you know, is guaranteed...or more or less guaranteed... if I feel like I’m **not pressured** for it. Yeah, I spend I don’t know £5-6 – one or two coffees. **It’s my rent; it’s an informal kind of rent**’ (Lobby User)*

Terms eliciting transactional responses in lobbies embedded in a force-free and pressure-free spatial access trigger a ‘rent’ indebtedness demonstrable in the economic reaction to hotels’ gestures. This reciprocation theme runs through all case lobbies, like IPs narratives above. More to these outcomes are other tangible and intangible benefits to the hotels. For instance, coffee ranked highest in these transactional responses, followed by other beverages, food, and art constituting tangible exchanges. A handful, however, interprets this gesture as a calculated market approach to ultimately benefit hotels, as below:

*'So a lot of these places **want you to work here** because actually **people are buying a lot of drinks, buying lunch**, so it works pretty much' (Lobby User)*

*'Most of these places **don't really need you for the money necessarily**; it also **brings a certain atmosphere** to the hotel as well. So if the people use the hotel lobby, **it looks a lot better for them than if it's completely empty**' (Lobby User)*

These narratives suggest mutually beneficial quid pro quo. Nevertheless, users' reciprocity extends beyond physical transactions. Intangible responses via online media to this perceived altruism constitute a barter position.

Online data highlights users reciprocate lobbies operators' gestures with today's highly valued social proof (Cialdini et al., 1999) that propagate the consumption activities of working in lobbies as an acceptable social behaviour (p.1243). In addition, positive publications, user reviews, vlogs, and blogs portray them as best places to work (Mooro, 2020), luring others.

'when I search for 'Where do I want to work from today' – and then you see all the lists of top 10, top 15 places to work from... the (AHS) Hotel is one' (Lobby User)

'...restriction on WiFi would be a big one, and when I'm seeking out a space, I look for that because a lot of them cut the WiFi out during the midday. This one luckily doesn't; you can walk in, you sign on, you don't have to ask anybody for a password; it's just ease of access. It's a very successful space' (Lobby User)

This proliferation of online posts contributes to this research's initial inquisition (see Chapter 2). Users' knowledge of lobbies' operational workings suggests a calculated approach to accessing these free offerings. As an aspect of CC's critical mass principle, social proof stems from a non-market-mediated access construct. It bridges the psychological gap linking users' indebtedness to hotels for granting free access to their idle but valuable servicescapes. Ostensibly, hotels may reap reputational and brand advantages from these voluntary online social proofing, projecting them as 'successful' in the above narrative. Yet, the definition of success in such spaces is contingent on satisfying their users' criterion, of which non-market mediated access is chief. Reciprocity as an outcome of non-market mediated access is a discussion point in the next chapter.

8.1.7.3 Economics of lobby access

Non-market mediation drives users' decisions to access and use case lobbies on a not-for-profit basis (Figure 8.1). The converse of how most commodified AW offerings exchange economic reward for user access with profiting as an end goal occurs in lobbies. If profiting occurs, it is covert. Thus, this access type caters to a CIS workers' intrinsic need, similar to publicly accessible workplace offerings, like libraries that reckons with the 'belief in the commons' (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-89). Only that libraries are publicly funded entities. Choice and social proof underpin CC's critical mass principle (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76), and their presence in the nature of access links CC with AbC.

However, there is more to their choice than the principles governing CC theory. Choosing lobbies is contingent on users' ease of access (no required registration), free from restrictions, allowing free access to servicescape infrastructure, and offering 'the convenience' of work-supporting articles. Users reciprocate this seeming altruism with unsolicited social proof and psychological 'rent' compensation. Therefore, hotels reap tangible and intangible benefits from users' voluntary reciprocation acts, scooping some commercial gains.

Hence, the economics of accessing lobbies as workplaces are non-market-mediated since no financial transaction precondition precludes public access. Instead, their accessibility is non-profit-led and relies on hotels' disposition to freely support a community of workers. However, data shows that the demand and supply sides mutually benefit from this space-use phenomenon as value extractions occur during a temporal public access window.

8.1.8 Temporality AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 2. Temporality of Spatial Access: Spatial consumption in lobbies is characterised by a mix of longitudinal (repeated access) and short-term access (one-time transaction).

Study suggests temporality is an access control variable that case study hotels employ to manage their lobby servicescapes' access and usage duration. Lobby

access temporality in Figure 8.1 is the transient nature of access and how their short- or long-term availabilities drive access (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884). Varying patterns averaging two or more days per week and time routine spanning morning to late afternoon characterise lobby servicescapes' access and consumption (see Figure 8.2 below). For instance, IPs typically use lobbies between 8 am and 5 pm.

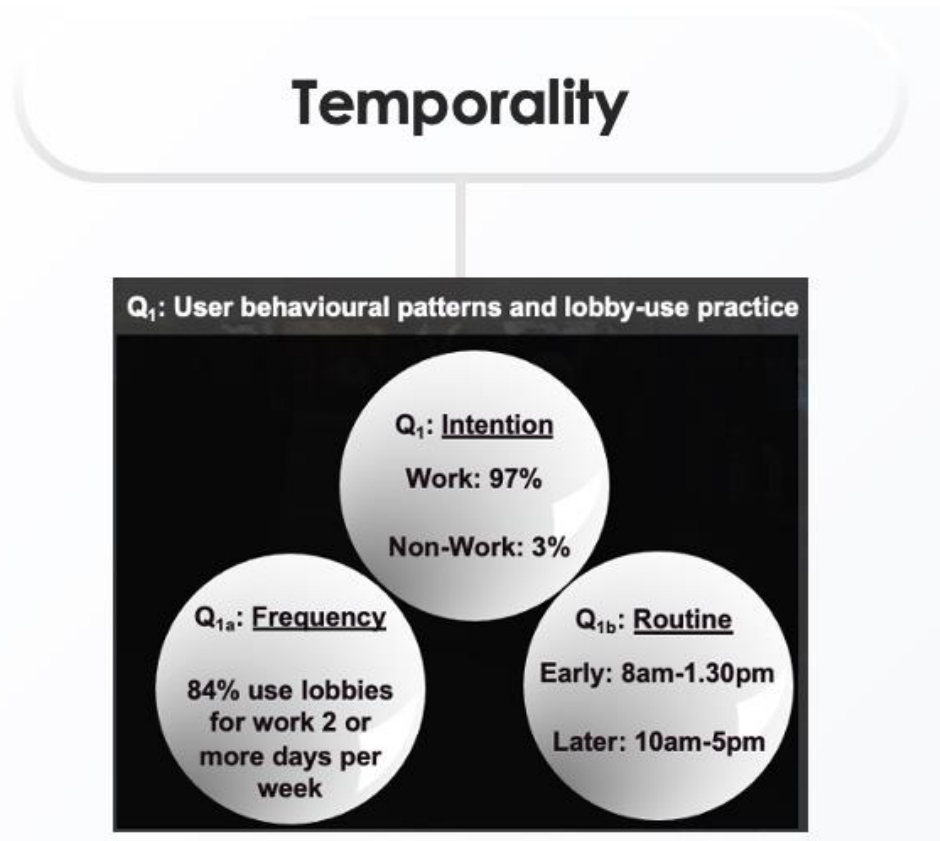


Figure 8.2: Varying access times with repetitive weekly use of lobbies

Control mechanisms, like increasing music volume, manage lobbies' extension as public workplaces and largely influence their use patterns. On one extreme is a one-off access transaction, and at the other, are repetitive consumption patterns similar to membership access models, like gyms. For example, the study records only two first-time IP visits to lobbies, while eighty-four per cent (84%) work there at least twice a week. Two data patterns of spatial temporality dimension emerge from this study. First, lobbies' availability results in nuanced access duration, and second, IPs' differing access needs result in varying use duration. In the former, hotels deploy control mechanisms that limit lobby users working practices beyond specific time windows. Consequently, the latter pattern emerges where IPs fit their

spatial demand within hotels' allowable windows and, thus, drive access decisions. Therefore, temporality is hotels' contingent access policy to preserve a return to their commercial space by curtailing public unlimited value extraction.

Subsequently, these time windows influence the nature of lobby access. Thus, hotels' control of access duration matches IPs' use duration by default, even if the latter desire a lengthier stay. The intersection of both vectors connects the demand-supply spatial transaction to make lobby publicness conducive to work.

8.1.8.1 Access drivers

Research data shows case lobbies are not in perpetual states of publicness. Their operators employ non-verbal cues like music decibels to control access as the day progresses. As the day matures, IPs are unable to achieve their work intentions due to rising music volumes, and as such, disengage and leave:

'I think the volume of the music is now slightly too high. It gets louder and louder...in the evening... they crank it up, loads. And so, by 4, 5 o'clock I wrap things up' (Lobby User)

Lobby operators disrupt users' work activities by employing ambient music previously identified as work-enabling. Access drivers in this temporality dimension are two: a) the permissible access window guided by the hotel's use policies, and b) users set intentions for the day. Lobby use is characterised by short-term to long-term duration.

8.1.8.2 Nature of access

Here, access is nuanced based on hotels' management tactics. AHS, HHS and HHH hotels utilise music volume levels as an access control tool. They deploy this control mechanism gradually to a tolerance threshold that users report occurs around the 1700-hour mark. Therefore, loud music deters IPs from remaining in lobbies for work purposes. Observations throughout each day show changes in users' actions and attitudes as music volume rises, such as increasing food and

beverage orders with networking activities and users exiting the lobbies as the day matures. While increasing music volume does not deter access, it controls work-related consumption activities. With only two first-time IPs lobby guests, other frequenters express frustrations over music decibels, knowing the decision to stay still lies in their ability to cope with the loud music:

'I can't work in my house, so I really struggle, and so I come here, but it tends to get very loud around 5 or earlier, and then I find I can't concentrate anymore. I wish that the music wouldn't become so aggressive' (Lobby User)

Ambient music IPs rate as work-supporting turns aggressive. This manipulation of servicescape cues (Bitner, 1992:60) regulates its temporary function as a workplace without direct human intervention. Regardless of this deterrent, a few long-term lobby users are accustomed to the structural approach to lobby consumption, still appreciating access without any complaints.

'...because otherwise I probably wouldn't have think to come in – you just think it's a hotel. So, I've known about this place and use it for about 2 years' (Lobby User)

Few outliers employ technology tools like headphones and earplugs to cope.

'it can be a bit loud sometimes. I tend to have my earphones on – it makes me look less sociable. So if I'm on a contract or if I'm trying to write a strategy paper on something, then I really need silence, so I use my own headphones and isolate everything from around me. I've come in here from 8 (am) and left at 8 (pm)'.

With a singular access-tactic but varied use durations, AbC temporality varies proportionately to users' agency to match their needs with hotels' control measures. The nature of access can be as fleeting as viewing art in an art gallery (Chen, 2009) or prolonged car-sharing (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). Juxtaposing Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) length of car sharing is case lobbies' publicness and consumption within access time windows controlled by music. This fleeting nature of access informs the short-term transaction of lobby use.

So, with eighty-four per cent (84%) of IPs using these lobbies two or more times weekly, longitudinal transactions characterise their access nature. Their frequent

and repeated weekly access represents a long-term transactional engagement, even though consumption is unpredictable along a time spectrum.

The parallels between Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) car-sharing and lobby consumption is their spatial entity. However, accessing fixed spatial assets like lobbies differs from the spatial portability of cars. Whereas Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) purport length of an asset increases the sense of ownership, IPs suggest no such perception. Users' actions and responses indicate an awareness of lobbies' access temporality, offering two distinct approaches to their access. Early adopters access lobbies between 8 a.m. and lunchtime. Late adopters start from around 10 a.m. till 5 p.m. because of the burden of music volume. This access window and spatial adoption patterns closely match normative work patterns (9 a.m. – 5 p.m.) without the characteristic contracting requirements. 'The Employed' user typology follows this adoption pattern.

'I come here 9 o'clock. And I work ... work till break. Break time is from 12 to 2pm. And I start again. Here ... to 6pm. 9 to 6 yeah. Yeah, every day, every day. Monday to Friday and maybe Saturday' (HHH User)

Others of the 'Entrepreneurial' typology are frequent weekly users but have unpredictable lobby use patterns since they do not have a typical day. Data indicates some tolerance for public access is between 8 a.m. till 5 p.m., implying this window is their temporal access and use threshold. Flexible commercial workplace offerings like co-working (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019) reflect similar patterns. Outlier users extend their stay till 8 pm as shown below:

"In a sense it's typical of that ... I guess a bit common to freelancers and creatives – the idea that the first maybe quarter of the day is sort of a flex schedule, so your mornings you're not rushing..., it's usually a little bit more flexible. Or even just faffing about or just having a casual start to your day, because you know that once it gets to say noon that you really need to start producing. And so, then you do have a bit of the business workday were... if they have their 9 to 5, maybe you're doing 9 to 5, you're sort of working along that because you've got to somehow blend with that world. But in essence, one thing for me that I look for in a workplace like this is the hours that they keep because a lot of times, especially if it's a place that has coffee, they're closing down at 5 to 6 o'clock, and people like myself, we might want to work

until the wee hours, so you seek out sometimes the ones ... like this lobby here is 24 hours, so it's sort of a wonder that is hard to find that you could stay here as long as you want to" (AHS User)

AHS is the only 24-hour accessible lobby in this study, even though it uses music to control access. Within the above response is a reckoning of the unusual nature of the AHS lobby's access. Acknowledging its difference from other unconventional work venues is coined in the relationship between coffee sales and the close of business.

Next, he suggests how workers like him align themselves with the typical work schedules (traditional nine-to-five) for some job types. Then, he emphasises the access fluidity workers like him demand, which AHS lobby is sympathetic to accommodating. Such met demand implies the value freelancers and CIS workers place on unrestricted 24-hour publicness of AHS lobby types. AHS, as an exception, is accessible all day and night. With this unrestrictive access beyond traditional working times, AHS employs the same access control measures as other lobbies forcing users to leave or engage in social activities. AHS actively promotes social activities (See Appendix) using public information on their fire exit doors. Music genre performances often start from 1900 hours daily.

Overall, spatial access mirrors traditional working times except for the AHS lobby. In AHS, habitual spatial access and consumption are contingent on users' work patterns and tolerance of music volume. Data shows that access temporality between 8 a.m. and 5 p.m. applies to the three lobbies. Thus, asset operators hold the access power balance while relying on public participation in customising their lobbies into productive spaces.

A groundswell (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75) of users accessing lobbies within this permissible window results in a critical mass of workers engaging in work activities. The value of lobbies as work venues relies on this critical mass principle, as IPs signify the 'people factor' as a motivation for working in these lobbies. Within the temporal window is the workplace ecosystem most significant and value-rich. Thus, the temporality access into lobbies is a non-membership type of short and

long-term use duration with repeated transactional use longitudinally. Such is the nature of alternative spatial offerings identified in extant studies (Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Spinuzzi et al., 2019) without the attendant sense of joint ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:882).

8.1.8.3 Temporality of access

A mix of short and long duration and longitudinal transactional access (two or more weekly use) characterises lobbies' spatial AbC (see Figure 8.1). This temporal access is voluntary, unforced, and even unsolicited: serendipity. Lobbies' temporality access window falls within the 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. time spectrum, like the nine-to-five normative working pattern, with only AHS operating 24-hour public accessibility. All three hotel operators control and manage the lobbies' public by employing music volume.

By gradually increasing the music decibels to an 'aggressive' level, users find working challenging, thus, deciding to leave. Although a few self-described creative freelancers are undeterred by this music deterrent, most users do. In a few cases, users creatively utilise technology artefacts, like headphones, to navigate this deterrent and extend their stay.

The temporality dimension of lobbies AbC has social and spatial import. First, transforming lobbies into work environments requires a concentrated number of users within the specified access window. IPs price this user pool as necessary for work motivation and support concentration, aligning with the CC's critical mass principle (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76).

Second, this critical mass influences the servicescape experience (Bitner, 1992), resulting in an appealing environment worth social proofing (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:81-83), as seen in online reviews.

Third, pooling a CIS workforce into lobbies is only possible because lobbies operators' decision to grant access affords an efficient use of their idling, underutilised assets. Again, the temporality of lobby access demonstrably

connects critical mass and idling capacity. Hence, the temporal window of public access dictates when workplace customisation and co-creation of lobbies happen.

8.1.9 Consumer Involvement in AbC dimension of lobby access

This section treats the consumer involvement dimension of Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access consumptionscape within two propositions. First, it analyses the spatial complexity of lobbies to assess whether their elaborateness attracts public consumption for work. Then, it examines performers of actions in lobbies to determine the extent of public involvement in customising them into worksites.

These two propositions sit on the x and y axes of Figure 5.4. The former informs the access drivers, while the latter indicates the nature of access. Although this dimension originates from Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), Bitner's (1992) servicescape model offers an anchoring service design model for structuring this enquiry. The pilot study assumes hotels are elaborate spaces that users fully customise based on Bitner's (1992:59) servicescapes category model. Further analytical treatment of this position here tests where lobbies sit as temporal workplace function. The trueness of this function reflects differently from Bitner's (1992:59) proposition.

8.1.9.1 Access Drivers

Proposition 3: Elaborateness of Lobbies: Lobby has an elaborate physical (spatial) setting, essential for attracting public consumption to adopt for work.

Considering each lobby occupies a relatively small spatial fraction of hotels' real estate, their attributes (see Chapter 7) do not reflect the physical complexities Bitner (1992) proposes about hotel servicescapes. Instead, study data depicts complex service offerings supporting their flexible work use. For example, the red tracing of AHS hotel floor plans in Figure 8.3 below outlines its boundary for public access and represents hotels' spatial apportionment functioning as workplaces. Within these lobbies are work-supporting physical and non-physical items to which IPs accord greater weight.

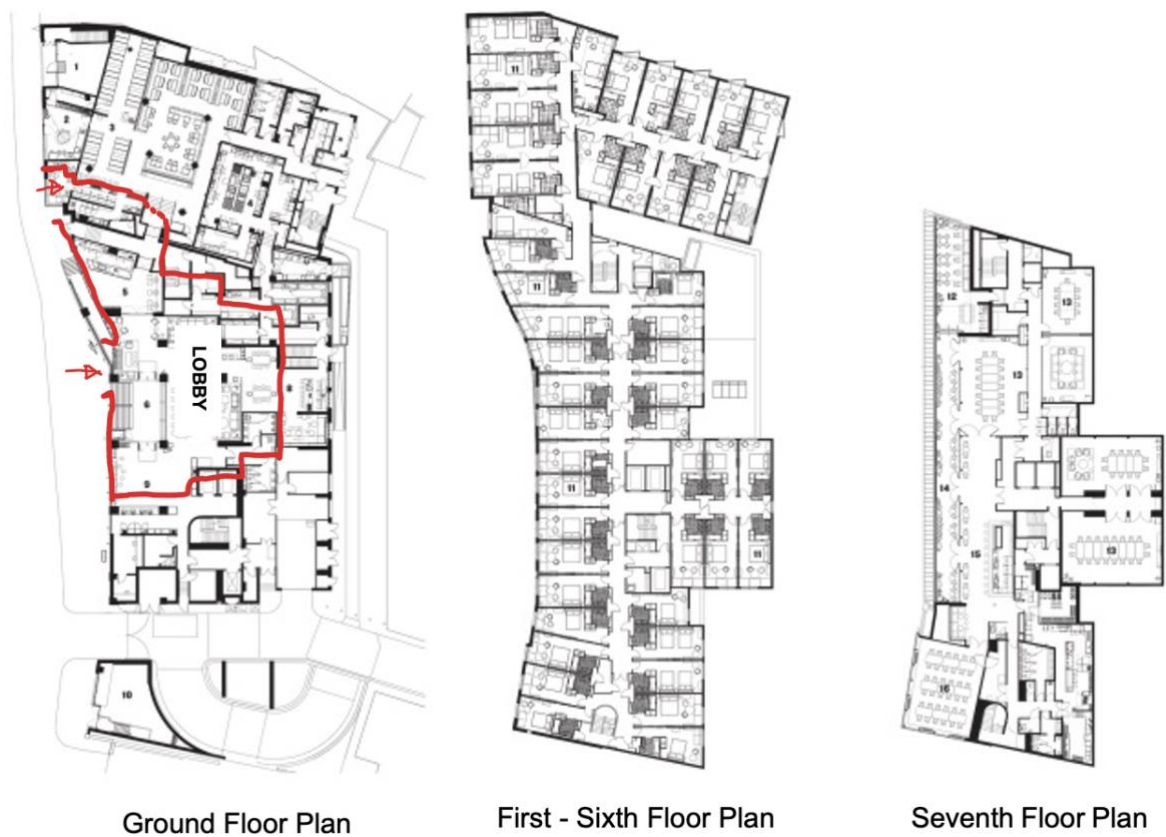


Figure 8.3: AHS hotel floor (7-Storey) plans with red-lined portion of the ground floor representing lobby servicescapes (Ayers, 2016)

Further, IPs' descriptive narrative of how lobbies support their activities points to simplicity and not physical complexity the vignette below illustrates. It shows case lobbies' physical reality in their unoccupied states that support IPs' descriptors.

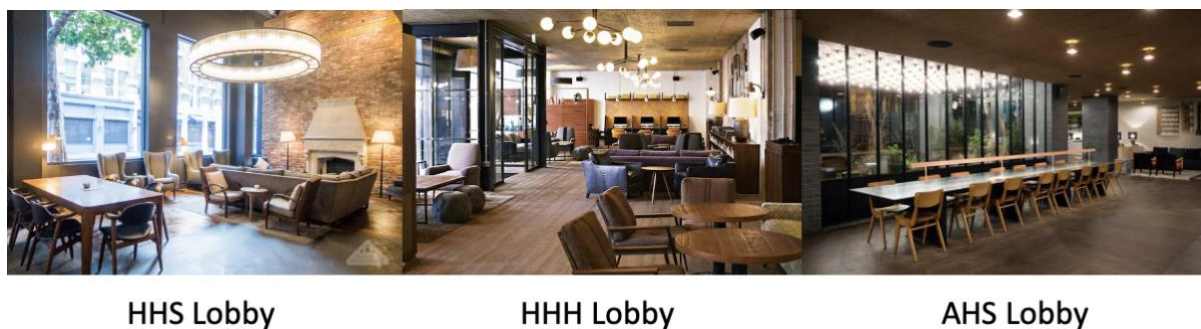


Figure 8.4: HHS (Livia, 2019), HHH (Platts, No Date) and AHS (Benchmark, 2023) unoccupied hotel lobbies

'...the most comfortable space to work'; 'it's more simple for me to do good work' (AHS Users); 'it's comfortable and aesthetically pleasing'; 'It's simple, it's comfortable' (HHH Users); 'It's a very comfortable place' (HHS User); 'It's simple' (HHH User)

These simple, comfortable, and aesthetically pleasing lobbies' materiality closely match AHS' co-founder's characterisation (Gott and Anderson, No Date) with distinct aesthetic similarities. Parity between these depictions and Chapter 5's infrastructure-type offerings combined with the above visuals (Figure 8.4) supports the argument that case lobbies are non-complex material entities. Contrary to lobbies' spatial materiality, mostly the non-physical infrastructure, service-type elements draw IPs to work in lobbies. Responses show that users highly rate lobbies' technology infrastructure, like WiFi, for supporting work activities.

Leaning on Bitner's (1992:60) analytical framework of 'approach behavioural pathway' further reconciles users' attraction to lobbies. Here, three environmental variables constitute tangible and non-tangible items of 'perceived servicescape' users customise into experiential ones. They comprise 1) ambient conditions (e.g. vibe); 2) space/function (simple); and 3) signs, symbols and artefacts and correlate with Chapter 7's spatial attributes. Sense-analysing study data with these cues present a theoretical construct suggesting hotel servicescape 'environments' support the users' intentions to customise and co-create idling lobbies as hotels deliberately allow public access for an unknown outcome.

Thus, these cues (Bitner, 1992:60; Mari and Poggesi, 2013) provide stimulus resulting in work-leaning practices satisfying flexible workplace needs among a predominantly entrepreneurial CIS user group. Thus, Bitner's (1992:60) servicescape taxon demonstrates cues that ultimately lead to 'approach' outcomes specific to workplace needs. Approach behaviours manifest in IPs' attraction to specific lobbies, desire to stay or explore, and to settle to work (Russell and Mehrabian, 1978; Bitner, 1992). They pay return visits, carry out intentions to work and sometimes spend money in lobbies (Bitner, 1992).

Given the above servicescape construct, lobbies are non-elaborate physical settings. Instead, this study contends that lobbies' complex services and infrastructure offerings compliment their simple materiality. Vibe, people, publicness, community, and music with the simplified physical spatial entity

contribute to an elaborate servicescape unitary offering, differentiating Bitner's (1992) claim from case lobbies non-physical elaborate servicescapes. Therefore, grounding public attraction for consuming lobbies in research data, study findings do not support the need for physically elaborate spatial settings in attracting public consumption for work. Instead, lobbies attracting CIS workers are service-rich and simple physical servicescapes.

Thus, this construct reasons with Bitner's (1992:58) contention that organisations can deploy their services to amplify their physical settings in attracting and satisfying consumers' needs. So, while lobbies manifest differently from her classification of hotels' elaborateness, they agree with holistic cues and services for driving access into lobbies (p.58). Upon establishing lobbies' spatial simplicity, the next section analyses the 'performers of actions' responsible for the resulting experiential servicescapes.

8.1.9.2 Nature of Access

Proposition 4: User and staff involvement in lobbies: Lobby users' involvement in co-creating a work environment is extensive, with the minimal participation of hotel staff in creating a workplace experience within hotel lobbies.

Study findings suggest the above proposition holds. Gauging IPs' participation levels as a variable in realising service experience (p.885) leans on 'who performs actions' in servicescapes according to Bitner's (1992:59) servicescape model. In this sense, this analysis assesses the extent (limited to extensive) of lobby users' (performers of actions) customisation activities in realising work environments relative to hotel staff involvement.

Utilising the previous chapter's public user's journey to lobbies (see section 7.1) as a reference template, lobby users and hotel staff participate at varying extents in the resulting experiential work servicescapes. The public shoulder most of the spatial customisation and co-creation process with a limited role involving hotel staff. Their responses to Q₁ and personal work artefacts they need for work performance underscore the heavily user-focussed process resulting in the

experiential worksites this study discovers. On arrival, IPs undergo a workstation set-up ritual before settling into work, as each public user's role informs the collective import 'people' play in co-creating a working atmosphere this narrative exemplifies:

'...everyone is heads-down in their laptop, and everyone understands that you can have a conversation, have a coffee, maybe even go for a bite to eat, but you're here to work. You don't have to pay anyone attention, you don't have to be polite if you don't want to. (laughs) You can just – head down and get on with it. I'm for the table because it's just better for focussing, but if I'm doing reading then I have a choice of you know switching to the sofa' (Management Consultant at HHH Lobby)

Unwritten but expected social cues result in working conditions that users co-create with others. Yet, the daily intent of choosing lobbies (where to work) as regular workplaces (what to do) leads to the daily transformation users co-create with other users primarily, with their operators' cooperation.

Therefore, extensive user-user co-creation activities cumulate into the overall work atmosphere experienced by all. Like the above narrative, a shared sense of commonality (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:90) exists among users, as their narratives show. Defining their intentions as '...but you are here to work' suggests a common belief that lobbies are workplaces. Tacit reliance on IPs' knowledge underpins the spatial customisation process where no access rules exist, but access rests on environmental and social cues (Bitner, 1992:60).

A limited user-operator co-creation in lobbies' publicness and a free non-market mediated access into the critical servicescapes infrastructure informs user capabilities to work mobile. In this sense, the public and hotels collaborate to create lobbies into workplaces but not customise them. This collaboration manifests in actions like providing water, as this entrepreneur emphasises:

'...I like places that offer water or something like that, so at least you're staying hydrated. So I mean, ...it attracts like modern young people, so I think they like that. And also like they sell a lot of coffee, so I think like they should give water for everyone not to get dehydrated.'
(Owner of Divine Foods at AHS Lobby)

Other offerings include coffee sales, access to plugs and good WiFi to support their activities, constitute hotels' service contribution to users' experience, along with less obvious operational services unavailable in other servicescapes:

'it's just convenient having ... the toilets just round the corner –always clean, always well looked after – which in a lot of coffee shops is not the case...otherwise you avoid using it and end up going home earlier than you expect to' (HHH Lobby User)

Considering these operational services are ongoing regardless of the public accessing lobbies, they are not extra offerings as such. Instead, operators grant public access allowing work-related value extraction activities this study discovers. Previous comments show how valuable these types of access are to IPs, given their denial in other service environments like cafés. But, overall, user-operator actions are minimal, and operators are uninvolved in workplace customisation.

8.1.9.3 Customer involvement in accessing lobbies

Users are the main actors in customising lobbies to suit their workplace needs. Users value the service richness but simplified servicescape environment in this customisation process. Although users and operators co-create the experiential servicescapes, the burden of customising lobbies into workplaces weighs heavier on their users in their typical daily experiences that Chapter 7 outlines. Non-market mediation and indirect barter exchanges find expression in this dimension since users believe in the common public access to lobby servicescapes. Ultimately, public users co-customise lobby spaces communally, as hotels present no barriers to access, paving the way for workplace customisation. Here the study refines the previous adaptation of Bitner's model from a customer-only towards a more collaborative workplace co-creation as below.

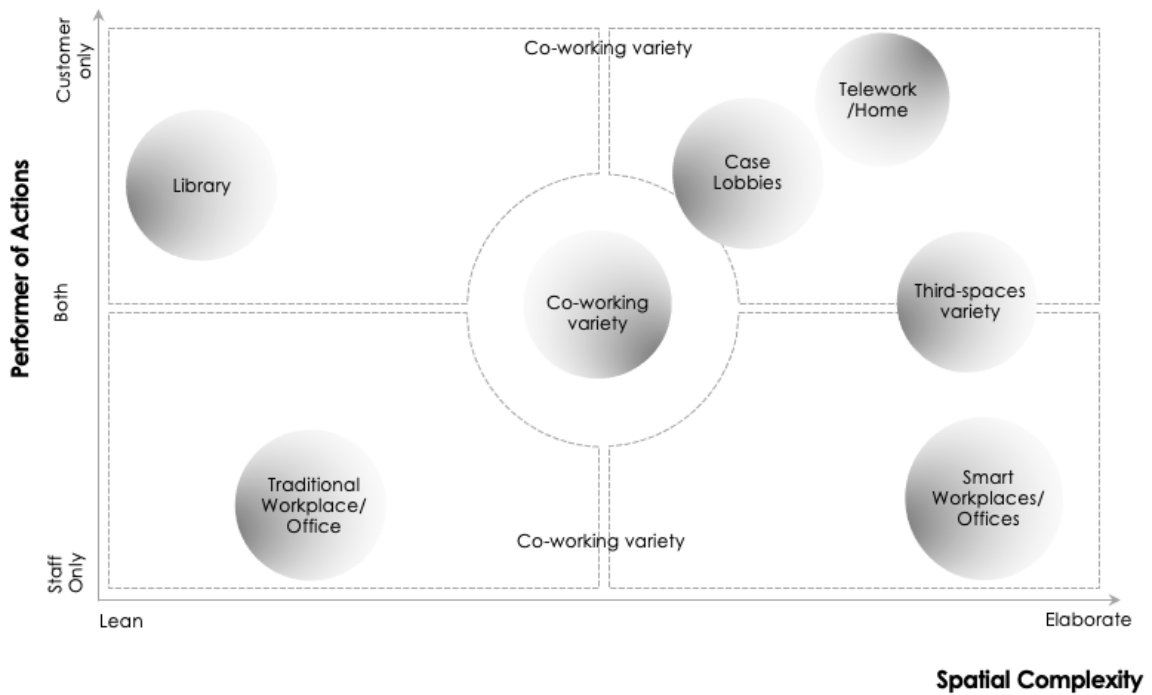


Figure 8.5: Servicescape workplace co-creation model across various spatial complexities (based on (Bitner, 1992) and (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012))

This depiction in Figure 8.5 differentiates case lobbies from other AWs. Case lobbies are not quite co-working, home or third-space environments. They sit within these three alternatives. Here, users and operators extract workplace value from these underutilised lobbies: a general theme running through IPs' responses of how hotels put their lobbies to better use. Recognising these narratives' psychology and social nature calls for further inquiry into this use type in these domains. However, further understanding these users as CIS workers in the current technology-intensive working practice is different from Bitner's (1992) servicescape helps sense-make lobbies transformation.

8.1.10 Introducing: Psychographics of AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 4. Modernity of Lobby Workers: Hotel lobby users are non-traditional workers born post-1964.

Study data correlates demographics with lobby use but extends beyond age as an access variable to user psychographics. Psychographics describes users' lifestyles and is less quantitative than demographics (Beane, Ennis and Morris,

1987). Although psychographics and demographics do not feature in Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC dimensions, age and occupation were relevant variables in piloted lobbies. Further inquiries note their twin relevance in this broader study: ninety-nine per cent (99%) of IPs were born post-1964, as the vignette below 8.6 depicts their representation across the Generations 'X', 'Y' and 'Z' cohorts.

Figure 8.6 below is an analytical pictorial adaptation of IPs' generational distribution across the five cohorts and shows no representation from the 'Traditionalists' cohort among this study's interview participants. Highlighted percentages represent IPs within each generational cohort. The only 'Baby Boomer' cohort representation in the HHH lobby (1% of IPs) is a sixty-one-year-old entrepreneur with technology frustrations.

Others fell into the 'modern worker' category (see Chapter 3) consisting of eleven (11 or 15% of IPs) Generation 'X' cohort respondents of ages closer to the Generation 'Y' cohort. The remaining sixty-two (62 or 84% of IPs) IPs were fifty-five (55 or 74% of IPs) Generation 'Y' cohort and seven (7 or 10% of IPs) Generation 'Z' student IPs. The implication of this higher number of younger workers suggests that a propensity for working practices associated with mobile and contemporary lifestyles suit the case study lobby servicescapes.

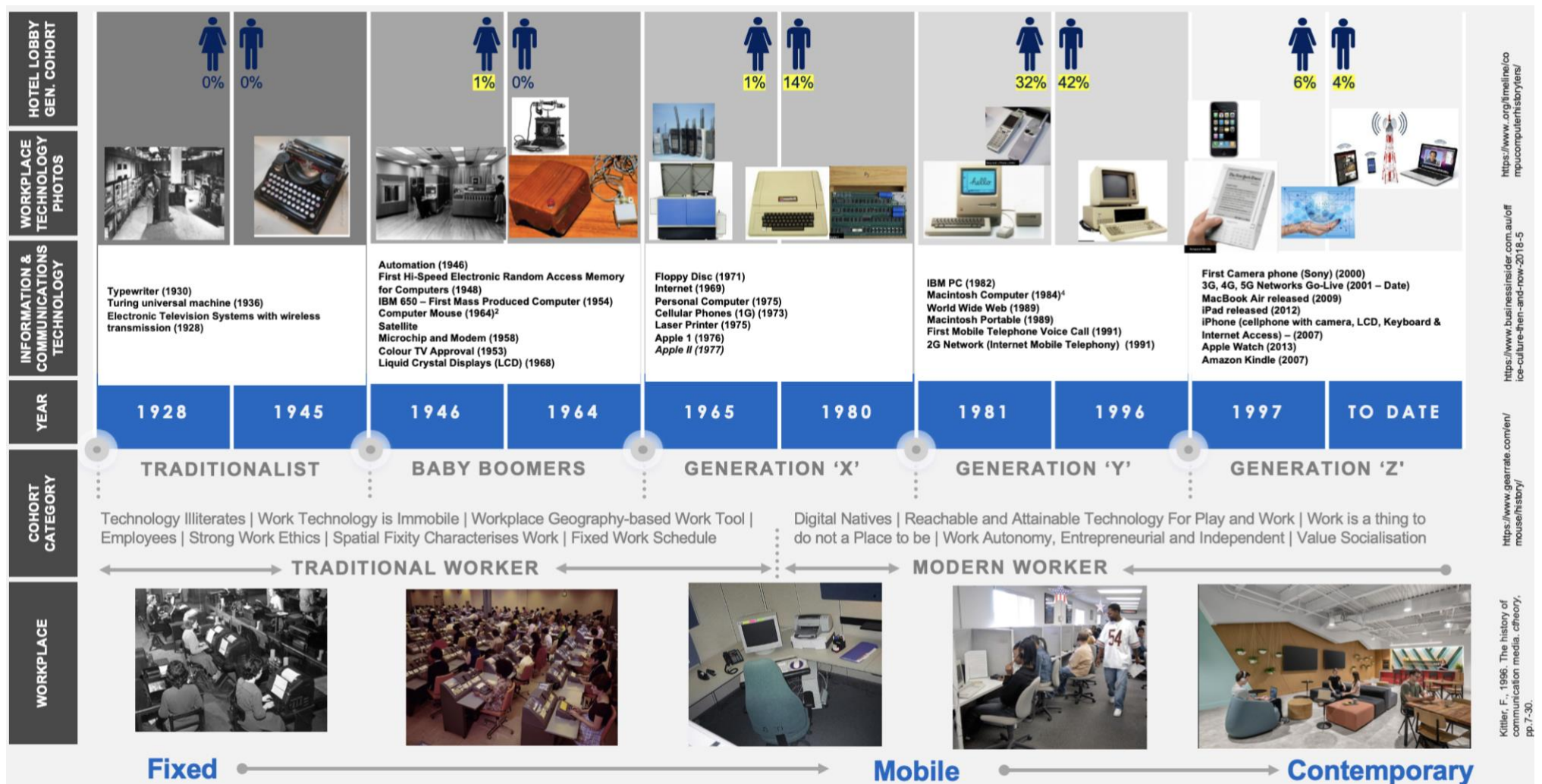


Figure 8.6: Percentage of generational workplace IP cohort with technology timeline across studied lobbies (Adapted from Creative Industries Policy and Evidence Centre (2022))

8.1.10.1 Access drivers

Study data identifies psychographics in hotel designs (Gott and Anderson, No Date) as a vital dimension for drawing public user groups in the creative industry sector (CIS). Lobby users seem to intuitively interpret lobbies' holistic servicescapes as spatially aligned to their workplace needs. Study shows these users are of a younger, flexible and mobile worker demographic based on model Figure 8.6 depicts. Thus, there may be correlations between demographic and psychographic (or lifestyle) preferences (Beane, Ennis and Morris, 1987:21-23) that drive spatial access decisions. For instance, this user points out youth, vibes, activities, lifestyle, and interactions are features influencing why he accesses lobbies:

*'Yeah, the cosiness... and **young people** around, **young vibes**. I said before; it's interesting for me to look at **what people are doing**, what **type of life do they have**, **how they interact**...' (37 yr-old Business Owner in HHH Lobby)*

His intention to undertake market research on young people's lifestyles drove him to access HHH lobby. Discovering a young demographic in lobbies and seeking to understand their lifestyle proclivities brings demographic and psychographics close. From this user's knowledge of lobby users and that this study participants constitute ninety-nine per cent (99%) born post-1964, it makes the abductive inference that lobby users are modern workers with a digital nomadic lifestyle (see Figures 5.5 and 8.6).

Furthermore, AHS co-founder's interview response betrays an intersection of younger generational cohorts' lifestyle choices, and the lobby's target clientele informs lobby access. For example, words like vibe, aesthetics and uncomplicated attitude do not resonate with the 'Traditional worker' (Bursch and Kelly, 2014; Jones, Murray and Tapp, 2018) (see Chapter 5). Finally, the ideal clientele occupations (Gott and Anderson, No Date) he names as cultural creatives, designers, and agencies also match this study's user occupational CIS attributes. Therefore, emerging work-life subsumed in modern lifestyle choices may be driving twenty-first-century workers' access and attraction to lobbies they rate

suitable to their flexible workplace needs. Thus, this finding satisfies the proposition that lobby users are of the modern worker typology based on suggestion that a younger workforce predominantly seeks to adopt flexible work environments.

8.1.10.2 Nature of Access

The psychographic nature of lobby access strongly correlates with ubiquitous technologies promoting capabilities to work mobile. IPs' recount of their typical day and lobbies' work-supporting offerings suggests a modern working practice characterised by a pervasive technology-influenced lifestyle and work-life. So, IPs extract lobbies work-supporting technologies to facilitate a more flexible lifestyle:

'Everything is online, all our system is built online. Because that's just the modern world, we don't need paper anymore, ...everything we need to store and save you can do it on the cloud, so for that reason you don't need to have filing cabinets really anymore, I don't think you'll need it in the future either' (HHS Lobby User)

This departure from spatial and technology fixity that characterise traditional work practices (see Figure 8.6) by 'everything is online' depicts a modernised and technology-reliant nature of lobby access. Narratives supporting portable working practices correlate with extant AW literature arguments (Leclercq-Vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Nelson, Jarrahi and Thomson, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Olga, 2020).

However, while case lobbies attract user typologies that align with their psychographics design, CMH's rejection of such use highlights modern views of free lobby access are not globally acceptable. The point is how lobby servicescapes' design appeal and cater to specific users' lifestyles, with subliminal spatial messaging resulting in unintended consequences of spatial publicness:

'We are a Dutch-owned lifestyle, luxury hotel brand designed for 'mobile citizens'. Meaning this hotel is for people (not demography or age), who travel for work, pleasure are open-minded and curious. These are international, value-conscious, well-informed, and tech-savvy individuals that have contemporary style and use

technology to simplify their lives. They also know what they want to spend their money on' (CMH Branch Manager)

There is a striking semblance of the CMH's target customer above with IPs' self-characterisation in the other three lobbies. First, the attracted public meets the above 'mobile citizen' criterion. Moving away from demographics or age, this manager defines their ideal clientele in lifestyle terms similar to study respondents. Descriptors like value-consciousness, technology proficiency, simplicity and contemporary echo users' narratives in other lobbies. This alignment underpins the rationale for including CMH as a case study site from an IP at HHS:

'There are a couple of lobbies I use for work. This one is perfect cos it's next to my workplace, but over the weekend, I do my gig work... so private work, at CMH'. (HHS User)

User typologies fall into this Gig worker category with lifestyle correlating with the above-described 'mobile citizens'. Data also suggests these users seek organisations embracing their peripatetic work lifestyle by permitting public access into their idling, underutilised spaces:

So, Pinterest – their office is in SoMa in San Francisco... on the front end they make it accessible to the general public... like you can come into the building to a certain point, with some Pinterest (staff) in the foyers (mingling with) lots of general public, (talent searching) and they have a great little coffee breakfast bar there ... and again it's on those lists of like great places to co-work.

Connecting how tech corporations like Pinterest in the above narrative to expectations in lobbies reflects a psychographic-influenced expectation of free public access. Their interpretation of lobbies disregards any primary design intent they are unaware of in the first instance. This public's perspective interpretation of lobby servicescapes' function as permissible to peripatetic working practices upends normative conventions, strengthening modern lifestyle practices associated with mobile and creative work.

8.1.10.3 Psychographics of Access

Psychographics is an access dimension this study abductively infers from supply-demand narratives indicating lifestyle choices drive lobby access. Supply-side historical data show psychographics is a design factor in creating case hotels, which study findings reflect in the user demographics they draw. In this sense, it contends that people with similar lifestyle choices gravitate towards environments they deem suitable for working. Hence, psychographics and demographics correlate. Moreover, case study respondents are younger generational cohort creatives with parallel psychographic orientations informing their access intentions.

Higher user percentages (99%) within the same generational cohort born post-1964 indicate that demographics also matter. However, the supply-demand data support non-discriminatory reasoning since the lobby design suggests no demographic bias. Thus, terms used by both sides support lifestyle preferences as an overarching variable encapsulating the theoretical nature of lobby users. It, however, hints at slight psychographic bias, especially in CMH. This nature informs access, as seen in the unintended consequences of CMH's design for a clientele type. While CMH management rejects their lobby's publicness, the target 'mobile citizen' clientele matches user characteristics in the other three cases. Overall, their customer descriptors, such as value consciousness, technology proficiency and contemporary, align with this study's emergent user typologies.

Nevertheless, psychographics is challenging to classify quantitatively (Wells, 1975) due to its psychological and sociological nuance (Beane, Ennis and Morris, 1987:22). A psychological spectrum of analysis extends beyond this study's interest. Hence, it identifies this area as useful for future research. What is relevant here is that user psychographics (or lifestyle) and demographics (e.g., age, occupation) correlate, driving access into lobbies designed initially with specific users' lifestyle preferences (Gott and Anderson, No Date) to influence the nature of lobby access. Technology ubiquity underpins this spatial access nature,

liberating today's workers from the spatial fixity that characterises traditional workplaces to spatial portability.

8.1.11 Anonymity of AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 6: Lobbies offer user-anonymous work environments: User anonymity informs the choice and adoption of lobby use as work venues.

Anonymity access dimension manifests as CIS workers' avoiding direct social interactions and distractions in their fixed workplaces by accessing lobbies to achieve work objectives. This access dimension in lobbies reveals the nature of traditional workplaces and the strategies CIS workers adopt for producing work without undue interference because '...you are more invisible in a hotel'. Thus, this dimension analyses in Figure 8.1 addresses whether exclusive or social factors drive access into lobbies and their public or private access nature.

8.1.11.1 Access Drivers

Users describe lobbies' unique offering of user anonymity to achieve focused and uninterrupted work with 'invisible', 'escaping', and 'not get distracted'. Study findings indicate a prevalent access driver is the pursuit of social avoidance to work uninterrupted these responses succinctly capture in each case lobby:

I knew I was going to be here for 3- or 4-hours cos there's some people in the office I generally don't want to see, so I avoid the office. I don't want to go to a coffee shop where I felt very visible; I think you're more invisible in a hotel – so invisibility is important... (Business owner, AREA² at HHH Lobby)

So, at the moment, I am escaping my employees... I've got so much work on, and they will just keep asking me questions, so I just needed to focus and finish what I'm doing before I go back... (Creative Director and Founder of ODDITY at HHS Lobby)

'...I find in an office environment I get drawn into lots of different areas of work by people for production-based stuff, whereas here I can think strategically, creatively, look at the bigger picture and not get distracted by all of the kind of minutiae of day-to-day office life, so that's why I come here.' (Head of Production, Media Company at AHS Lobby)

'That's why I come here' adds weight to user intentionality and extends beyond serendipity for accessing the lobby over any other AW ('I don't want to go to a coffee shop') and traditional workplaces ('I am escaping my employees'). Associating invisibility with hotels further shows the cognitive spatial selection of a hotel lobby. Since anonymity shapes social relationships and behaviours (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884) among lobby users, responses demonstrating social avoidance suggest that users interpret lobbies as offering some exclusive access.

Hotels provide higher anonymity levels than AWs like coffee shops, resulting in more exclusive access. However, this sense of exclusivity in personalised access to limit social interactions differs from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:884,887) advancement of this concept. Instead, implicit social cues of non-engagement in lobbies prevail as users all sit at the table with minimal interactions. This manner of working intersects with the customer involvement dimension, whereby user-user spatial co-creation is understood as non-interactive except by mutual agreement.

Similarly, case lobbies manifest differently from socially curated experiences like gyms and public gardens (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884). Such social consumption expectations as a condition for spatial access in the AW context, like co-working, are absent in lobbies. This spatial preference suggests working in lobbies is contingent on access and consumption exclusivity to achieve uninterrupted work. Anonymity as an access driver is also temporal within the permissible access duration when infrequent social interactions occur during early access hours.

Therefore, anonymity as a lobby access driver is in the interpretive invisibility hotels offer users avoiding social interactions and distractions synonymous with their designated workplaces. Ultimately, this study suggests users seeking anonymity collectively access lobbies and co-create them into non-distracting working ecosystems. This seeming cognitive dissonance in users' public accessibility into lobbies sense makes Botsman and Rogers (2011:167-169) and

Spinuzzi's (2012) 'working alone, together' closely match this exclusive spatial consumption in communal settings. Further expansion on anonymity and a better understanding of exclusivity requires treatment of its manifestations. This manner of spatial use shows that a projected sense of community does not always translate into the expected benefits of engagement.

8.1.11.2 Nature of Access

Self-initiated and self-governed access without access barriers presents case lobbies as anonymous servicescapes. Knowing public access are without any protocols fosters the anonymity users seek from their decision to access lobbies:

'you can walk in, sign on, you don't have to ask anybody for a password, it's just ease of access' (HHH Lobby User).

The nature of accessing these servicescapes extends user anonymity to WiFi access without requiring user registration or a password. Ips appreciate this ease of access and the invisibility they sustain:

'I don't want to go to a coffee shop where I felt very visible; I think you're more invisible in a hotel – so invisibility is important...' (Business owner, AREA² at HHH Lobby)

Although this spatial consumption occurs in publicly accessible environments, the nature of their access is very personal, maybe not so private. In Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) work, car-sharing models offer high levels of anonymity due to infrequent encounters with other users. Conversely, this study subjects participate in co-creating a working milieu without the pressure to interact or engage.

Tacit social cues of mutual respect for users' privacy differentiate lobbies' access nature from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) car-sharing findings (p.887) as it incorporates a privately public exclusivity construct. The choice of social interaction lies with users' agency initiated by users, which contrasts stipulated communal interactions as a prerequisite for accessing co-working (Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019:112-140). Institutionalising flexible spatial consumption by enforcing policies

that force a sense of community is what most IPs despise and avoid, as in the following:

'There are networking opportunities but it isn't forced like in the co-working spaces I have experienced. It's like you have to network with other people to earn the right to continue working. Here nobody bothers me. Networking is something that should happen naturally. I have come here first to do my work, not to hang out with people.'
(AHS Lobby User)

User anonymity in lobby access finds expressions in the commons-pool construct of the CC theory (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-91), with prosocial behaviours less dominant. Although interactions occur within working groups (The Employee typology) or with lobby staff for food and drink orders, consumption norms preclude socialisation, especially within the 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. temporal productive window. Afterwards, high music volume moderates activities and breaks concentration (see temporality section) to shift servicescapes into interactive socialised space:

'And then the great thing about here as well is that it kind of changes...and then if you're meeting people in the evening you're here already so it kind of switches up... kind of into more of a ... chilled out, restaurant kind of ... I wouldn't say club, but just a nice vibe' (HHH Lobby User)

Communally accessible spaces are consumed for personal benefit, not necessarily for others' advantage (Bouncken and Reuschl, 2016:319-323). A few responses highlight the dark side of remote work as social isolation. To combat these challenges, IPs seek social spaces to manage their mental well-being in case lobbies.

The CGT analysis method encourages using participants' language to support research outcomes to convey their true meaning. Defining terms grounded in IPs' language presents a construct that does not stray from these descriptors (Charmaz, 1990:1165, 2014:179-181). Therefore, replacing anonymity with 'invisibility, escapism and avoid distraction' to define how users explain their intention in lobby adoption portrays the anonymity access dimension as:

Lobby users' invisibility state of social escapism whereby they avoid the distraction of the minutiae of day-to-day operations associated with the traditional workplace.

This view of anonymity as an access dimension differs from Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012:884) but situates their manifestations within Botsman and Rogers' (2011) 'belief in the commons' principle (pp.88-91). It imbibes common spatial access respectful of individual privacy.

8.1.11.3 Anonymity of Access

User anonymity in lobby access is predicated on less or no social engagement. This approach to using a social space differs from isolated working. It permits exclusivity in spatial consumption within communal settings for individuals to work alone together (Spinuzzi, 2012). The language used to express this anonymity in lobbies seems strong: invisibility, escaping and avoiding distraction. They are instructive of potential productivity challenges in normative work environments.

Thus, what underlies IPs' attraction to case lobbies include the invisibility promise of such spaces. They fulfil the desire to avoid or limit social interactions through escapism needed to achieve undistracted work. With hotels requiring no user identification for accessing their lobbies, users enjoy exclusive anonymity and the preservation of their invisibility.

Further, users publicly access lobbies in a personal manner different from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) exclusivity construct. The social nature of lobby consumption does not imbibe the expected interactions that characterise AWs, like co-working (Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019:112-140). The choice of social interaction is left to the users' agency. Yet, they despise this very nature of the institutionalisation of flexible spaces. They believe networking is an unforced result of social gatherings and is not engineered by space providers. Therefore, the anonymity of access lobbies users' invisibility state of social escapism whereby they avoid the distraction of the minutiae of day-to-day operations associated with the traditional workplace.

8.1.12 Introducing: Proximity dimension of lobby access for work

*Proposition 7: Spatial proximity influences lobby access and consumption for work:
Closeness to or centrality of lobby location informs teleworkers' choice to adopt lobbies as an alternative to working at their homes or workplaces.*

Study data distinguishes proximity from the anonymity access dimension, and findings disagree with Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:884) merger of both dimensions (Chapter 3). However, it agrees that proximity shapes the relationship between accessed objects and consumers (p.885). Proximity in lobby use extends further into socio-economic factors of convenience and affordability in why and how teleworkers access flexible spaces like lobbies.

8.1.12.1 Access Drivers

Most IPs of all user typologies connect case lobbies' centrality and closeness of their residences to why they choose to work in these lobbies:

'I come here cos it's about 1 minute away from my house' (Lecturer PhD) '...well I live round the corner, so it's really convenient. So, like maybe two or three times a week sometimes' (Filmmaker) '...we live in different places, so meeting in central London is easiest for us' (Employee Group)

'my studio is just down the road, on Wharf Road just off City Road, and it's a photography studio' (Creative Director and Business Owner). 'I live nearby' (Entrepreneur)

'This is my second term coming here. I have friends that go to LSE, we came here once, and I thought it was a good place to study, cos I don't work well at home' (LSE Student)

Narratives suggest convenience, closeness, and centrality drive access for lobby consumption. However, these indicators offer an incomplete perspective. Living locally and the ease of accessing lobbies when working in teams is a value add to choosing lobbies over alternative options. Negative connotations of teleworking similar to previously stated links of distractions with traditional workplaces permeate the underlying attraction to lobbies. IPs express the unproductive nature of working from home compared with using the case lobbies as narrated below:

'I don't work well at home' (LSE Student)

'Like quite often I'm finding I'm really distracted or like procrastinating at home...I'll find this environment more conducive to like being productive' (Business Analyst)

I live locally. I come here like 8am, 9 latest, probably work for 3 hours. Then I go out to grab lunch and then go back home...I come here everyday until the job is completed. There was a time I tried a coworking space – it was alright but I would say they are too expensive, given what you get, some of them are like £300 and think that this type of space is available for free. There is no justification for going there in my view' (Software Developer)

The software developer above has been working in lobbies for two years and lives locally at AHS lobby. His response betrays the economic benefit of lobbies' proximity compared to other alternative options. Other local IPs like him visit lobbies regularly for convenience, while others do so because of location centrality. For example, working groups arrange daily activities in lobbies, including team meetings, project work, and recruitment exercises. To them, proximity to transport links and high street locations matters.

'... I think also with the proximity to transport links, different schools around here, and lots of people that come here to just work...' (Consultant)

'... And we live in different places so meeting in central London is easiest for us' (Employee Group)

Another motivation driving access in using lobbies for work lies in the ease of access and the convenience of using flexible spaces. The value-add of working in case lobbies supports the cost argument of free spatial access shown in the market-mediated access. This differs from the spatial commodification of alternative offerings like co-working models. Convenience, centrality, closeness, and cost of spatial adoption contribute to their utility drivers.

8.1.12.2 Nature of Access

Most locales visit lobbies at varying times during the temporal permissible access window. However, access to lobbies reflects practices unrelated to car-sharing (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) or community gardens (Bendt, Barthel and Colding, 2013; Lamberton, 2016). Other dimensions at play in the communal use of lobbies

reveal intricacies of proximity features this consultant shares when describing his typical day:

‘So I live nearby and I had some work to do, and my work is often quite flexible in terms of where I work. I find that I like to separate my home life and my work life, so sometimes I feel that if I have to have a short productive stint I’m better off going to a nearby café/workspace and getting my two or three hours of very intense work done and having that separation of spaces’ (Business Consultant)

His response reflects his flexible working philosophy that affords home and work-life separation. Between these two comes the relevance and import of flexible spaces like hotel lobbies. As an alternative to his workplace, they fulfil his need to get his ‘two to three hours of very intense work done’. The nature of access is in achieving a sense of productivity by engaging in intensive work outside of the home and designated workplace, with this further clarification:

‘So I come here more for when I’ve got a shorter stint of work to do where it’s just me and my laptop, and I want to get my head down and do things that don’t involve other people – then I find this space is a lot better for that type of work really’ (Ibid)

His clarity on the benefits of lobbies as focused working environments supports similar views from another consultant working at HHH:

‘You know everyone is heads-down in their laptop, it can be unsociable, ... but you’re here to work’ (Consultant at HHH Lobby).

Comparative use of lobbies over other spaces constantly features in IPs’ narratives, with this consultant rejecting the idea of working in the local library. For instance, other free and flexible options exist within easy walking distance such as LSE library and the town centre library which is about 0.5 miles (11-minute walking distance) from distance of travel from AHS lobby. However, this IP deems using the local library as a workplace alternative worse than homeworking:

‘If I compared this to the local library, for example, I’d rather just work from home at that point, because I find that it is not a motivating space, so I don’t see any benefit of leaving my house to do that. Whereas here I can come and get a coffee, have a

nice vibe, and then work for a couple of hours and get work done' (Business Consultant)

Focussing on getting work done with the added benefits of motivation, vibe, and access to coffee extends proximity as an isolated dimension. Home is preferable over libraries because libraries lack the needed motivation and vibe case lobbies possess. Yet, choosing lobbies over homes emphasises users' met needs transcends the convenience of nearness to home—a conundrum. Thus, the nature of lobby access within the proximity dimension combines holistic lobby servicescape offerings with access convenience.

8.1.12.3 Proximity of Access

User narratives suggest spatial proximity influences lobby access and consumption for work when lobbies are close or central to teleworkers' homes, workplaces, or transport links. Convenience is the overarching conceptualisation of proximity as an access driver expressed in IPs' ease of entry locally or via transport links. As such, lobbies' proximal access dissociates from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) anonymity argument. However, this access proximity access combines locational convenience, the centrality of place, and closeness to users' residences with other benefits, such as costs, vibe, and motivation.

The progressive development of lobby access dimensions links and cooperate like cogs of wheels to create an overall access nature. Yet, the example of a user choosing his home over his local library emphasises how met needs transcend the convenience of proximity to their home—a conundrum. Understanding case lobbies as flexible spaces fulfilling users' holistic needs demand further examination of their differentiated nature as accessed objects from other options. For this dimension, locational convenience drives access to freely accessible and motivational servicescapes with atmospherics that promotes productive work outside the home and workplaces.

8.1.13 Accessed Object of AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 8: Lobbies serve a functional purpose: The public (workers) access lobbies for functional use to support work.

Proposition 9: Lobbies serve an experiential purpose: The public (workers) access lobbies to derive experience.

Proposition 10: Lobbies possess material and immaterial offerings that support work performance, but not all free.

Lobby servicescapes are types of accessed objects that hotel operators permit the public to access and consume when idling and underutilised. Due to how public users accessing them interpret their utility as work-supporting milieus, study data suggests they contribute value propositions comparable to popular AWs like co-working but without the associated market mediation (see section 8.3.1).

The possibility of working in lobbies lies in the functional and experiential values workers extract to support their work activities. Such a proposition posits lobbies offer comparable functional value to conventional workplaces with added experiential benefits resulting in continuous and repeat spatial access and consumption (section 8.3.2). This repetitive spatial access and consumption imply users adopt lobbies as their chosen workplace.

Portability differences exist between Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) type of accessed object of cars and this research, hotel lobbies. This distinction presents a unique perspective of the demonstrative and observable functional and experiential roles lobbies fulfil as flexible environments different from cars, beginning with the role function and experience play in driving access into lobbies.

8.1.13.1 Access Drivers

At this analytical juncture, data supports the position that public users access lobbies to extract their functional value for work purposes. Although Figure 8.1 depicts function and experience as a binary choice from Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), interview responses suggest both apply. Case lobbies' experiential value

resides in their communal attributes. Thus, elevating their functional and experiential values to access driver status requires attending to IPs' construction of their lived experiences (Charmaz, 2014). First, lobby servicescapes' direct 'hard' offerings contribute to the functional values drawing CIS workers, with free WiFi as a critical contingent work-supporting item.

'Without the WiFi, I wouldn't come' (HHH User)

'...that's one of the big reasons I'm here, the WIFI's good' (HHS User)

'You know there are in some other spaces ... like I said, the restriction on WiFi would be a big one, and when I'm seeking out a space, I look for that, because a lot of them cut the WiFi out during the midday. This one luckily doesn't, you know you can walk in, you can sign on' (Architect at AHS Lobby)

Second, IPs juxtaposition other flexible work environments like co-working and so-called Third spaces, such as coffee shops and cafés with lobbies market-mediated offerings.

'There was a time I tried a coworking space – it was alright but I would say they are too expensive, given what you get, some of them are like £300 and think that this type of space is available for free. There is no justification for going there in my view' (Software Developer)

'Given what you get' and 'think that this type of space is available for free' suggests a cognitive cost-benefit analysis that rejects co-working in favour of lobbies. However, as much as economic gains attract access, users also highlight functional challenges in 'Third spaces' (Oldenburg and Brissett, 1982; Oldenburg, 2006; Di Marino and Lapintie, 2017; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021) as unsupportive of their work in comparison to lobbies.

'That long table is fantastic... I don't know; I think that encourages focused working. So like working in coffee shops – I find coffee shops are often cramped, loud, sometimes they play music that's not as sort of ambient, whereas this is like a big desk, it feels more like a working environment, you can place your stuff out and charge your laptop. It's important like ... I mean these people are all working on (even on) couches' (Contract worker)

IPs' reasoning for accessing lobbies is demonstrable in the above comparative discourses outlining the functional value lobbies offer versus other servicescapes types, like cafés. In addition, IPs underscore servicescapes' materiality as the missing element in Third spaces (Oldenburg and Brissett, 1982; Oldenburg, 2006; Di Marino and Lapintie, 2017; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021). Finally, IPs' assertions suggest that work would be almost impossible without functional value-add derived from servicescapes service offerings, comprising furniture (table and comfortable chairs) and technology infrastructure (WiFi, electric power sockets).

'Because without WIFI I wouldn't be able to do my work here' (HHS User)

'Like, I use AHS quite a lot because they have so many outlets, so it's a really good workspace, and they don't really give a fuss. They even give water. Sometimes if I have like a really serious project, I'll sit there because I know I can sit in a booth, get a table and I feel like I'm more like on a desk' (Hospitality Consultant at HHS)

The global assessment of interview responses identifying lobbies' functional value as important access drivers is incomplete without the weight of their experiential values threading their constructed narratives. Atmospheric cues in the above casual references to servicescapes offerings and the user group accessing lobby servicescapes underpin why 'vibe' is an overarching experiential value driving access.

*'...vibe is a mix of things: this place is cool because it's very **spacious**, an exception in London. There's a **big table** where we all **work**, and that leads very easily to conversations being started and getting to know new **people**. And also, the **décor**, the way they did it is really cool, very like **modern**. And there's people coming and going all the time, so I think that's interesting' (HHH User)*

Vibe subsumes lobbies' functional value (e.g., 'the big table where we all work') with their experiential value (e.g., 'leads very easily to conversations'). Yet, people are at the heart of lobbies' experiential value, whereby a groundswell of CIS workers accessing and consuming lobbies (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:66-93) attracts similar users to create working ecosystems.

'...and so, vibe that the types of people here create helps' (AHS User)

No separation of functional from experiential values exists in IPs narratives of lobbies as accessed objects, demonstrating a relationship between both values:

‘So, the space itself... the openness, the kind of textures of the wall, the brickwork, the artwork...even just the kind of furniture, the table, the general sort of place, that it is quite of a buzz – there’s people coming and going... they’re on their little paths, their little journeys, that kind of inspires you to open your mind but also stay quite focussed – stimulating but relaxing at the same time’ (Creative Director at HHH).

Therefore, lobby servicescapes fulfilling CIS workers’ workplace demands transcend spatial materiality. Instead, vibe incorporates function and experience as twin necessities IPs rely upon. Efforts to separate them may prove unproductive, given why IPs reject other workplace alternatives, regardless of their market-mediation position. Thus, the two faces of the function and experience value extraction coin drive access, merging propositions 8 and 9 as a unitary construct.

8.1.13.2 Nature of accessed objects

Proposition 10: Lobbies possess material and immaterial offerings that support work performance, but not all free.

The nature of lobbies as the accessed object lends itself to decomposing their materiality in this IPs description:

‘the openness, the kind of textures of the wall, the brickwork, the artwork. You know even just the kind of furniture, the table... (with) people coming and going and ... you know they’re on their little paths, their little journeys...’ (HHH Lobby User)

Lobby servicescapes possess materiality this user identifies in HHH’s building fabric, furniture parts, and people accessing it. However, within their physical realities, they also embody digital technology materiality significant in their nature as work environments. Thus, the material and immaterial elements of lobbies in Figure 6.1 play roles in accommodating and sustaining users’ work activities. For instance, responses suggest that without the proviso that IPs can access lobbies’ immaterial offerings, like WiFi/internet, the material space will unlikely transform

into the temporal workplace CIS workers co-create. An acknowledgement of work digitalisation permeates items IPs disclose as supporting their work activities:

'Everything is now digital, isn't it? So it's very easy for me to just carry around, and then because I'm on the WIFI, you can download sort of a paper or something and work through that' (Employee at AHS Lobby)

WiFi supports IPs work and his capability to work mobile with his 'just carry around' way of working. Therefore, the nature of accessed lobbies in this study that Chapter 7 echoes are tangible and intangible features supporting their users' capabilities to work mobile. They comprise experience-enhancing functional lobbies' servicescape offerings that include accessible spatial features with only the catering elements attracting a fee, like coffee and food. Therefore, within the nature of accessing lobby servicescapes are spatial materiality and user experience. Previous dimensions sit in either that a response under the 'creative use of underutilised spaces' in section 7.23.1.1.1 articulating this reality:

'... but it's something more than having a dead space, yeah? And then I think also the culture that it promotes is sort of hip now – the idea that you're in a place for like or different minds to exchange ideas.' (Freelance Creative Designer and Architect)

Dead spaces turned into a social and productive environment where users extract experiential and functional value for free, reflecting the nature of lobby access. The former is a social derivative, and the latter is economical (work). Suggestions that neither function nor experience is weightier in importance highlight the socio-economic nature of lobbies supporting the workplace needs of CIS workers.

8.1.13.3 Accessed object type of access

Lobbies serve functional and experiential purposes through their free, open, unrestricted publicness. Using Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) dimensional analysis, lobbies are accessed object types with functional and experiential value offerings for public access when idling. Their users, in turn, customise them into work milieus to suit their needs as they access their direct and indirect work-supporting elements. The functional value of lobbies as accessed objects may be evident

because of the need for material space, furniture, and internet connectivity. However, the subtlety of their experiential value lies in the people types accessing them and other social constructions connecting their functional offerings. This association ties in with the consumer involvement dimension that identifies experience as a by-product of lobby access. Therefore, this study merges propositions 8 and 9 because the data did not suggest a dissociation of function and experience as access drivers. To do so may be misguided. Study narratives present lobbies' experiential and functional value propositions as either side of a coin in driving access. IPs' account of lobbies reflects a unitary coin value offering a socio-economic currency that outweighs other AWs.

Case lobbies as types of accessed objects embody functional and experiential values users extract as they access and consume lobbies as worksites. Decomposing lobbies as types of accessed objects requires separating their perceived values from IPs narratives and their materiality to support a technical and social evaluation of their functional and experiential utility. Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012:885) distinguish accessed objects' materiality from their experiential and functional value offerings. To them, the nature of AbC directly relates to the type of object users' access. The value derived with the conveyance medium shapes a better understanding of the object's unique proposition.

Consequently, they drive access as a unitary 'pull factor' with the other previously analysed values. Their materiality also informs these derived values. Case lobbies are spatial realities embodying tangible and intangible materiality within their servicescapes. With these free material and immaterial offerings, lobbies support users' work activities. Very minimal economic limitations influence the nature of accessed objects since the offerings are mostly free.

8.1.14 Political consumerism of AbC dimension of lobby access

Proposition 11: Lobby patrons adopt hotel lobbies because of their political persuasions to pursue antimarket consumption alternatives, free access instead of rented access.

Proposition 12: Lobby patrons choose this mode of access due to political persuasions that articulate and promote their environmentally sustainable intentions.

The notion that consumption modalities are strategic tools for articulating and promoting ideological interests underpins political consumerism (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885).

8.1.14.1 Access Drivers

This demand-leaning study does not indicate that political motivations drive access. Furthermore, no respondent directly suggests political persuasions in their intentions to work in lobbies. Instead, underpinning these intentions are socio-economic drivers of an antimarket philosophy that can potentiate environmental sustainability gains. Therefore, research data supports non-politically driven AbC to work in lobby servicescapes.

8.1.14.2 Nature of access

Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012:885) expand the nature of access as an antimarket consumption alternative or environmentally sustainable intent. Antimarket consumption alternative goes against the grain of traditional economic exchange to access goods and services. Instead, it encourages pursuing non-market mediated alternative spatial access demonstrable in IPs narratives. Their working practices in lobbies highlight anti-marketism in a collaborative spatial reappropriation with case hotel operators, divorced from the usual commercialised practices in co-working (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:885; Spinuzzi, 2012; Merkel, 2015; Spinuzzi et al., 2019).

Responses to interview questions often generate cost-benefit comparisons of lobbies' offerings to other flexible options. IPs push back on unjustified spatial commercialisation, given lobbies' freely accessible offerings. A telling market-mediated pushback suggestive of an ideological antimarket position is their constant co-working versus lobby-working argument exemplified in this response:

*‘There was a time I tried a coworking space – it was alright but I would say they are too expensive, **given what you get**, some of them are like £300 and think that this type of space is available for free. There is **no justification** for going there in my view’
(Software developer)*

Drawing from the above response, adopting lobbies as a workplace choice is not in the absence of other options. Instead, their freely accessible nature does not justify other commercialised alternatives’ value propositions as viable workplace options, ‘given what you get’. This respondent protests the value proposition of coworking, indicating an economic justification for adopting lobbies. Upon a cognitive value-analysing of both alternative offerings in the phrase, ‘given what you get’, he arrives at the most economically viable option for his need: lobby.

From its earlier invention, co-working is a market-mediated idea of freelancers collaboratively ‘working alone and together’ (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:167-169; Spinuzzi, 2012). Not so in this case study discovery. The above IP’s demonstrative flexible working lifestyle in his two-year continuous use of AHS lobby indicates a staunch stance against market-driven approaches to flexible spatial access. Given their precariousness and informality as CIS freelance workers (Merkel, 2019), the financial benefits accruing directly to users like him make such a stance conceivable and logical. Moreover, study data recognises that such antimarket positioning prevails among entrepreneurial worker typologies. In other cases, IPs compare case lobbies with other lobbies:

‘I’ve been to some other places (lobbies), but they hassle you. You know, like, ‘Do you want another coffee? – then, I’ve spent about 400 quid a month! They don’t do that here; no one’s come up to me. (UI Designer)

This rights-based spatial access premises market exchanges in forms of purchases that culminates in a £400 monthly expense is a coworking access rent equivalent. Pressuring users to engage in this soft market-mediated access in other lobby servicescapes results in their rejection by study’s informants. Consequently, one hotel’s loss becomes another’s gain on economic terms. An

antimarket approach associated with specific worker typologies underlies this pull to access hotel environments freely – not so much on political ideologies.

A strong non-market mediated AbC of lobbies suggests economic prudence and an antimarket philosophy informs how a user in this study adopts case lobbies. This concept aligns with Botsman and Rogers' (2011:121-181) redistributed markets and collaborative lifestyles of redeploying spare resources to reduce waste (pp.70-74).

By implication, IPs' antimarket philosophical stance conveys sustainability output in how repurposing lobbies through their redistribution via public access results in an economically viable workplace substitute. Moreover, this view further argues that customising lobbies into secondary functional utility produces positive environmental consequences. Shifting work practices away from traditional norms is evident in IPs narratives and, in some cases, tells of their awareness of the sustainability benefits of these emerging alternative working practices:

'I think... there is that whole thing of the desire to work from wherever you want to work, the freedom - and it (lobby) really is the provider of freedom...and that's how we end up... say, for instance, I'm sitting in London today, and in a few days...in Miami, and then...in Washington DC ... but sitting in London. I'm working on a project in Washington DC and...the Bay Area in California ... and this technology... and the resource in this space, ...in this hotel lobby, is what provides me to be able to work from wherever I want to work from. Gone are the days where you are hard-wired, or you need to be fixed to that space. I guess these days it's all reliant on your battery life... and if you find that plug' (Architect).

This narrative holds three benefits of lobby working: freedom, carbon footprint reduction and resource efficiency. First, the nature of case lobbies provides freedom of access that supports '*the desire to work anywhere*'. This implies freedom of accessing environments supporting mobile capabilities. Continuing to work as case lobbies facilitate '*...and in a few days ... Miami, ...Washington DC*' to '*sitting in London*', he describes how the lobby supports multiple global project delivery regardless of their location, limiting long-distance work-related travel. Hotels provide this support with '*...technology and resource access*' provided to

enable him '...work from wherever' he wants 'to work from'. Second, accessing an environment conducive to his work type reduces the need for physical travel, thus, reducing carbon footprint. Third, he further highlights the departure from spatial fixity in work practices because *'Gone are the days where you are hard-wired, or you need to be fixed to that space'.* To him, technology and spatial resources are twin propellers of working mobile. He views the lobby as the spatial resource aiding his unfixed work practices. Upon these preceding constructs, this study explores lobbies' spatial duality as a resource-efficiency approach to addressing wasteful practices in later chapters.

For now, an antimarket philosophy linking the non-market mediated access nature of consuming lobbies as AWs reflects economic prudence in alternative working practices. Rejecting other flexibly commodified work venues, given what they offer compared to lobbies, results in IPs' deliberate lobby adoption seen in this study. This antimarket access position can potentiate derived sustainability benefits.

8.1.14.3 Non-politicised and anti-market spatial access

Study data does not support propositions 11 and 12 that lobby patrons adopt lobbies because of any political persuasions. However, it suggests antimarket philosophies underlie their access decision to consume lobbies as alternatives due to their free accessibility without market mediation. Similarly, lacking political persuasion in accessing lobbies gives no indications that lobby patrons seek to articulate and promote environmentally sustainable intentions. Yet, their actions offer a theoretical plausibility that working practices this study discovers inherently may yield sustainability outputs.

Therefore, drivers of access to case lobbies do not reflect any political bias. However, their access nature bears antimarket philosophies connecting their non-market mediation, demonstrable in IPs' cognitive comparison against other flexible options. Comparisons range from commercialised alternative offerings like co-working to other lobbies granting conditional access based on market exchanges. IPs' rejection of these market-mediated access conditionalities suggests financial

prudence and antimarketism underlie how they access flexible spaces. Perhaps their precarious and informal working conditions (Merkel, 2019:529-540) evoke economic sensitivities to spatial offerings that support their productivity with some financial cushion case lobbies offer. It is plausible that the practical urgency to find non-commodified flexible environments arouses this antimarket stance and makes accessible lobbies attractive for work.

Study data agrees that individual utility and not sustainability inform access decisions (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:893), yet the collective practice bears sustainability themes, like spatial resource efficiency. Thus, CIS workers' antimarket spatial access practices may ultimately yield positive unintended sustainability consequences that the CC theory advances (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:70-74). Therefore, a collective philosophical antimarket spatial access may promote sustainable practices of consuming idling and less occupied servicescapes.

A shared posture against consumerism (known to work against sustainability efforts) that embraces non-market mediated access further highlights lobby users' antimarket AbC position. Such notions underscore why few studies recognise CC as a sustainable practice (Piscicelli, Cooper and Fisher, 2015; Edbring, Lehner and Mont, 2016; Toni, Renzi and Mattia, 2016; Kreiczler-Levy, 2017) disrupting consumerism conventions synonymous with doctrinal ownership-based consumption.

Its emergence for promoting non-ownership consumption transcends tangible access to entities like cars, as in Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) case study. People with similar interests are migrating to access less tangible assets like spaces and servicescapes, which Botsman and Rogers (2011) attribute to collaborative lifestyle practices (pp.70-74). Perhaps CIS workers' antimarket philosophies demonstrable in collaboratively consuming redistributed idling servicescapes serves to address resource wastages in running operational and maintenance costs (Stauffer, 2013) via the agency of access.

8.1.15 Theoretical variations and deviations in CC theory and AbC model in access and consumption practices in lobby servicescapes

Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) car sharing and this lobby servicescapes case studies align with their pursuit of discovering spatial AbC consumption phenomenon. However, while the former characterises dynamic and portable spatial entities: cars, the latter examines static and immobile built spatial entities: lobbies. Secondly, their demand-leaning design relying more on users' lived experiences (pp. 886-894) is similar to this case study's approach.

Nevertheless, their AbC definition (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881-894) deviates slightly from this study's outcomes. Lobby access is non-transactional, at least not directly. It also lacks market mediation in a commercial sense with a collaborative supply-demand position that retains spatial ownership (p.881). While study data satisfies the non-ownership transference, its non-market mediation does not.

Considering their definition leaves the sense that AbC entities are either market-mediated or non, with the phrase 'may'; this study assumes a theoretical plausibility that its discovery is a non-market mediated AbC. Moreover, reckoning with an analytical interpretation that public decision to access lobbies relies on their freeness, it is fitting to conceptualise AbC as either market-mediated or non. In this case study, the latter holds.

Critically analysing and juxtaposing each AbC dimension (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:882-886) and CC principles (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:95-181) against the body of collected research data suggest theoretical deviations and alignments that Figure 8.7 summarises. The process interweaves socio-economic themes that challenge pre-existing consumption theories and AW studies' assumptions by raising non-market mediation as a conceptual basis for accessing flexible spaces like lobby servicescapes.

levels of trust existing among users (strangers) resulting in their customisation and co-creation into a collaborative working ecosystem.

So, hotels granting public access into their lobbies unlock users' discovery of their experiential workplace. Otherwise, the three case lobbies may remain idle, as seen in CMH. In this sense, access forms a vital construct for how users discover and collaboratively customise and co-create idling case lobbies into experiential work environments. By this reasoning, discovering lobby servicescapes as workplaces is an access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) type.

However, non-market mediation qualifies this AbCC type and is an essential analytical dimension against which this study's discovery deviates from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) car-sharing case study. Contrary to their findings (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:886-894), non-market mediation drives discovering lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Analytical attention to how IPs access lobbies highlights an altruistic, not-for-profit perspective that assumes lobbies are community-natured environments that accommodate modern, flexible working practices.

However, Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) car-sharing case study is highly market mediated with profit driving the economic-natured service offering (p.885-894). So, not-for-profit access to hotels' commercial (economic) environments is at variance from most CC, AbC, and AW offerings. However, non-market mediated access attracts public interest, characterised by not-for-profit access drivers informing AbCC practices that encourage lobbies to transform into working communities and ecosystems. Thus, this non-market mediation holds social and economic parallels that organise the remaining seven AbCC analytical outcomes of lobby servicescapes' access nature and drivers the figure above illustrates.

8.1.16 Summary

This chapter's analytical exercise suggests that hotels accommodate public demand for non-market mediated access into their lobby servicescapes to

generate economic outputs by working in socialised environments. It suggests lobbies embody the four underlying principles of CC (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-93) to varying extents, with idling capacity standing out as a prescribing principle that occasions access. Non-market-mediated access into lobby servicescapes deviates from Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) market-mediated car-sharing commercial model. The former is a static entity, while the latter is portable. The taxonomic analysis in Figure 8.7 outlines similarities and variations between both case studies, with profit vs not-for-profit market mediation diverging their theoretical constructs. From this theoretical divergence, all other access dimensions also deviate.

In this access type, users discover lobby servicescapes as workplaces, not service environments. Hence, the study abductively reasons (Charmaz, 2014:200-242) that AbCC occurs when asset owners or operators grant temporal, non-market mediated public access into their simplified, service and infrastructure-rich work-supporting idling and underused lobby servicescape during the workday. The public footfall exploiting this granted access is mostly CIS workers who repurpose them into workplace ecosystems to fulfil their spatial needs, ultimately adopting them as their workplace environments. This processual discovery, repurposing and adoption of lobbies as workplaces suggests that an AbCC value extraction of servicescapes occurs in a manner that Chapter 9 explicates in a theoretical taxonomy construct.

The taxonomy in the next chapter integrates this study's analytical findings within the framing of Bitner's (1992) servicescape proposition, based on users' perspectival interpretive (Appadurai, 1996) consumption of servicescapes, repurposing them as workplaces. It refines the servicescape framework (pp.58-60) to demonstrate why and how CIS worker-users discover case lobbies' functional utility by extending them into workplace ecosystems to meet their demand for a suitable alternative workplace typology.

Chapter 9: Discoverable workscapes: A proposed theoretical framework

This chapter proposes a refined and extended version of Bitner's (1992:60) servicescape framework to acknowledge this study's discovery as it answers the research question: 'why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces?'.

Figure 9.1 below presents a demand-leaning value extraction framework proposition. Its composition results from a processual analytical construct (Charmaz, 2014:13,242) that suggests CIS workers access non-market mediated idling servicescapes, discover their workplace potential, and then extract value from their functional and experiential offerings to repurpose them into working ecosystems and ultimately adopt them as their workplaces. Study proposes that a repurposing of studied lobby servicescapes from their primary function to serve secondary workplaces merits a renaming of servicescapes to workscapes.

The following sections outline the processual transformation of servicescapes into experiential 'discoverable workscapes' (Figure 9.1) as a rich discovery framework grounded in the robust theoretical construction of study findings. It presents conditions under which the framework applies and theories aiding its development. Starting by introducing the theoretical framework as a processual analytical construct grounded in data, it then explains how employing five theoretical aids interpret study findings and shapes its construction into an integrated proposition.

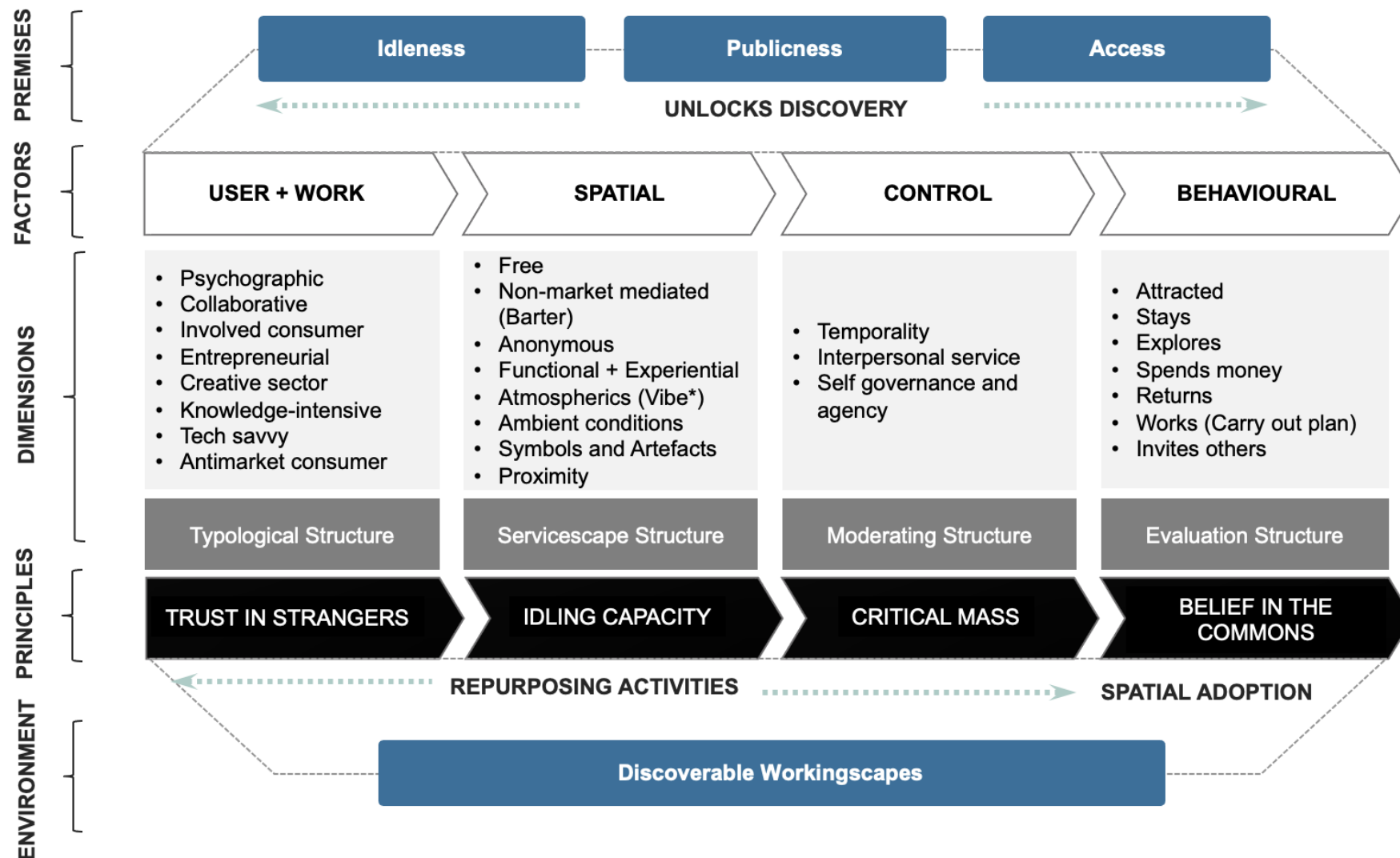


Figure 9.1: Discoverable workingscapes framework proposition: A non-market-mediated AbCC value extraction process for repurposing idling, underused lobby servicescapes into workplaces (Adapted Bitner, 1992; Appadurai, 1996; Florida, 2002, 2014; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012)

9.1.1 Discoverable workingscapes: A theoretical framework

The processual analyses of the body of study findings define and conceptualise three relationships central to theorising discovering workingscapes. It suggests that discovering access to lobby servicescapes is non-market mediated, leading users to repurpose lobbies for work through customising and co-creating activities (see Chapter 7), after which they adopt them routinely as workplaces.

First, non-market mediated spatial accessibility initiates the relationship CIS workers develop with studied lobby servicescapes. Abductively reasoning that idling case lobbies are public before users access them indicates spatial idleness, publicness, and accessibility are premises potentiating their discovering workingscapes. Second, what follows these spatial conditions are dimensions of AbCC factors constituting three theoretical vectors (the user-work-spatial model in Chapter 5) that develop into structural relationships leading to spatial repurposing activities. This second process is in cooperation with hotel operators.

Third, indicating that users achieve their work intentions are demonstrable and that observable behaviours suggest routine spatial consumption and adoption are operative. This final servicescape adoption as a workplace is what this study argues reflects an experiential workscape manifests, drawing more footfall into hotel lobbies.

9.1.2 Theorising discoverable workingscapes in servicescapes

Although the premises of spatial idleness, publicness and accessibility are supply-sided decisions precursory to users experiencing workingscapes, their discovery initially rests on the hotel's lobby access policy. The less studied CMH lobby in Chapter 7 sharpens this argument. Concerted management efforts to prevent public access into their lobby suggest a power balance for truncating the discovery process lies with asset owners. So, beginning this theoretical discourse at this access permission stage is appropriate. By invoking theoretical abduction

(Charmaz, 2014), this study suggests that what unlocks the public discovering workspaces in lobby servicescapes is ultimately non-market mediated access.

9.1.3 Discovering non-market mediated access into potential AWs

Realising an experiential workscape begins with lobby servicescapes' spatial idleness. In this context, spatial idleness is a spare or idling capacity (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:86-106) spatial state in which no or minimal occupation exists. This status affords spatial publicness and accessibility contingent upon their owner's/operator's policy.

Cases of forced publicness may result in a conflict of interest leading to refusing non-market mediated public access, as seen in CMH. Therefore, operators granting access unlock potential spatial relationships CIS workers develop in their quest for opportunities to work in them. Figure 9.2 represents abstractions underpinning the three spatial premises that ground study findings.

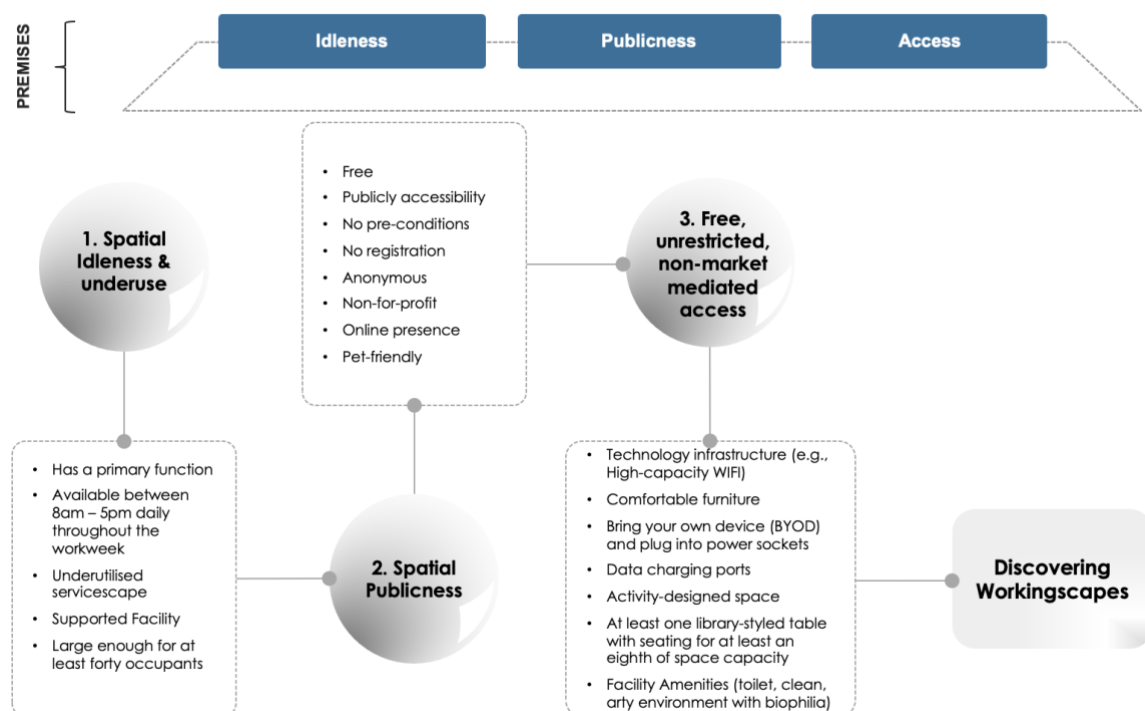


Figure 9.2: Abstractions of three spatial premises precursory to discoverable workspaces from study findings: Grounds for extracting new value (workspaces) from existing servicescapes

9.1.3.1 Spatial idling capacities unlock discoverable workscales

First, lobbies must possess idling capacities (Botsman and Rogers (2011) for value extraction activities resulting in the proposed workscale to materialise. Study findings suggest spatial idleness and underuse present grounds for hotels to allow public access into their lobbies. It posits that underused service spaces meet CIS workers' demand for flexible workplaces when and if asset owners recognise their intrinsic value and act to unlock them by permitting public access. It is an organic discovery process emerging from lobby users' actions within appropriate access conditions and consumption principles, with its first principle being idling capacity.

This study reasons hotel real estate operations support existing lobbies within this spatial premise (see Chapter 7). As portioned areas that occupy a relatively small percentage of supported built assets, lobbies are large enough to accommodate a critical mass (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76) of users at one time to merit a descriptive working ecosystem. Findings further indicate operators are 'silent' actors in the public discovering workscales within the temporal boundaries of a typical workweek's working hours. Thus, this study argues that workscale is a secondary function of existing spaces whereby value extraction activities occur to repurpose and improve servicescales' spatial utility during their temporal idle window.

Thus, what makes workscales discoverable lies in the existence of underutilised servicescales. These underused assets possess a latent potential that Botsman and Rogers (2011) call idling capacities (p.83). Their theoretical premise that CC is a deployment system that unlocks the intrinsic value of idling, underutilised assets by connecting demand to supply, enabling greater efficiency, empowerment, and access (Sturm, 2018) captures this part of this study's findings. Idling capacity undergirds most consumption models in ZipCar and Airbnb (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:106; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). According to them, owners extract new value from their existing but underused assets in liquid forms (Botsman and Rogers, 2010, 2011:83-88) by tapping into their idling capacities.

Contrary to these market-mediated models, studied lobby servicescapes are publicly accessible with no financial access gateway conditional to extracting value. Therefore, to exploit the capabilities of their lobbies and deploy value extraction, operators perhaps utilise spatial publicness to attract public footfall, making their lobbies accessible to the working public.

Botsman and Rogers' (2011) CC theory better explains applying value extraction mechanisms to utilise idling assets efficiently. In this study, one of such mechanisms is drawing public footfall into the lobby servicescapes resulting in the workscape discovery. Thus, idling capacity is a primary principle (Figure 9.1) upon which discoverable workscales rest. Its absence presents no grounds for lobby servicescapes' publicness, making study outcomes improbable. What lies between this idle lobby servicescape state and this discovery is public access.

9.1.3.2 Spatial publicness as a window to discovering access into lobbies potentiates an experiential workscape

Spatial publicness resulting from hotels' decision to permit public entry into their idling lobbies indicates access that informs spatial consumption. Upon realising that idle servicescape embodies value not fully realised within its primary function, the study reasons that asset owners initiate opportunities to afford their secondary use when idling. Such opportunities found in this study are in allowing the public to experience the servicescape itself. These are not typical lobby patrons in the sense of hotel lodgers. Hence, drawing users outside the primary customer base through publicness potentiates the workscape discovery. Spatial publicness encompasses hotels' actions that permit non-lodging guest entry into their lobby environment without restriction and denial. Not restricting public access by allowing anonymous spatial access and use without preconditions or registration constraints support users' desire for invisibility.

Study outcomes also suggest that demand-sided input contributes to this publicness through online blogs, vlogs, reviews, articles and word-of-mouth recommendations. Nevertheless, the decision to make lobbies public perpetuates

more publicness online. Therefore, case hotels' strategic step toward attracting non-paying users with no entry conditions presents a crucial argument for discovering workscapes.

Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) AbC theory broadens this study's understanding that grounds spatial publicness after spatial idleness. Their arguments illuminate society's embrace of access over ownership (p.881) and underpin consumption behaviours arising from asset owners' decision to grant public access to their real estate (p.881). Even though Botsman and Rogers (2011) offer a broad list of alternative routes to products and services consumption, Rifkin (2000), Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), and Belk (2014) all narrow CC manifestations to 'access-to-asset'. However, their varying access-based theories often highlight market-mediated consumption forms. Nevertheless, this study accepts the basis of their access arguments since it serves as a means to better understand access as a route to discoverable workscapes. However, it deviates from their market mediation constructs. Thus, discoverable workscapes are non-market mediated and access-based as a necessary conditionality that unlocks its reality.

9.1.3.3 Free, unrestricted, and non-market mediated access to work-supporting servicescapes unlocks discoverable workscapes.

With spatial idleness and publicness in place, what subsequently potentiates discoverable workscapes is free, unrestricted, and non-market-mediated accessibility to work-supporting servicescapes' elements. In this sense, access to the materiality and immateriality of servicescapes supports CIS workers' activities. This access is at two levels: spatial and infrastructural. Both require no preconditions or registration requirements because hotels grant access without charge or conditions. This becomes an essential element feeding access dimensions, such as users' desire for invisibility because of the anonymous spatial consumption hotels permit.

Such affordances align with an antimarket philosophy of flexible offerings creative workers seek when accessing spaces like lobbies, as Chapter 7 details. Lobby

facility amenities cater to support users' lengthy stays. Access to a clean, modern environment and biophilic elements with clean toilets, food, hydration, and art décor creates an attractive servicescape. This picturesquely homely environment is the convenience of everything users refer to in their narratives. Gaining unrestricted access to hotels' WIFI infrastructure reveals another aspect of their non-market mediation. WIFI constitute non-tangible but critical servicescape infrastructure that makes work activities possible.

Therefore, hotel operators' actions to grant free, unrestricted and non-market mediated access to their servicescape's work-supporting elements, such as WIFI, finalise the theoretical premises unlocking the public's workingscapes. This study suggests that this construct of free access transcends mere spatial attraction. It results in a spatial repurposing into a functional and experiential milieu. The resulting working ecosystem contradicts how most alternative offerings commodify their access (Spinuzzi, 2012; Moriset, 2014; Gandini, 2015; Merkel, 2015, 2019; Ivaldi, 2016; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019).

The fourth case hotel employs this usual market-mediated mechanism to leverage the secondary purposeful use upon discovering the public perception of their lobby as a workplace. This approach also supports existing direct economic exchanges preconditioning most spatial access types towards profit-making end goals. However, the non-market-mediated approach to accessing lobbies differentiates study findings from these AW representations. Grounding how operators freely grant public access to the three studied servicescapes' materiality and immateriality suggests a not-for-profit approach to repurposing spaces. If profiting occurs at all, it is covert.

9.1.3.4 Summarising discovery conditions

Spatial idleness, publicness, and accessibility unlock opportunities for repurposing lobbies into workplaces. Abstractions from study findings suggest these three servicescapes' states are precursory to discoverable workingscapes. These are primarily supply-leaning determinants that unlock the discovery process. Although

the workspaces conception is grounded in a demand-led study, it does not discountenance the supply-side role in affording spatial access and consumption.

Thus, granting public access initiates value extraction activities that result in experiential workspaces. Since study suggests that servicescapes have sparse daytime utilisation, they are rich in idling capacities (Botsman and Rogers, 2011), resulting in the existential spatial consumption conception demonstrable in respondents' narratives and observed use. Idling capacity is the unused potential of underutilised assets (p.83). However, access is not automatic, as the fourth lobby, CMH, will reveal. This difference in accessing idle spaces underpins Botsman and Rogers (2011) and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) theories.

Study findings agree with Botsman and Rogers (2011) that idle assets possess unused potential they identify as idling capacity, in this study, spatial. It also emphasises access as the gateway to experiencing opportunities within the spatial idling capacity lobby servicescapes possess, after Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012). So, to realise the trueness of workspaces, access must be free, unrestricted, and non-market mediated. Accepting this access position as a vital discovery construct paves the way for repurposing servicescapes through customising and co-creating them into working ecosystems.

9.1.4 Repurposing servicescapes as workplaces

With non-market-mediated access in place, the process of spatial repurposing may begin. Repurposing spaces in this context comprise customising and co-creating activities that transform servicescapes into working ecosystems, whereby working activities dominate their primary function. The relationship structure in the repurposing process connects the three theoretical user-work-spatial vectors (from Chapters 2) as AbCC factors. In this sense, users and work attributes inform alternative consumption interpretations based on spatial factors that support their intentions to work.

These factors interweave a non-linear dimensional mix of attributes, elements and activities that trigger control factors demonstrable in behavioural output factors in Figure 9.1 above. These dimensions feed into structural depictions of the nature and drivers of accessing and consuming servicescapes as workplaces. Each structure connects and rests on all four CC principles (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-93), as the previous Figure 9.1 above shows.

9.1.4.1 User demand profile of discoverable workingscapes

The user-work profile outlines a taxonomy combining CIS workers' attributes grounded in previous chapter's data and analytical constructs supported by extant theories. Study findings suggest user psychographics has an overarching influence on the workingscape discovery. Every other access dimension connects to this lifestyle user characteristic. Thus, their collaborative disposition informs activities synonymous with repurposing servicescapes for work as involved consumers engaging in customising and co-creating activities that previous chapters explicate. Although most IPs are entrepreneurial and engage in mobile working practices, they rely on technologies to work autonomously in servicescapes.

Hence, this combination of tech savviness with autonomy seems to justify the knowledge-intensive nature of their work profile, synonymous with their self-description as creatives. They work portably with no physical human supervision and differ from the traditional mobile work and core-manufacturing typologies (Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017). Utilising the agency of choice to seek out places that appeal to their psychography and entrepreneurial bent favour their peripatetic working practices that lobbies are sympathetic towards and accommodate.

As such, this typographic structure drives lobby adoption practices and the spatial utilisation of servicescapes demonstrable by users customising and co-creating them into working ecosystems in service to their workplace needs. Without their active participation in studied lobbies, these servicescapes may remain as the perceived servicescapes (Bitner, 1992:60) that remain idle, not the experiential workingscape proposed here. Thus, this user-work access dimensional taxonomy

makes up the typological structure that Figure 9.1 depicts. Its principle lies in how strangers trust (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91-93) in communal gatherings to work unconventionally by repurposing lobby servicescapes. Florida's (2002, 2014) work offers theoretical lenses that sense-make this user-work profile useful for theoretically building the proposed workscape framework.

9.1.4.2 Spatial profile of discoverable workscales

Next is the spatial factor (Figure 9.1) with an access dimensional taxonomy of work-supporting attributes this study builds into a servicescape structure. Bitner (1992:60) plays a significant role in the spatial profile of discoverable workscales, along with Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012). Repurposing lobbies is contingent upon users' free access to servicescape infrastructure with ease (no required registration) in an unrestrictive environment offering 'the convenience' of work-supporting articles.

Premising the servicescape structure as holistically free, unrestricted, and non-market mediated foregrounds users' access to lobbies' tangible and intangible offerings. It is this position that provides insight as to why studied lobbies attract the CIS worker user groups among various flexible work venue options (Spinuzzi, 2012; Kojo and Nenonen, 2016, 2017; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Spinuzzi *et al.*, 2019; Morrison and Macky, 2017; Ojala and Pyöriä, 2017; Göçer *et al.*, 2018; Oldenburg and Brissett, 1982; Oldenburg, 2013; Kingma, 2016; Ng, 2016; Mimoun and Gruen, 2021).

Along with their non-market mediation, the study finds a barter position within the spatial repurposing process. It suggests users reciprocate their interpretation of hotels' altruism with reasoned opinions that unsolicited social proof (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:81-83) and a 'rent' purchase reflect. These reciprocation acts indicate tangible and intangible barter methods, such as coffee purchases and online (Moore, 2020, Grassin, 2017) posts, respectively, as compensatory forms in exchange for spatial access and consumption in Chapters 5 and 6. Both actions may enhance and promote case hotels' brands, resulting in mutually beneficial

value extraction. Users work for free, with hotels potentially increasing their lodging sales and scooping marginal revenue. This finding is an area for further discovery.

Not-for-profit spatial consumption is typical of most publicly accessible spaces like libraries; however, while they are communally funded, lobbies are neither public goods nor publicly funded. Study findings did not reflect case lobbies imposing systemised financial payment structures nor requiring in-person service purchases as an access precondition. Instead, their relaxed approach to welcoming public access hints of undeclared interest in temporally filling their idling servicescapes.

Study findings suggest that lobbies' experiential value lies in the people factor and other social constructions associated with their functional offerings in their colloquial use of the term, *vibe*. Thus, within accessible servicescapes are functional and experiential derivatives users extract to support their activities. Their composition discerns Bitner's (1992) argument of how built spaces support human endeavours (pp.58-60). In this case, work. The result of these twin offerings is what users call '*vibe*' as Chapters 7 and 8 define. By this definition, *vibe* is the totality of lobby servicescapes offering that results in the proposed discoverable workscape in Figure 9.1 with which CIS workers users interact and repurpose.

Vibe combines the functional and experiential spatial elements in ways that users collectively assimilate and translate suitable for working. These interpretations substantiate Bitner's (1992) servicescape cues and connote the entire materiality subsumed in her model, combining symbolisms, ambient conditions (pp.60-66) and spatial atmospherics (Mari and Poggesi, 2013:172-180) with the people (user-work) element analogous to CIS workers psychographic profile. They present a unitary spatial offering informing this study's workscape discovery. *Vibe* colloquially encapsulates the collective spatial cues as an experiential offering. Suffice it to add that even the cofounder of AHS (in Chapter 7) employs this same term along with psychography in describing their approach to spatial design. It seems to work.

Anonymity in spatial access and repurposing connotes liberty in customising and co-creating activities within lobbies, a vital access dimension recurring in this research. The idea of spatial invisibility towards social escapism whereby CIS workers avoid the distraction they associate with the minutiae of day-to-day operations in their workplace and even other servicescapes like cafés differentiates lobbies in this study findings.

Anonymity affords an independent but communal working milieu (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:167-169; Spinuzzi, 2012). Such working practices highlight negative associations of unproductiveness with the traditional workplace. It suggests a workplace malaise that links distractions and escapism from the minutiae of daily work operations to offices. In this sense, users appraise lobbies as venues that support strategic thinking and creative work as unknown entities working with other strangers (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91-93).

Locational proximity is a convenience access metric connecting costs with ease of access. Easing access to studied lobbies through closeness to users' residences, convenience and centrality of access to public transport and what other flexible places offer influence participants' consumption practices in lobby servicescapes. As most hotels occupy town centre locations close to roads, transport access, ease of discovery, and reduced cost for locales makes servicescapes like lobbies economically viable access option for flexible use.

The proposed discoverable workscape framework in Figure 8.1 comprises the publicness of an accessible but simple infrastructure- and service-rich environments, free at the point of access. The non-market mediated servicescape structure premise forms the bedrock that facilitates repurposing lobbies as work venues and constitutes a significant spatial profile for sustaining this secondary function. Florida's (2014:18-22) place geography argument supports how their locational placement in proximity to creatives promotes CIS work. The servicescape structure that accommodates CIS workers' work patterns is contingent on the reasoning that lobbies possess idling capacities (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:8).

However, due to their primary function (Tallack, 1998), operators deploy control factors to moderate consumption activities to prevent a perpetual use of their lobbies for work.

9.1.4.3 Control factors moderating work activities in discoverable workscales

Through abductive reasoning, this study posits that a publicly free-to-access lobby servicescape presents a commercial risk to hotels' primary business, thus, necessitating control measures, as Figure 8.1 outlines. To this end, this study reasons that participating hotels promoting discoverable workscales deploy control strategies that surreptitiously curtail access and a perpetual spatial consumption with music volume that subliminally enforce a return to the servicescape's primary function (Tallack, 1998; Kazmi, 2012; Thapa, 2007). Hence, the secondary workscale function reverts to its primary servicescape function. Study findings suggest an average user working in lobbies two times a week co-creates workscales between 8 pm and 5 pm. It interprets this as the access time window of spatial idleness opportunities for temporally operationalising workscales. Work beyond 5 pm is challenging because of high music volumes a use qualifies as aggressive.

Study finds that this single tool reverts workscales to servicescapes as entertainment activities replace the working atmosphere users create. Atmospheric cues (Mari and Poggesi, 2013) are essential in repurposing. The same ambient elements users appreciate as work-enabling are disruption tools to ending users' mobile working capabilities (Bitner, 1992:66). Therefore, discoverable workscales are temporal-spatial states that serve CIS workers' workplace demand during defined idle access windows that do not clash with the primary function of lobbies. Temporality forms a moderating structure governing the spatial repurposing process (see Chapters 7 and 8) to prevent jeopardising their commercial position. This temporal-spatial state encourages self-regulation and the exercise of the agency to leave or stop work.

The interpersonal nature of hotels that Bitner's (1992:59) model advances weigh more on users than hotel operators in this study. However, it acknowledges a demand-supply spatial co-creation crucial for the realising and ending workscapes. By implication, when one side disengages, a breakdown of the workscape is inevitable due to the collaboration it requires to stay operational. Holding this argument is the return to the servicescape state lobby operators instigate with control mechanisms of high music decibels. Observations and narratives suggest that lobby users exercise their agency of choice and self-governance to stop work to join or leave servicescapes' social activities.

Temporality is intrinsic to lobby servicescapes publicness and connects to idle periods during the workweek when operators permit access. A moderating structure in place to control spatial access through increasing music decibel levels translates into self-regulatory actions through user agency to stop work, thus, bringing closure to each day's workscapes. Lobbies seamlessly reinstate primary servicescapes' function in service to their paying lodgers, achieving non-confrontational dissolution of workscapes.

This idea raises the user-work profile, indicating that the experiential workscapes rely on a groundswell of users to create anonymous working ecosystems. The critical mass principle (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-76) emphasises the temporality access dimension of when the public seeking to work in lobbies is permissible. Within the moderation structure, users leaving the lobby results in others following similar social cues.

Therefore, this study reasons that successfully repurposing servicescapes into workscapes stands on the critical mass third-legged principle for sustaining workscapes. Familiarity with this repurposing process then occasions avenues for evaluating discoverable workscapes by assessing servicescape behaviour and activity dimensions indicating users' adoption of lobbies as workplaces.

9.1.5 Adopting space as a workplace

Habitual working practices in lobbies suggest CIS workers are adopting servicescapes as their workplaces. The study suggests this regular use validates regular workscapes manifesting in servicescapes with repetitive behaviours that Figure 9.1 characterises. The evaluation structure shows behaviours indicating the adoption process is occurring, like returning and extending the invitation to others. The end of this process realises an experiential workscapes that is not just a one-off. As this study is an eighteen-month long, it discovers that this habitual use of lobbies occurs in three out of four cases.

9.1.5.1 Behavioural profile of discoverable workscapes users indicating workplace adoption

Behavioural factors represent access dimensions as an evaluation structure to assess whether spatial adoption is operational. These behaviours and actions are abstractions (Charmaz, 2014:323) from user narratives and observations indicative of their servicescapes adoption as workplaces. Lived experiences and study observations offer evaluations for assessing access conditions that translate into workplace adoption practices in studied lobbies.

Attraction to the space leads to decisions to stay and work in these lobbies. For example, spatial adoption indicators of value extraction activities that suggest servicescapes are transforming into workscapes include spatial attraction, the decision to stay and undertake the intended day's work and returning to lobbies for work purposes that the figure above represents. Later, users further explore other spatial offerings different from alternative provisions that may result in purchases. These workers return to working in these lobbies with plans to work in the lobbies for a predetermined time. They invite others to join them as they embed their working practice in lobbies as their adopted workplace. Apart from those working primarily in servicescapes, a few use them for meeting purposes and to deal with social isolation synonymous with remote and lone working (See Appendices). These actions develop into an evaluation structure indicative of

behaviours and practices that occasions servicescape adoption as a workscape.

Bitner (1992:60-68) raises similar actions in her conceptual framework to indicate spatial attraction indices. However, structuring these behaviours as an evaluation tool differs from her behavioural analysis approach since it observes and notes behaviours as metrics to support narrations expressing attraction and adoption practices in lobbies. This study is empirical, hers conceptual. In principle, the collective behaviours suggest that servicescapes' customising and co-creating into workscales actors share a common belief. Belief in the common access adoption of lobbies highlights a general philosophical ethos and understanding that lobbies are open for people like them (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-89) even though there are contrary views to this belief position. This principle is the fourth leg of completing the discoverable workscales profile that this chapter theorises.

9.1.5.2 Grounding discoverable workscales in principles and theories

Discoverable workscales sit on these four principles as constructed grounded data indicates. Appropriately theorising this experiential discovery necessitates acknowledging the principles promoting the collaborative nature of consuming servicescapes for work that underpin each factor's dimensional structure. All these four factors structured with access taxonomies and grounded in constructed data connect with Botsman and Rogers' (2011) four-legged collaborative consumption (pp.75-181) principles. For instance, a critical mass of workers is a derivative of the temporality taxon in which strangers trust (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91-93) themselves to work together in a space they believe is for common or public use (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:88-89).

Study attributes these observable and informed behaviours and activities, connecting these principles to changing perceptions of spatial consumption that celebrate access over ownership regardless of use class (UK, 1987). While these three principles are social and philosophical, the fourth principle is not. Idling capacity highlights a state of spatial idleness and underuse resource premising

public access and anchors the dimensional qualifications of lobby servicescapes' structure.

The principal actors in this study are lobby users. CIS workers and work attributes are its first discovery. Leaning on Florida's (2002, 2014) theorising their rising ranks with U.K's National figures (Office for National Statistics, 2021b, Creative Industries Council, 2022) brings an understanding of their predominance in studied lobbies, including their geographic placement (Florida, 2014:18-22). Their activities and narratives inform the workscape materiality as a compelling alternative workplace position in repurposing and flexibly utilising servicescape for portable work. Constructed access conditionalities that Chapter 8 analyses combine AbC dimensions (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:884-886), servicescape environmental dimensions (Bitner, 1992:60) and emergent features from study findings with the overarching principles of CC (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:75-96) to advance the spatial materiality into an experiential workscape proposition.

To appreciate the integration of theories fusing to underpin and interpret this study's findings are five significant contributions from extant theories this study develops into a unified theoretical construction to better understand its workscape proposition in Figure 9.1. While the aforementioned spatial premise, access factors, dimensions and CC principles culminate into this study's propositional experiential workscape theoretical framework, its contribution to knowledge of how twenty-first-century workers utilise lobby servicescapes for work leans on five theoretical aids.

9.1.6 Integrating five theoretical contributors informing workscape

Synthesising and applying five existing theories (see Table 9.1) outside built environment research offer constructive lenses for shaping, sense-making, and constructing this study's complex and copious grounded data into the propositional workscape framework. Their application opens up a differentiated access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC), with access unlocking and

potentiating possibilities for CIS workers to repurpose idling spatial entities like lobby servicescapes for productive work, as Figure 8.1 depicts.

This federation of theories is unique in its breadth of synthesis, cutting across sociology, economics, marketing, and commercial boundaries to understand the unresearched alternative workplace adoption of lobby servicescapes as workplaces. Five theories and frameworks listed in Table 8.1 below articulate the discoverable workingscapes conception as a value extraction model:

Table 9.1: Theories and frameworks supporting the discoverable workingscapes conception (Florida, 2002; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Appadurai, 1996; Bitner, 1992)

	Theory	Discoverable workscape development
1	Rise of the creative class (Florida, 2002)	Supports the characterisation of lobby users
2	Collaborative consumption theory (Botsman and Rogers, 2011)	Offers underpinning principles that sense-make spatial consumption practices in studied lobbies
3	Access-based consumption model (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012)	Offer analytical access-based consumption dimension for theoretical framing why (access drivers) and how (access nature) CIS workers adopt lobbies as work environments
4	Scapes theory (Appadurai, 1996)	Supports the theoretical basis for renaming servicescapes as workscape term
5	Servicescape framework (Bitner, 1992:60)	Is the foundational theoretical framework in which workplace NOT service activities occur in lobby servicescapes that this study refines and extends into a demand-focussed workscape framework applicable in a technology age

Florida's (2002, 2014) creative class theory provides grounds for better understanding why and how this study's CIS workers discover workingscapes. Their occupational fit within his creative secretariat (see Appendix) and the U.K's CIS classification (Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2013) shed light on parallels between his theory and lobby users. Although this study's findings did not evidence some elements of his work (2014:197-199), it rationalises this contested

theory (Peck, 2005; Pratt, 2008, 2009) with the U.K's latest published employment trends (DCMS, 2016, 2018, Office for National Statistics, 2021b, Creative Industries Council, 2022) in CIS.

Incremental shifts in employment patterns towards more creative work reflect the theoretical strength of his work. How he connects rising creative workers to place geography attributes captures the spatial cues that inform discoverable workscapes (Florida, 2014:18-22). His emphasis on lifestyle choices (Florida, 2011:311-341) connects CIS workers' employment and occupation status with technology's role in today's working practices sense-make the colloquial use of vibe, work typology and technology's central role in their spatial adoption. This theoretical background shapes the psychography of those interpreting and creating workscapes. Thus, it will be academically irresponsible to overlook his persuasive dissertation that conceptually agrees with this study's user and work profile as fundamentally CIS workers (see Figure 9.1). This psychographic construct correlate with consumption behaviours that welcomes access over ownership with collaborative approaches value extraction activities.

Collaborative and access-based consumption theories (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Botsman, 2012) elucidate the three spatial states in how free access to idle assets without ownership unlocks the discovery process. While the CC theory offers principles, like idling capacity, that undergird new consumption practices (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012), AbC raises access as the basis for specific consumption practices (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) informed by access dimensions.

Twenty-first-century consumption activities sit on four principal legs (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Botsman, 2012) and with idling capacity being chief to discovering spatial access opportunities in lobbies. Other principles hinge upon the community built by strangers (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:91-93) working together alone (Botsman and Rogers, 2011:167-169; Spinuzzi, 2012). Together, AbC and CC meaning-make study findings that suggest working practices of repurposing

servicescapes into workscapes is value extraction access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC). To appropriately communicate how CIS workers repurpose servicescapes with a term that captures the essence of the study, it applies Appadurai's (1996) theoretical use of scapes to understand perspectival interpretations of changing modern environments.

Appadurai's (1996) theory inspires the application of '-scape' to suffix the outcome of 'working' practices it finds in lobbies different from their servicescape function. 'Working' in the term workscape represents users' work practices replacing service-related activities that Bitner (1992) proposes within studied lobbies. The '-scape' suffix characterises users' perspectival interpretive use of studied servicescapes embodying workplace attributes supporting their work demands. Applying '-scape' to perspective-taking and understanding the modern use of servicescapes (Appadurai, 1996:32-43; Salazar, 2013:754-754) brings meaning to working practices manifesting in them different from (Tallack, 1998; Kazmi, 2012; Thapa, 2007).

It captures inflexions of CIS workers' portable working practices, ubiquitous technologies, and fluidity on previously impervious spatial boundaries like lobbies as workers become portable, flexible and agile (Appadurai, 1996:33-34), thus, imposing deep perspectival constructs. Although his theory came four years after Bitner's (1992:60), together, they concretise the theoretical development that CIS workers discover, repurpose, and adopt lobbies as workplaces in the nomenclature adaptation of workscapes (Figure 9.1). Adopting the theoretical position of scape to refine Bitner's (1992:60) framework in renaming servicescapes bears out their secondary function as work venues. However, Bitner's work remains foundational to this study's interpretation of its findings.

Bitner's (1992) classic work connects place, service, and people, linking environmental characteristics influencing consumption activities with users' decisions to stay or leave built environments (pp.59-70). This study agrees with this connection. Her framework suggests that environmental cues elicit internal

responses that are objectively observable in behaviours that result in attraction or avoidance behaviours to serve commercial ends (pp.62-64).

Similarly, this research explicitly reflects lobby users' narratives and actions that indicate spatial cues that afford their adoption intentions lobbies to promote work-related objectives. However, data does not show lobbies' commercialisation, although purchasing activities accompany the repurposing and adoption processes.

More importantly, the servicescape framework is a three-decade-old theory proposed before the dot-com era. Thus, it does not account for the influence information and communications technologies (ICT) have on modern consumption practices associated with flexible working (Botsman and Rogers, 2010). The outcome of this study suggesting lobby servicescape consumers place demands on such environments to promote mobile capabilities that include accessing free hotel WiFi brings to question the need for refinement accounting for such needs.

Study emphasises this missing technology element, interpreting its influence on twenty-first-century society's AbCC practices. Extending her framework to recognise ICT's influence within hospitality environments like lobbies seems appropriate. Thus, it proposes a framework refinement to account for technology ubiquity's influence on AbCC activities in lobby servicescapes to support CIS work.

Thus, the workscapes framework in Figure 9.1 comprehensively outlines CIS workers' AbCC activities to extract value within the spatial materiality of existing and supported service environments for work. Following Bitner's (1992) theoretical suggestion that structure, stimuli, and symbolic cues enrich physical environments, it refines this position by characterising users and their work within the contextual materiality housing service encounters they consume (pp.57-60).

While this framework refines and extends Bitner's work, its novelty resides in the constructionist approach that employs the CGT (Charmaz, 2014) strategy to harvest lived experiential narratives in real-time use within studied lobbies. Theorising from users' lived realities this way fundamentally differs from Bitner's (1992) conceptual

position. This overall conception informs the servicescape refinement by the delineated theoretical argument.

While this study's outcome shares various relevant portions of these five main theories, the breadth of synthesis and complexity interweaving their constructs offer a unique depiction of non-market mediated spatial access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) missing in the built environment and AW studies. Further delineating the framework requires an initial grounding of the workscape conception that highlights conditions for their occurrence (supply-sided) to potentiate its discovering and realising its secondary utility.

9.1.7 Summarising the discovery framework

Study findings' interpretation through the proposed workscape framework in Figure 9.1 is a product of refining and extending Bitner's (1992:60) servicescape to accommodate modern lifestyle expressed evident in work practices. By constructing workscape as a framework for discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces, it makes a knowledge contribution to existing body of research.

Centralising users as principal actors discovering, repurposing and adopting lobby servicescapes as workplace environments affords this study to further argue that three spatial status precondition the processes. Thus, it suggests spatial idleness, publicness, and accessibility unlock the discovery process and ultimately results in its proposed discovering workscales (see Figure 9.1) through which a non-market mediated access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) value extraction occurs within idling and underutilised lobby servicescapes.

Five theories fuse storied narratives, forms and abstractions of study findings into the unified workscape construct. Each theory supports the knowledge-bridging and theory-development process from the inextricable interlink of user-work-spatial that Table 9.1 summarises. Integrating these theories and findings into a construct connects people-work-place in a demonstrative reinterpretation of workplace

expressions in servicescapes different from Bitner's (1992:60) place-service-people proposition. The centrality of users' demand profile understood through Florida's (2002, 2014) characterisation of creative workers rationalises twenty-first-century workers' attraction to lobby servicescapes within the analytical context of Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012:884-886) AbC dimensions that Botsman and Rogers (2011:75-96) CC principles underpin. Together, they advance the conceptual repurposing of a servicescape as an experiential workscape, borrowing and applying Appadurai's (1996) theoretical '-scapes' nomenclature.

While these scholars' theoretical arguments may be imperfect (see Chapters 3 to 5), they offer grounds for rethinking critical aspects of their scholarships within shifting twenty-first-century workplace philosophy and working conventions place geographies expresses. Appreciating this emergent spatial utility in servicescapes necessitates a scholarly discourse with extant scholarships and theories. Proposing lobby servicescapes as a new genre of alternative workplaces understood through the workscape framework lens is novel. Its discovery suggests that servicescapes possess capacities to support CIS workers' flexible workplace requirements in a socio-economic context with environmental implications. This study also raises the importance and effectiveness of the CGT methodology as a viable strategy for empirically discovering unresearched phenomena.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

The theory depends on the researcher's view; it does not and cannot stand outside of it. The researcher views the research reality as a situation that includes who and what is in that situation and what affects it from the broader environment in which it dwells
(Charmaz, 2014:239)

This doctoral scholarship discovered unconventional ways hotels in London are transforming from servicescapes into workplace environments through non-market mediated public access in a two-part idiographic CGT built environment research.. It uncovered means by which these servicescapes upended the traditional workplace convention (British Standards, 2012). Therefore, it sought to discover why and how twenty-first-century workers adopted hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces through four case study sites. Figure 10.1 encapsulates this study's approach and outcome, by circumscribing its main contribution of a discoverable workingscape theoretical framework within shifting workplace philosophy.

Thus, after probing past scholarly work and theoretical positions with little success in finding a theoretical fit within its domain, this study employed the CGT methodological strategy to first pilot the phenomenon under enquiry. Upon gaining a theoretical direction, it launched full-scale research to discover non-traditional workplace practices expressed within the hotel lobby servicescapes. Thus, this chapter concludes this doctoral thesis by making a case for its sufficiency as follows:

1. Answering research questions and responding to research propositions informed by the proposed theoretical framework (in Figures 9.1 and 10.1).
2. Research originality, stating the main contributions to knowledge (Rowena, 2017:215).
3. Research limitations and assumptions, while emphasising CGT's methodological strength in effective built environmental research.
4. Research discussion and conclusions.
5. Areas for further research.

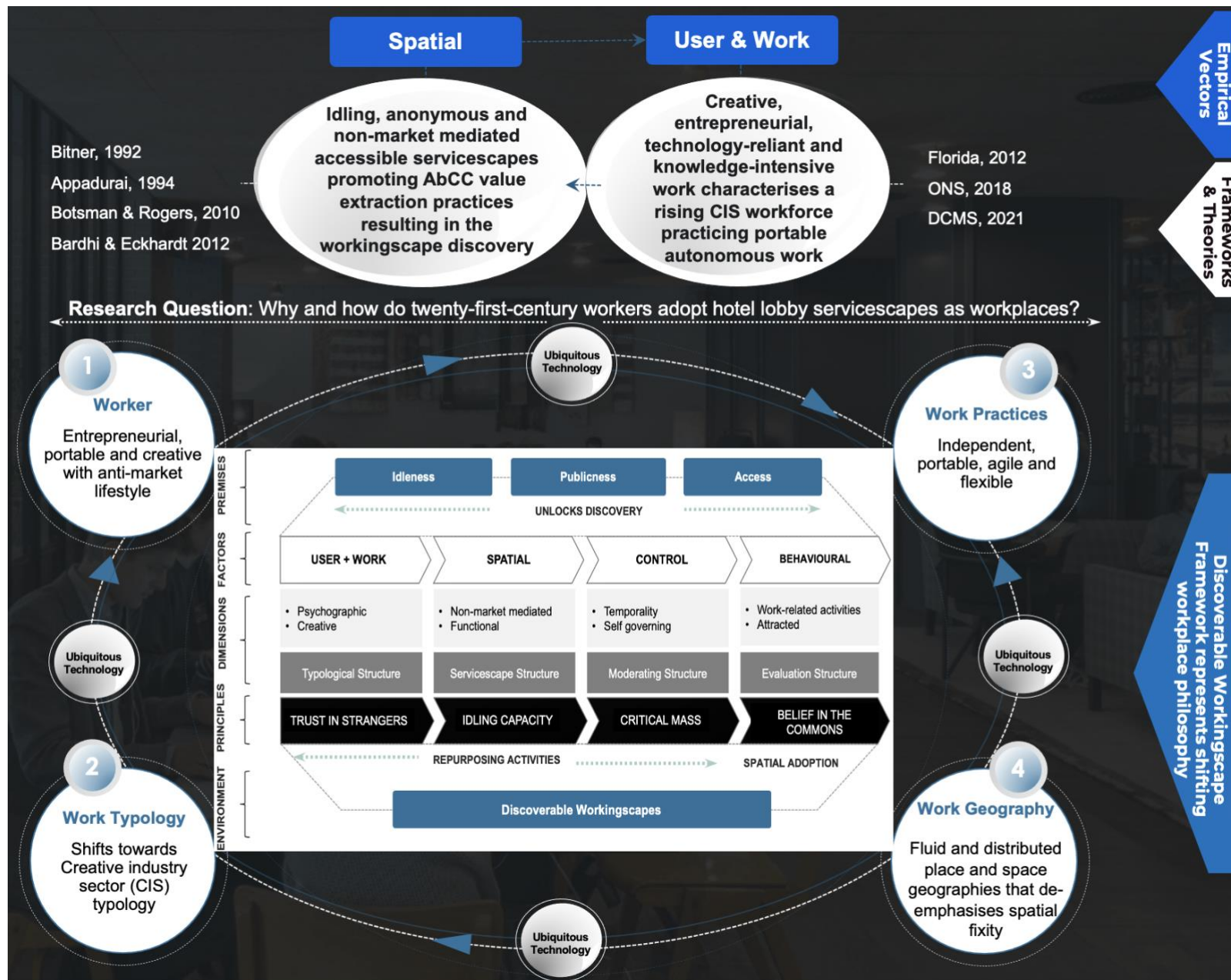


Figure 10.1: Circumscribing discoverable workingscapes within the user-work-spatial model characterises modern consumption constructs influencing shifting workplace philosophy expressed in rising alternative workplaces

10.1.1 Answering and resolving research questions and propositions

Study findings posited that lobby servicescapes met three principal conditions for their transformational use as worksites: 1) spatial idleness, 2) publicness and 3) accessibility, shown in Figure 10.1. These conditions potentiated CIS workers to discover, repurpose and adopt them as workscapes, which then formed the premises for workscapes discoverability. Study argues that the resulting spatial transformation may not have emerged without them. The opposing position of the fourth lobby (CMH) explicated in Chapter 7 further supported this claim.

10.1.1.1 Major research findings answering research questions, study interpretations and Implications

As an expanded response to research questions, Table 10.1 below summarises the major findings as answers to these questions, offering interpretations of outcomes with their possible implications.

Table 10.1: Major findings from answers to research questions with study interpretations and proposed implications

Research Questions	Major Findings	Interpretations	Implications
Why and how do twenty-first-century workers adopt hotel lobby servicescapes as workplaces?	Study suggests spatial idleness, publicness, and accessibility are three principal spatial states studied lobbies met that potentiated and unlocked their discovery by CIS users accessing them.	Underused lobby servicescapes possessed idling capacities that do not automatically result in repurposed spatial entities that met the needs of the CIS workers adopting them as workplaces. Rather, access granted by their operators unlocked their intrinsic potential to support CIS work, which this study interprets as	These three conditions present spatial indicators necessary to improve idle and underused built spaces, unlock their discovery, and affording value extraction activities when the public is granted access to repurpose them for social and economic benefits, thereby supporting the creative economy.

		discoverable workscapes.	
1. How do users characterise themselves and the lobby servicescapes in the context of their spatial access and consumption intentions to work?	Users discovering lobbies present psychographic traits and attributes aligned with an entrepreneurial and independent demand profile with propensities to work autonomously and collaboratively. Their antimarket disposition towards publicly accessible flexible work environments supports their knowledge-intensive and technology-reliant work.	Study reasons that shifting employment patterns towards creative work reflected in portable work practices seen in this study. Demonstrable links with informality and precariousness was evident in approach to discovering case lobbies as work-supporting environments that cater to their workers' socio-economic needs.	Discoverable workscapes imply the built environment stakeholders, such as owners, operators, facility and building managers, must rethink extending idling, but supported portions of their real estate with functional capacities to serve the socio-economic needs of a growing CIS workforce seeking non-market-mediated flexible alternative work environments.
2. Why are these lobbies suitable for users in (1) to work?	Study findings argue that access drivers qualifying case lobby servicescapes as suitable workplaces contribute to holistic spatial attributes comprising free, non-market mediated access into anonymous, infrastructure- and service-rich functional and experiential spaces conveniently located in proximity to transport links, residences, and workplaces of their users, enabling	Entrepreneurial, autonomous and CIS workforce seeking accessible and non-market mediated access into unconventional work environments, like lobbies to create value through work, often reciprocate this spatial altruism with tangible and intangible transactions that contribute positively to the sponsoring organisation's commercial or service business objectives.	Understanding that non-market mediated spatial access does not result in a loss to the sponsoring organisations shifts old thinking that flexible workplace provisioning must be commodified or commercialised. Deploying non-market mediated spatial access into existing idling spaces presents opportunities for realising resource-efficient built assets, among other benefits of which social value and

	capabilities to work mobile and portable.		economic support are dominant.
3. How do users' narratives in (1) and (2) resolve the twelve propositional statements to inform a refined and extended version of Bitner's (1992) propositional framework into a typological framework reflecting why and how today's workers adopt lobbies for work?	Bitner's (1992) environmental servicescapes (e.g., symbols) and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) access-based consumptionscape dimensions (e.g., anonymity) characterise the nature of studied lobbies and the demand profile of resulting study outcome of discoverable workingscapes.	Twenty-first-century CIS working practices demand more than Bitner's (1992) spatial attractor service elements that the servicescapes propositional framework encapsulates in lobbies. Instead, discoverable workingscapes show technology's influence on the interpretive perspectival consumption of lobbies, with Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) consumptionscapes aiding the depiction of the workingscapes CIS workers discover.	The manifestation of workingscapes reveals potential approaches for driving policy changes to improve the functional utility of spare spatial capacities by deploying it as an AbCC value extraction tool for creating opportunities in existing buildings, meaning: 1. Governments can incentivise such improvements. 2. Managers can explore the potential workingscapes' discoverability of their idling and underutilised buildings and then deploy needed spatial resource-efficient policies. 3. Researchers can further test the efficacy of this study's propositional discoverable workingscapes framework on idling environments within and outside the

			hospitality sector and as a research device for evaluating these environments.

10.1.1.2 Resolving research propositions

Table 10.2 below summarises research interpretations of its findings (Chapter 8) in response to each of the twelve propositions in section 1.1.4

Table 10.2: Study findings interpretations to resolve the twelve research propositions

Proposition	Description	Research response
Proposition 1:	<u>Non-market-mediated spatial access:</u> Lobby users expect service environments and their infrastructure to be publicly accessible and free to use.	<i>Non-market mediation drives users' decisions to access and use case lobbies on a not-for-profit basis (Figure 7.1). The economics of accessing lobbies as workplaces are non-market-mediated since no financial transaction precondition precludes public access.</i>
Proposition 2:	<u>Temporality of spatial access:</u> Spatial consumption in lobbies is characterised by longitudinal (repeated access) and short-term access (one-time transaction).	<i>A mix of short and long duration and longitudinal transactional access (two or more weekly use) characterises lobbies' spatial AbC (Figure 7.1), contingent on critical mass of creative people, an appealing environment and granted access.</i>
Proposition 3:	<u>Elaborateness of lobbies:</u> Lobby has an elaborate physical (spatial) setting, essential for attracting public consumption to adopt for work	<i>Service-rich and simplified physical lobby servicescapes attract CIS workers (Figure 7.4), offering work-supporting settings with vibe, community, music, furniture, and infrastructure, etc. that promote their work.</i>
Proposition 4	<u>User and staff involvement in lobbies:</u> Lobby users' involvement in co-creating a work environment is extensive, with the minimal participation of hotel staff in creating a workplace experience within lobbies.	<i>The burden of customising lobbies into workplace environment weighs heavier on users (CIS workers) in their typical daily experiences (Figure 7.5), although users and operators co-create the experiential servicescapes.</i>

Proposition 5:	<u>Modernity of lobby workers:</u> <i>Lobby users are non-traditional workers born post-1964</i>	<i>User psychographics (lifestyle) and demographics (e.g., age, occupation) correlate, driving access of younger, technology adept CIS workers into lobbies.</i>
Proposition 6:	<u>Anonymity in lobbies used for work:</u> <i>User anonymity informs the adoption of lobbies as work venues.</i>	<i>Anonymity drives users' access choice to achieve an invisibility state of social escapism and avoid the distraction of the minutiae of daily operations associated with the traditional workplace.</i>
Proposition 7	<u>Spatial proximity influences lobby access and consumption for work:</u> <i>Closeness to or centrality of lobby location informs teleworkers' access to lobbies as AWs instead of their home or workplace.</i>	<i>Access proximity combines locational convenience, centrality of place, and closeness to users' residences, workplace or transport links with other benefits, such as money savings on transport, vibe and motivation.</i>
Proposition 8:	<u>Lobbies serve a functional purpose:</u> <i>Public (workers) access lobbies for functional use to support work.</i>	<i>The functional and experiential value of lobbies as accessed objects were interconnected. Functional value was evident for material space, furniture, and internet connectivity needs. However, the subtlety of their experiential value lies in the people typology accessing them and other social constructions connecting their functional offerings.</i>
Proposition 9:	<u>Lobbies serve an experiential purpose:</u> <i>Public (workers) access lobbies to derive experience.</i>	
Proposition 10:	<i>Lobbies possess material and immaterial offerings that support work performance, but not all free.</i>	<i>Case lobby servicescapes are spatial realities embodying tangible and intangible materiality, offering free work-supporting material and immaterial elements to users. So, very minimal economic limitations influence access choice since they are free.</i>
Proposition 11:	<i>Lobby users adopt hotel lobbies for political persuasions to pursue antimarket consumption alternatives, free access instead of rented access.</i>	<i>Political persuasions did not drive lobby adoption. Rather, antimarket philosophies underlie their access and adoption decisions due to the notion that such environments should be freely accessibility with an unforced market mediation. There were also no indications that lobby patrons sought to articulate and promote environmentally sustainable intentions, even though their actions may suggest such.</i>
Proposition 12:	<i>Lobby patrons choose this access mode due to political persuasions that articulate and promote their environmentally sustainable intentions.</i>	

10.1.2 Research originality and contributions to knowledge

'Rather than spotlighting actors or authors, grounded theory places ideas and analytic frameworks on centre stage'. (Charmaz, 2014: 285)

This research's main contribution to existing knowledge is its propositional discoverable workscapes framework derived from answering the research question of why and how twenty-first-century workers adopted lobby servicescapes as workplaces as Figure 10.1 depicts. Its theoretical framework output resulted from refining and extending of Bitner's (1992) servicescapes framework, illustrating access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) value extraction practices associated with twenty-first-century work. Thus, this study's originality is its access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) value extraction proposition, previously unresearched, positing studied lobbies embody holistic spatial attributes that cater to the socio-economic needs of a growing CIS workforce.

Study's contribution as a framework developed from fusing user narratives into storied forms (Charmaz, 2014) with five main theoretical aids (Florida, 2002; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Appadurai, 1996; Bitner, 1992), of which Bitner's (1992) scholarship was chief, to ground its findings. With these theories, it built the discoverable workscapes framework in Figure 9.1 as a processual discovery (Charmaz, 2014) beginning with 1) the premises potentiating its discovery, 2) factors promoting its occurrence better characterised by access dimensions, 3) each factor's underpinning structure, and 4) principles undergirding each structural strand to contextualise the AbCC value extraction process that resulted in a discoverable workscape.

The analytical rigour of this work resided in the sequential, layered, and processual knowledge development that the CGT methodological approach fostered. Surprising discoveries encountered throughout this research afforded the application of abductive reasoning to gain further perspectival insights into this unresearched phenomenon. One surprising discovery was the non-market

mediated spatial access link to studied lobby users' antimarket and psychographic traits. Thus, this propositional discoverable workscales framed answers to the main research question of why and how twenty-first-century workers adopted lobby servicescales as workplaces.

The discovery and theoretical development presented throughout this thesis exceeded the boundaries of Bitner's (1992) conceptual framework or perceived servicescales (p.60) and offered a novel framework relevant to the twenty-first-century enquiry. It refined this old framework by applying users' AbCC value extraction activities that extended its conceptual state to an experiential framework (see Chapter 9 outline and Figure 9.1). Its discovery was relevant to the changing perspectival interpretive spatial function that an increasingly peripatetic and entrepreneurial CIS workforce imposed on lobby servicescales, repurposing them as workplaces. It raised access to theoretical significance as a means to creating opportunities for a growing CIS and flexible workforce to discover, repurpose and adopt servicescale as working environments for creating value through work by extracting their intrinsic value.

They achieved this by leveraging the public access hotel operators granted to attract public footfall from users outside their primary service customers (Harrison, 2002; Cook, 2020). Study found that CIS user groups' spatial repurposing activities extended studied lobbies beyond their primary functions (Tallack, 1998; Thapa, 2007) into temporal workplaces. Its access-based construct may apply to exploring future developments in emerging flexible working ecosystems differentiated from existing spatial market-mediated access-based commodified spatial offerings that characterised traditional and most alternative workplaces.

Underpinning the decision to refine and extend Bitner's (1992) servicescale framework into the proposed discoverable workscales taxonomy brings an old theory into twenty-first-century relevance. It implies that service environments are embracing portable working practices amidst rising creative industry sector (CIS) work. Behind this shift is the contingent part non-market mediated spatial access

plays in discovering why and how twenty-first-century workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces.

Therefore, amalgamating Chapter 5's user-work-spatial conceptual model (Figure 5.1) with the propositional discoverable workingscapes framework (Figure 9.1) summarised above in Figure 10.1 frames this processual construct. It affords a better understanding of the overall context of this study's outcome. It organises concepts and theories supporting CIS users' spatial adoption approaches towards meeting their unique workplace demands in studied lobbies.

Reasoning that their discovery reflects the absence of appropriately matching offerings flexible enough to cater to their workplace needs suggests gaps exist in the demand-supply spatial provisioning relationship. Filling these gaps by intentionally selecting non-market mediated accessible spaces suggests philosophical deficiencies in the current built environment research knowledge of the twenty-first-century workplace constituencies.

More so, the resulting discoverable workingscapes highlight how working practices reflect modern consumption practices in workplace adoption. These practices demand much flexibility without the strictures characterising the traditional workplace. Such idiographic interpretations acknowledge study's alternative workplace (AW) attribution to studied lobbies may be an unintended intervention by hotels. If so, then it further authenticates this discovery, revealing modern workers' untapped spatial appetite. Thus, behind repurposing lobby servicescapes are complex and non-linear spatial demand-supply relationship dynamism elements outside of this study's scope. This begs further enquiry.

Nevertheless, the novelty of theoretically building the discoverable workingscapes framework in a nascent AW study domain necessitates contextualising this study's findings within a lively academic discourse. Therefore, this chapter positions its proposed framework within AW research, linking it to sustainable management and associated philosophical debates popularising their rise. Situating study findings within Bitner's (1992) servicescape theory expresses how modern

consumption practices (Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) reinterpret the built environment among rising CIS workers (Florida, 2002;2014). What emerges underpin the socio-economics of discoverable workscales and their associated environmental implications.

However, there were limitations and assumptions made during the discovery process, to which the CGT methodological strategy and an analytical rigour mediated.

10.1.3 Research limitations and assumptions

Guarding against premature analyses is a constant challenge this study sought to overcome, as it is common in grounded theory studies (Charmaz, 2014). Decontextualising analyses from the hotel lobby servicescapes environment also presents areas of limitations that future research may seek to explore. However, it grounded its findings in the hotel lobby servicescapes' context, linking them to present-day working practices as reviewed in extant studies to avoid the mistake of disattending the contextual use of the specific environments transformed into workscales. Thus, the study limited its findings as emergent from the hotel lobby environment. However, it speculates the applicability of discoverable workscales in other environments that meet the stated conditions of their discovery. Caution against constructing decontextualised analyses by moving across fields to avoid forcing data into their early generalisations because they lack sufficient contexts to ground new data (Charmaz, 2014) applies to this study's approach to sticking with the hotel lobby cases. Therefore, it limits its analyses to London's hotel lobby servicescapes, where it undertook its data collection. However, it makes up for this environmental limitation by adding historical and online data beyond London.

Consequently, it gained theoretical complexity occasioning the realisation of five crucial points of the CGT method: 1) discoverable workscales' output from refining and extending Bitner's (1992) servicescapes framework presents opportunities for ongoing theoretical pursuit in AW research within the built

environment academic domain; 2) revealed opportunities for constructing ways to proceed with researching unresearched phenomenon in the built environment domains; 3) engaged abduction as well as induction in theory building of new data supported by complex interweaving of theories outside the research's immediate built environment domain to ground and interpret data into theory development; 4) the research problem and the researcher's unfolding interests shapes the theoretical interpretation resulting in the proposed framework, rather than the method presupposing the content; and 5) discoverable workscapes framework as a research theoretical product reflects how the researcher acted on these points. (Charmaz 2014:243-244)

Notably, the outcome of this discovery research cannot be dissociated from the researcher's experience, interests, and background (see Preface). As Charmaz (2014) highlighted in the earlier opening quote to this chapter, the researcher's perspectives, privileges, positions, interactions, and geographical locations influence research constructs, processes, and products under pre-existing structural conditions arising in emergent situations (p.240). The researcher comes from a practitioner background with experiences in engineering, facility and environment management in consulting and contracting. Therefore, this broad background influences the extent of interpretations and the interpretations of the interpretations. Areas of limitations imposition mentioned in this research shows this awareness. Due to this discovery project's expansive scope and novelty, analytical and interpretive boundaries were applied to realise project completion. Therefore, the study recommends further theoretical and empirical testing of the framework in various settings outside the hotel lobby servicescapes boundaries. As such, future work may seek to decontextualise grounded data analyses outside the realms of this primary research undertaking.

Further, as the research was situated in the London region, claims made in this research may be limited to lobby servicescapes in large prosperous and metropolitan cities or just London. Considering the Florida theoretical argument that populous cities with creative workers are often prosperous (Florida, 2014),

posing mutually exclusive relationships between city prosperity and their creative worker residents, it is unclear if the presence of creatives led to cities prospering or prosperous cities draw creatives. Yet, it is true that London is a magnet of diverse workers, of which the CIS is one and perhaps chief (Creative Industries Policy and Evidence Centre, 2022, Office for National Statistics, 2022c). Existing lobby servicescapes offer platforms for creating ecosystems that promote and attract CIS user groups. So, perhaps place geography pulls or pushes psychographics, such as anti-market values and collaborative working style, necessary for further research. Such research may explore discoverable workscapes in other cities outside the economic context of London.

Defining the socio-economic value and environmental benefits of adopting hotel lobbies is challenging because of subjective and complex human factors within behaviours. Trade-offs (section 8.3.2) made in decisions associated with where to work are not always obvious, even to those making them and as such, empirical research can only make inductions and abstractions from narratives and lived experiences shared at a given time or moment. In this sense, the CGT process was invaluable to this study's outcome.

Much of what this constructivist research uncovers about the interpretive use of lobbies remains tacit and silent (Charmaz 2014). This observation was evident in the silent insinuations of technology's necessity in discoverable workscapes. As such, this study connected its import with the semi-structured interview strategy that eventually unfolded its implications to work patterns and practices in users' lobby servicescapes adoption decisions. Thus, as constructivism emphasises entering participants' liminal world of meaning and action, this research locates these meanings and actions in social discourses of which study subjects were unaware (p.241).

Meanings made reflect broad CC's (Botsman and Rogers, 2011) and narrow AbC's (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) values, beliefs, ideologies, social conventions, and power relationships (Charmaz 2014:241) with self, employers, social and

workplace strictures, and socio-economic paradigms that challenge reflexivity in its analyses. Engaging theoretical devices such as the five theories and models (Florida, 2002; Botsman and Rogers, 2011; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Appadurai, 1996; Bitner, 1992) and retaining abductive reasoning guides this research against ideological reproduction of extant AW studies. It sought assumptions upon which participants constructed meanings and actions (Charmaz 2014:241).

In contrast to other research approaches that begin as structural and deductive, this CGT research started as inductive and processual (p.243), exposing it to copious data gathering and information overload. Consequently, it mitigates challenges associated with high data exposure to identify major theoretical categories behind processes by beginning with a small-scale pilot study (Hazzi and Maaldaon, 2015). The initial user-work-spatial theoretical categories (Chapter 5) proved efficacious in focusing the overall study and direction.

Further, some may argue that the hotels' free spatial offerings in the research findings are calculated and intended to elicit custom and generate revenue. This is a possibility. However probable this argument might be, findings do not reflect such calculations or intentions but abductively infer an openness to public consumption from their operators' narratives. More so, this line of argument does not account for users' intentional access and consumption of lobbies for work.

Furthermore, operators' narratives did not suggest they advertised or asked people to access their lobbies for work. Instead, the study suggests workers discover these work-supporting lobbies online and through recommendations. Strengthening the serendipitous nature of access was CMH's efforts to stop public access into their lobbies, introducing a conundrum to this argument. If hotels deploy free public access as a marketing gimmick, CMH's pushback suggests that varying access policies do not deter public determination to apply their anti-market approach to such environments.

Therefore, this study opined that as users apply a work purpose and utility interpretation to different spaces, they discovered built environments accommodating their work practices before adoption was possible. Thus, this interpretation of study findings leads to further interpretations of the additional benefits accruing to studied hotels offering free access, underscoring opposition to such in CMH lobbies' spatial commodification. Nonetheless, this argument remained empirically speculative and unsubstantiated without conducting a supply-side study.

Thus, with all limitations and assumptions considered within the context of CGT's methodology, the propositional framework construct in the previous chapter unified the complexity of this study's outcome with the agency of extant scholarships. It expressed why and how today's workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces in a theoretical AbCC taxonomy. As such, it further demonstrated a value extraction process that CIS worker-users deployed in lobby servicescapes.

By employing CIS workers' modern lifestyle and work practices demonstrable in their customisation and co-creation activities that repurposed servicescapes into working ecosystems, it described Bitner's (1992) 'perceived servicescapes' as '*discoverable workingscapes*', translating her service environments' spatial perception to spatial interpretation. Therefore, the proposed theoretical framework was a demonstrable grounding of study findings, indicating changing perspectival interpretation of lobby servicescapes into workplaces necessitated refining and extending Bitner's (1992:60) thirty-year-old framework.

10.1.3.1 CGT's methodological strength in this built environment project for discovering unresearched phenomena

Understanding that the CGT approach prioritises studied phenomena and sees data and analysis as products from the researcher's shared experiences in relation to participants' shared lived experiences and other sources of data positions this discovery research different from research conventions in the built environment (Charmaz, 2014:239). Utilising CGT allows this study to explore why and how

twenty-first-century workers (participants) construct meanings and actions that translate lobbies into workplace ecosystems (Charmaz, 2014:239). It presents a conversational analysis strategy that Silverman (2004) contends establishes how people construct meanings and actions. In this sense, it supports a pathway for pursuing why creative workers in studied lobbies chose to adopt them for work. Therefore, the 'why' emerges with the 'how' in a combinatory manner (Charmaz, 2014: 239-240) as it chooses to take the 'insider's' view (Charmaz, 2014: 325) to develop an investigative knowledge of the research phenomenon. Connecting existing conceptual frameworks to generated data allows the lived experiential narratives from study informants to support theory development.

The CGT method, through case studies, supplies appropriate means for achieving this theoretical feat. Interviews, observations, and online historical data help harvest copious datasets from hotel lobby use until the study reaches theoretical saturation. With existing theories and frameworks outside the realms of built environment research offering constructive lenses for shaping, sense-making, and constructing complex and copious case study data, the discoverable workscapes emerge. They provide sense and meaning to harvested datasets that identify Bitner's (1992) servicescape framework as a primary theory for abstracting surprising discoveries emerging from the study. This framework offers the theoretical platform for understanding studied lobbies and the resulting interpretive workplace ecosystems serving CIS workers. From this discovery, other supporting theories layer context and perspectives contributing to meaningfully constructing and theorising discoverable workscapes, following the grounded theory's tradition of discovering unresearched phenomena.

CGT raises the potential socio-economic and societal impacts of this study's discovery. It offers a flexible structure for future improvements and developments in its applied use in built environments and empirical adaptations for supporting future changes to workplace philosophy. Employing the CGT approach aids this future adaptation by considering historical changes or making it the focus of future research. As Charmaz (2014) argues, grounded theory is not about bringing a set

of finely-honed preconceptions and categories to apply automatically to findings; otherwise, researchers must justify them. Instead, this study's propositional discoverable workscapes highlight how shifting traditional workplace conditions can alter workplace inquiry since theories cannot be frozen in time (Charmaz, 2014), as seen in how the needed changes to Bitner's (1992) theory emphasise this notion.

Following grounded theorists like Charmaz (1990, 2014) affords this study's assumed theory of reality from functional theoretical categories it identifies during the research process (1990:1171). Identifying users as workers raises a better empirical understanding of the choices leading to lobbies transforming into workplaces. It enriches and supports further clarification of the epistemological study premise, resulting in reaching back to extant studies to ground theory development. Discoverable workscapes, as the outcome of this CGT approach, elucidates the subjective from objective relationships this study utilises for delineating the theory of lobby servicescapes' transformation into workplaces. It grounds study data in the analytical framing of past scholarships and retains fundamental study abstractions. A prime example of this outcome is the abductive inference of psychographics as essential to workscapes' discoverability. Taking her advice, workscapes demonstrates the development of theoretical perspectives that offer greater conceptual depth and breadth to enrich the built environment discipline. Overall, it improves the current understanding of microscopic and macroscopic structures (Charmaz, 1990: 1171) of today's workplace and the protagonists discovering environments like lobbies as workplaces. Study suggests these are CIS workers that bring their creativity into repurposing and adopting lobbies as workplaces.

10.1.4 Research conclusion

This discovery research highlighted the need for built environment actors, such as governments and their agencies, commercial asset owners and facility operators, to rethink spatial consumption through non-market mediated access. Access

unlocks the opportunity to repurpose idling built environments into useful ones, in the case of this study, workplaces for independent CIS workers. Considering its demand-led flexible workplace creation places the burden of customising and co-creating workplaces out of idling spaces on users, thus, easing performance pressures on space suppliers and operators. Its discovery challenged these actors to rethink the current state of existing, idling and underutilised built spaces and the opportunities these spatial states pose for improving their functional utility by deploying this study's propositional framework in Figure 9.1.

With the rising numbers of CIS employment (DCMS, 2022), these research findings posed reasons for focussing on specific worker typologies within the CIS user group encountered in this research. Study subjects were highly autonomous and independent creatives that sought freely accessible environments accommodating flexible work. Servicescapes affording unrestricted, public access within subliminal boundaries set by their operators showed a sympathetic disposition to their spatial demands. Even if not intentioned by these suppliers, studied users interpreted it as such. How workers accessed and utilised lobby servicescapes was also reasoned and considered. Workscapes discoverability was often not a happenstance or chance occurrence. The CIS user group discovering these workscapes understood their spatial needs, intended to visit studied hotels to work, and achieved their objectives by accepting the hotels' indirect and non-aggressive consumption limitations and boundaries.

Much as this study uncovered how lobby servicescapes suited CIS workers, this new workplace genre is not apparent in empirical literature. Although few academic studies make cursory references to hotel lobbies as flexible work environments, they lack any empirical basis (Mimoun and Gruen (2021:2) and Ng, 2016:212). New uses of spare hospitality spaces in which operators allow spatial use by granting non-market mediated public access that results in the discovery of workscapes do not exist in empirical literature. This gap is partly due to a heavily supply-sided research focus on emerging alternative offerings to meet shifting workplace demand. However, the empirical CGT research deployed in this

research demonstrably shows that hotel lobbies of boutique and lifestyle branding grant public access and consequently result in users repurposing them for work.

Undergirding workscapes was this study's argument that technology ubiquity is shifting workplace philosophy and reflected in spaces and places responsive and sympathetic towards peripatetic workers and portable work. Tracing collaborative consumption theory back to Felson (1979) and later popularised by Botsman (2012) suggests these practices predated twenty-first-century activities shown in this research. What is different relates to technology affordances to improving consumption activities demonstrable in Botsman's (2012) refined CC theoretical argument. Indeed, the nineteenth-century consumption behaviours observed by Felson in accessing products and services had shifted in form and shape in the twenty-first century because of technology advancements. However, Felson and Botsman showed that collaborative approaches to consumption persisted with the latter theory influenced by technology. The same principle applied to this study's refinement of Bitner's servicescapes. Technology influences how twenty-first-century users interpret servicescapes.

Extant studies in co-working models especially reflected today's workplace consumption behaviours and evidenced the social nature of workplaces. Revealed in this suggested spatial consumption was rooted in its name. Collaborative working, also known as co-working (Spinuzzi, 2012; Gandini, 2015; Ivaldi, 2016; Babb, Curtis and Mcleod, 2018), is one of the most studied AW concepts. While study findings did not evidence lobbies as co-working spaces, the idea of working flexibly finds its empirical rooting in extant co-working studies. The disagreement of lobby users with co-working models was mainly that access was contingent on market mediation and commodified spatial structure. This antimarket position (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) persisted throughout this discovery research project.

Applied knowledge affords the transformation of practice and social processes. Thus, this doctoral scholarship delivered a discovery research project that contributed an outcome and a method that may achieve both. The workscapes

framework offered avenues for improving existing idling and underutilised built spaces to promote social, economic and environmental outcomes. The CGT research methodology offered the built environment research domain avenues to contribute to a better world by asking questions related to and influencing everyday life in order to effect transformational changes and interventions (Charmaz, 2014: 339-340).

Discoverable workscapes exposed a social phenomenon associated with changing workplace philosophy that the methodological strategy employed in discovering the reality of an unresearched and unempirical enquiry facilitated. Built environment research should seek to understand and develop better knowledge of the society for which it caters. However, its technical approach may block this needed understanding. Discovering the implications of its function with social methods that preserve demand-led narratives is much needed as social norms challenge established conventions. Thus, discoverable workscapes improve a better understanding of emergent workplace demands in an understudied use of the hospitality environment in hotel lobbies. Showing that lobby servicescape are non-market mediated, access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) AW offerings for entrepreneurial, creative industry sector workers revealed the socio-economic implications of shifting working practices.

Discoverable workscapes framework as a refined and extended version of Bitner's servicescape theory opened new vistas for future research and transformed empirical knowledge of the purpose service environments serve. It offered opportunities to explore its constituent parts and other avenues for developing robust understandings of the spillage of workplaces beyond the boundaries of traditional conventions of commercial workplace offerings that are often guided and structured by market mediation. Discoverable workscapes resulted from creative workers' action and agency in concert with asset owners' willingness to grant non-market mediated public access to their existing servicescapes. Consequently, CIS workers typologies, especially the self-

employed workers, often work precariously and informally to customis and co-create workplaces suited to their needs.

Access drivers and the nature of access disclosed dimensions of working practices in lobby servicescapes in ways that differentiated this study's workscapes from existing studied co-working models. Since most co-working studies were supply-leaning research designs, formal organisations providing these environments influenced empirical outcomes that continued to fill the AW research repository. Emphasising this difference through this study sought to improve empirical knowledge gained from a demand-led enquiry. The result showed that modern working practices are access-based collaborative consumption (AbCC) of non-market mediated spaces like lobby servicescapes. Its general premises and outcomes indicated a demand for what this study calls 'opportunity spaces' that are publicly accessible and discoverable with socio-economical impact and the promotion of positive environmental sustainability.

Further, study findings highlights potential implications for sustainability and energy efficient use of idling, underused spaces within the resource efficiency context. However, this possible energy savings may not apply equally across various users groups studied using environments such as hotel lobbies for work. For instance, while most self-employed users may directly contribute to energy savings by swapping working from home with accessible lobbies, this differs for the employee user category (Chapter 7). In the latter case, workers choosing lobbies over existing workplaces do not demonstrate an energy saving culture, although other factors such as transport may offer environmental benefits.

10.1.5 Research implications and further research

Policy implications and proposed fuassociated with this study's findings, interpretations and developed discoverable workscapes framework span public, managerial and research domains.

10.1.6 Discoverable workscapes' policy implications: a case for fostering opportunity spaces

Within this refined and extended framework is the study's suggestion of potential unlocking opportunities for reaping additional revenue and other intangible benefits accompanying perceived altruistic dispositions. Its access position advanced positive socio-economic outcomes and environmental benefits with spatial publicness affordability within existing organisations' built environment. Idling built environments extended to the working public pays. It is in the granularity of discoverable workscapes as a spatial duality or extended utility space that asset owners and businesses may identify idling, underused spaces and choose to offer non-market mediated public access into such. For clarity, this construct differs from multiuse spaces designed to cater to various users or organisations. The intended focus is public access to idling but supported places to fill a flexible workplace demand gap.

Interpreting research outcomes as reflecting spatial opportunities offered to the public through access evokes the idea of encouraging other service businesses and commercial entities to mirror such. In this respect, this study makes a case for the rise of opportunity spaces that echoes similar intentions behind the U.S opportunity zones (White House Opportunity and Revitalization Council, 2019) as a community-inspired approach to socio-economic interventions for supporting the creative economy and flexible work. How these opportunity spaces may manifest requires some imagination with the discoverable workscapes framework providing taxonomies for evaluating their appropriateness in place geographies and organisation spaces. Formalising opportunity spaces may benefit those seeking these spatial offerings comparably, like the warm spaces to support under-served and struggling U.K communities (Warm Spaces, 2022).

Furthermore, generating a groundswell of workplaces along our streets and town centres whereby portions of underutilised spaces absorb the CIS workers, self-employed and remote workers set cities and towns up for promoting the tripartite value offerings of these case study outcomes—social, economic, and

environmental implications and benefits from the efficient use of existing resources. The holistic characterisation of discoverable workscapes catering to creative workers needing these spaces may support built professionals to identify environments suited for supporting CIS workers. Town planners and facility professionals must grasp placemaking roles in fostering environments these twenty-first-century worker types can discover. Governments also need to recognise candidate 'opportunity spaces' masked in the cloak of idleness and underutilisation useful for CIS workforce's consumption. Through this research outcome comes a solid grounding for the service sector to occupy the hero position in reimagining and repurposing their idling servicescapes into experiential workscape in service to the creative economy and flexible work. In another sense, they can create opportunity spaces for potentiating the public discovery of such through non-market mediated access.

Recommending such spatial approaches emerged from the reasoning that studied hotels already paid for the entire real estate of which lobby servicescapes constituted a portion. Consequently, the benefits accrued from discoverable workscapes were supplementary. Some may rightly argue that these additional benefits are marginal. However, through abduction (Charmaz, 2014), this study speculated that these benefits might be significant to demand and supply actors. First, given that the longest user of a studied lobby interviewed has done so for two years, there must be benefits accrued to him for sustaining such free patronage of lobbies. Consequent to this patronage, as an example, are user reciprocity activities hotels, as commercial ventures, benefit from as related studies (Cialdini *et al.*, 1999; Goldstein, Griskevicius and Cialdini, 2011; Roethke *et al.*, 2020) provide a philosophical background for such responses. To fully evaluate this speculation will require supply-sided research specifically for quantifying discoverable workscapes as a value-add in such commercial settings.

The discoverable workscapes conception and its proposed framework suggested twenty-first century CIS workers seek opportunities to work in non-

market mediated spaces and places. Hotels' disposition to spatial publicness and accessibility based on spatial idleness at periods of the working hours of the workweek facilitated 'opportunity spaces' their users repurposed into workplaces.

At the government level, examining and assessing the spatial functional utility of existing public built assets may reveal opportunities for promoting and deploying planning policies that support repurposing idling portions of buildings for public benefit. Given that spatial idleness constituted precursory conditions to discovering the workscapes ecosystem, policy challenges to existing but idling and underused built environments become apparent. Since workscapes through this research showed spatial idleness, publicness, and accessibility preconditioned the free, non-market mediated accessibility in hotels' commercial settings, such conditions may also apply. Thus, governments and organisations may reconsider their policy on sustainable space provisioning and efficiency by accessing the spatial idling capacities within their real estate. Opportunities to offer portions of their existing spaces with non-market mediation space-use policy may result in beneficial outputs presented through this research project.

Questions that may arise of who pays for these opportunity spaces were addressed in the preceding chapters and support the overall benefits that may accrue to society. Successfully deploying these policies may direct attention to generating social value through placemaking and space provision for displaced workers. Along with these social values are economic value propositions that support workers' earning capacities and improve governments' tax position.

With idling public spaces requiring maintenance obligations, such as heating and ventilation, filling such spaces constitutes less, or no additional, maintenance costs other than those outlined in previous chapters. Such policies will pay for themselves and present benefits to governments when beneficiaries are productive and pay taxes with sponsor organisations gaining from economic incentives and other additional benefits. Without reforming and restructuring institutional space utilisation, planning policies that incentivise improving idling,

underutilised spaces through their repurpose, society loses the associated benefits argued in this research. While these policy positions may pose challenges to directing organisations to engage, attached incentives may attract their engagement.

This social contribution as a CSR policy may also offer a measurable, meaningful, mutually beneficial social impact. Similar social value extractions that have economic benefits from this discoverable workscapes ideation may generate more avenues and opportunities in various research domains. Interpreted study findings highlight avenues for existing built environment stakeholders, like those in the heritage building space, to reconsider strict regulations that may limit these proposed opportunities spaces affordance for small companies, budding entrepreneurs and employable individuals to create value through work.

Maintaining and operating unoccupied, under-occupied and empty spaces like lobbies have an economic and environmental disincentive. As presented in this study, spatial idleness indicated that lobbies with low or no occupants waste operational energy with ongoing maintenance and operational processes deployed within empty spaces. However, this spatial state also highlights opportunities to reassign their idling capacity to other uses outside their primary function. With this basic understanding of why and how CIS workers repurposed lobbies into workplaces occasions formal assessments and evaluations of spatial idling capacities of service spaces.

Candidate spaces fulfilling the discoverability parameters of workscapes may suit the suggested 'opportunity spaces'. Opportunity spaces here lean into the social value efforts promoted through placemaking (McNamee, 2020, Great Britain. Department for Levelling Up, Housing & Communities, 2021) ideas and projects in the country. Avenues for deploying this suggestion borrow from the United States opportunity zones (White House Opportunity and Revitalization Council, 2019) project used to rejuvenate towns and cities by incentivising investors to sponsor such initiatives.

With U.K Government's recent focus and promotion on social value⁵ (Great Britain. Cabinet Office, 2021), perhaps deploying workscapes through policies recognising and supporting gig economy workers is a starting point. Incentivising organisations to participate in this social value effort through the publicness of their idling space may present an impetus for encouraging its widespread adoption. This idea promotes social value and supports gig work, given its proliferation as a preferred working practice. The question of who pays for these spaces highlighted in the previous chapter suggests a balance of benefits accrued to the demand and supply sides. It even argued that organisations might benefit more than this study speculated.

Discoverable workscapes were customised within existing built environments with no additional or minimum cost burden for their design and offerings, suggesting the formal promotion of such space consumption policies came at minimum cost to organisations. Reasoning that their sponsors encouraged these activities indicate incentives derived from the spatial publicness, and access may be substantial. Thus, planning policies encouraging extending space utilisation clauses in existing idling buildings at the local council level and perhaps national level may improve the economic position of workers outside the traditional workplace bracket in society.

What policymakers may require to encourage building owners and operators to create these 'opportunity spaces' is an injection of incentives. Serendipitous, organic and unforced offerings mediated by such an organisation's technology infrastructure to support mobile working capabilities are essential to their availability and success. Of note was the absence of signage promoting studied lobbies' publicness or workplace offerings. Technology mediated the access information available to their users, which was developed over time as people discovered the workscape potential of lobbies they visited. The possibility of this public workplace model is inherent in secondary functional workscapes

⁵ [SVUK-Position-Paper-Rolling-Back-on-Social-Value-Weightings-and-Ethics-in-Procurement.pdf](https://www.socialvalueuk.org/SVUK-Position-Paper-Rolling-Back-on-Social-Value-Weightings-and-Ethics-in-Procurement.pdf)
([socialvalueuk.org](https://www.socialvalueuk.org))

construct and the portioned nature of such environments that do not interfere with the primary business of their sponsor organisations.

In times of stark realisation that opportunities to transform unused buildings and land into new environments in most Western organisations are limited, it demands new, unconventional and evidence-supporting thinking of untapped possibilities. Land is scarce, opportunities afforded by the railway arches have diminished, the population is increasing, and people are living and working longer and differently; as such, the demand for liveable and viable workspaces requires innovative ways to utilise what exists. Adding the rising consequences of climate change causing the need to decarbonise the built environment induces reflections and rethinking how existing built environments are efficiently utilised and better deployed. This research suggested the need for extending existing built spaces into opportunity spaces offers a simple and effective response to catering to a growing flexible CIS workforce in a twenty-first-century workplace context, beginning to access.

10.1.7 Managerial implications for discoverable workscapes

The uniqueness of discoverable workscapes is embedded in its organic discovery that access unlocks to trigger user agency in interpreting and qualifying spaces as suited to their workplace needs. Packaged with the proposed framework are challenging practice-based implications associated with its application within built environment practice. First, discoverable workscapes as a non-manufactured outcome of permitted public spatial access into supported facilities rely on attracted user groups to re-contextualise the idling spatial offering.

Suppliers are outside this decision boundary. Its organic nature may present challenges in realising the outputs presented in this research project if approached synthetically. In the latter case, efforts to produce a workscape may yield limited impacts, prove inefficacious, and attract a different user group. Jane Jacobs' warning comes to mind (Jacobs, 1961:221). Perhaps this may mean discoverable workscapes assumes different complexions and manifestations, but this may mimic the coworking initiatives created explicitly for work. Thus, built environment

stakeholders, such as building and facility managers, commissioning refurbishment projects and retrofits may seize opportunities to reassign publicness as a parameter for revitalising identified 'dead zones and spaces' in easy-to-access locations and appropriate place geographies.

By understanding that twenty-first-century work is spatially fluid means people now work anywhere, new and existing places and spaces can repurpose and redeploy their idle spatial resources to support flexible work. Creative work has given their rise and economic import. Workplaces are fixed, and their lacking portability somewhat limits today's work demand. As technology is becoming more ubiquitous, so are work practices shifting to being more agile and mobile. By implication, a rising need for spatial provisioning taps into this demand, as seen in the propositional discoverable workscapes. Such a demand calls for a proportionate response from the built environment for exploring extant places and spaces to absorb this need without jeopardising ongoing momentum for realising sustainability goals. In response, this study proposes encouraging opportunity spaces as public goods.

This study supported the idea of a different model of managing and maintaining existing spatial resources by redirecting their offerings to support creative and technology-intensive work. It departs from a dinosaurian single-use building facility model that lacks the creativity to engage an increasing rank of a user group in the CIS economy discovering workscapes. Old spatial models seem deficient in value extraction and creation capacities for this creative economy due to situated constructs rooted in traditional strictures of commercially designed offerings.

How do corporates manifest these space use types? Study indicated that organisations like Google, Nike and Pinterest allow public access to portions of their real estate. Study suggested that talent attraction of locales implied outworkings of discoverable workscapes have a positive human resource (HR) impact when deployed. Future research into capacity development, talent attraction and social value extraction within organisations promoting discoverable

workscapes may reveal spatial leveraging yet uncovered. Discoverable workscapes, in this sense, may afford underrepresented but talented individuals access to previously exclusive environments, presenting opportunities for them to contribute meaningful work, resulting in social and economic benefits.

10.1.8 Research implications for other discoverable workscapes

The proposed workscapes framework opens vistas of applications in various research domains. In the similar narratives associated with previous sections, the discoverable workscapes framework requires further refining and/or extension, empirical testing, continuous development and applicability in various places and spaces, development into socio-economic KPIs, spatial management research, and initiating new spatial idling capacity evaluation research. Outside the built environment lies vast opportunities to explore the psychology behind discoverable workscapes, such as its impact on marketing intentions, customer satisfaction and reciprocity and altruism.

Other research in sociology may isolate each workscapes factor to undertake in-depth analytical studies on each access dimension to improve the empirical knowledge of each in their application to discoverable workscapes. Seeking to develop weightings to each element for determining critical access and consumption determinant of different workscapes may help focus appropriate policies and community engagement strategies. Organisational behaviour and human resource management outcomes of testing workscapes in existing organisations' idle and underused spaces may also produce measurable outputs that promote its benefits to organisations and the public.

Further research is necessary to develop the supply side of discoverable workscapes by examining the sponsor organisations' access policy positions, their employees' reaction to such policies and their input into the discovery process. This knowledge may provide further evidence of claims made in this thesis about the power shift towards users during the discovery process. Relationship dynamics and implications of discoverable workscapes may also

reveal effective approaches for promoting the proposed 'opportunity spaces' initiative and additional socio-economic benefits such spatial offerings afford.

Economists may seek to develop spatial value extraction and creation theories within service and commercial environments manifesting comparable discoveries, starting with hotel environments, to quantify or evaluate the cost-benefit of their deployment and other associated benefits. Further sustainability-led research into gauging the overall social, economic and environmental value proposition discoverable workscapes offers may lead to more evidence of this study's claim.

Most important in the research implication is the application and use of the CGT methodological strategy in discovery research within the built environment domain. Much of past research designs are objectivist and promote fewer social approaches. However, the changing landscape of bricks and mortar used with the proliferation of social media and mobile and digital technologies infiltrating working practices suggests an extension of research knowledge beyond traditional conventions.

Traditional methods must give space to innovative strategies that both straddle the technicalities of built space provision and the social nature of their access and consumption. Workplace geography is grappling with shifting work, worker and working practices outlined in this research with workers reframing where they adopt for work. More research in this interpretive spatial function may help built environment research better understand emerging workplace demands. CGT offers tools and strategies for discovering such demands and promotes new knowledge, models and theories yet discovered.

10.1.9 Discoverable workscapes promotes spatial circularity: repurposing idling, underutilised built environments into resource-efficient spaces

From a sustainability rationale, this study presents a case that argues that discoverable workscapes promotes greater spatial efficiencies of idling and underutilised operational built assets by deploying resource-efficient means to encourage spatial circularity. It further suggests that realising experiential workscapes is a better environmental outcome than their spatial idleness. The idea leans into the circularity conception of existing assets to limit the environmental impact of producing new ones.

Chan, Okumus, & Chan (2017) highlight how hotels' total operating costs are energy-related, with nearly 75% attributed to space heating. Research like Said et al. (2017), the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) project (Stauffer, 2013), and the United Nations 2021 Global Report for Buildings and Construction (UN Environment Programme, 2021) all raise the need to leverage behaviours in buildings' operational lifecycle for achieving sustainability goals.

Attending to opportunities this study findings present to focus on reducing wasting operational energy and spatial resources in commercial entities like lobbies by improving spatial value, utilisation, and efficiencies can yield positive outcomes. Starting with the knowledge of the public consumption of lobbies for work, leveraging portable working practices through the positive application of this discovery may produce a compounding effect, such as reducing residential energy consumption.

To clarify this circularity position, consider what workscapes represents: discovering, repurposing and adopting idling servicescapes into workplaces. Although Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012) theory shapes its access construct, it reasons with Botsman and Rogers' (2011) CC definition that the demand-supply dynamism of study outcomes promotes greater spatial efficiency, user empowerment and better spatial access. According to them, these three outcomes

are implications of CC practices. While previous arguments highlight how hotels offer better spatial access to CIS workers in their lobby servicescapes in ways that empower them, the efficiency case is less clear.

Study argues that studied servicescapes are operational whether or not hotels permit access. However, repurposing their primary commercial function (Tallack, 1998) into the temporal utility in this study connotes the spatial circularity concept familiar to sustainability discourse (Wuyts and Marjanović, 20s22; Dişli and Ankaralıgil, 2023). Hotel operator study informants' narrative does indicate recognition of low utilisation periods during the peak working periods creates opportunities for non-lodging public users to access lobbies. Findings also show users' awareness of the negative impact public perception has about empty and unoccupied lobby servicescapes. Regardless of the hotels' intention or users' interpretation, the argument here is that accommodating the working public into maintained environments (e.g., heating, cleaning) costs less but improves spatial efficiencies and utility, along with the associated socio-economic benefits the outline of the previous section.

The AbCC value extraction construct identifies with Felson and Spaeth's (1978) and Botsman and Rogers' (2010) argument on consumption modalities people or organisations deploy to access and consume idling, underutilised assets. However, while these modes often retain the idle assets' primary function, this study presents differently. For instance, cars function as transportation devices retain their function in the commercial context of Uber or ZipCar (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012; Perren and Grauerholz, 2015; Benoit *et al.*, 2017; Catulli, Cook and Potter, 2017; Kreiczer-Levy, 2017).

The same idea applies to home-sharing that Airbnb (Botsman, 2012; Toni, Renzi and Mattia, 2016; Catulli, Cook and Potter, 2017; Cook, 2020) offers. Workscapes convey a conceptual spatial utility different to hotels' initial purpose for their lobbies (Tallack, 1998; Kazmi, 2012; Thapa, 2007). Discoverable

workscapes is a workplace environment temporally filling an idleness gap in hotels' real estate entity.

These functional vacillations in spatial utility are unusual in alternative workplace studies and highlight unconventional approaches to exploring alternative methods to make existing buildings more resource efficient. It does not discount the critical work of improving building codes through retrofitting and refurbishment. Instead, it complements these efforts to address practical operational challenges associated with heating empty or idling building spaces. Extrapolating the knowledge output from this study's findings into the sustainability discourse applies behavioural strategies to support decarbonisation efforts. They offer new lenses for exploring spatial efficiency possibilities in idling and underutilised built environments, beginning with access.

10.1.9.1 Summary

Overall, discovering modern workers adopt lobby servicescapes as workplaces through a non-market mediated AbCC value extraction process to meet the socio-economic demands associated with flexible, portable, and entrepreneurial CIS work in this study indicates modern consumption practices are influencing twenty-first century working practices. Departing from spatially fixed workplace locations to agile workplaces based on individually assigned environments that peripatetic CIS workers qualify as suited and sympathetic to their lifestyle preferences identifies with consumption practices outside the built environment domain.

Study findings align with the CC theory (Felson and Spaeth, 1978; Botsman and Rogers, 2011) to reflect these working practices. Narrower conceptions by Rifkin (2000), Chen (2009), Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), and Belk (2010, 2013, 2014) sharpen this CC conception by locating spatial access as the construct and basis for modern consumption practices in studied lobbies. Both theoretical positions suggest that value extraction in lobby servicescapes occurs without the burden of ownership or rent obligations. However, within its access-based collaborative

consumption (AbCC) conception are non-market mediation expectations that contrast these theories' commercial leaning.

The study outcomes suggests there are benefits to taking advantage of existing behaviours and attitudes to built assets to sustainably operationalise their use. Attracting workers into an idling, underused operational space makes operational resource efficiency sense, with benefits to the users and operators. Socioeconomics of such responses limits energy wastes with spatial repurposing by reducing energy demand in other environments, such as teleworkers' homes and commuting facilities as workers exploit technology within the regional radius of residence.

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Appendices

- A. WRF 2019, Submitted Paper version of published conference proceedings available online
- B. Submitted Conference Paper

WORLD RESOURCES FORUM 2019

(Making Natural Resource Governance Fit for the 21st Century)

Hotel lobbies as Workspaces for the Modern Worker

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Abstract

The changing nature of work, afforded by ubiquitous technologies, is influencing modern workplace choices and transforming spaces. Hotel lobbies in London are transforming into work environments, joining a growing number of web listings that account for workspaces in the United Kingdom (UK). Extending the use of lobbies to the public as workspaces suggest a re-conceptualisation of privately-owned built spaces, challenging existing space-use norms. Currently trending use of hotel lobbies confounds conventional wisdom of their original function as waiting areas for lodging hotel guests. Given the use of lobbies for work is a growing phenomenon in London, the underlying motivations are empirically unclear. As such, this study raises an enquiry into the publicness of these privately-owned spaces. It investigates why the public is drawn to these spaces and why adopt them for work? What attributes and characterisations of these spaces qualify them as workspaces and are they attracting specific work and worker-typologies?

In an investigative study, through a case pilot, this paper examines how hotel lobbies meet the needs of modern workers. It reports on initial findings that suggest the need for workspace re-conceptualisation by both the built environment actors and their stakeholders. Associated affordances of mobile and digital technologies, such as a rise in knowledge-based creative work, suggests increasing shifts in modern workers' spatial needs are unmet by traditional offerings.

The study speculates that increasing digitisation of modern work and changing worker demography contribute to shifting workplace preferences; demanding spatial attributes that both inspires creativity and enables mobile working capabilities. Knowledge gained through this study has a three-fold implication for the built environment:

- 1) incremental innovations in hotel lobby space models;
- 2) re-conceptualisation of existing normative workplace designs; and
- 3) repurposing redundant, underused and obsolete spaces into functional and creative spaces. By these, the built environment contribute to sustainability goals while supporting economic activities associated with modern work.

Keywords: workplace, workspace, buildings, spaces, technology, sustainability, hotel lobbies

1.0 Research Motivation

*'Building a greener and more sustainable economy means changes to how we consume and how we produce. This particularly affects businesses, who increasingly realise they will benefit from... increased resource efficiency'.
(UNEP, 2018)*

Heightening climate emergency has led to a spate of efforts towards achieving a sustainable future globally. Such efforts are demonstrable in the United Kingdom's (UK) renewed net-zero emissions target by 2050 and the United Nations' (UN) roadmap for a sustainable future by 2030. Much of these audacious goals call for non-traditional strategies

that employ innovative approaches from all actors, especially the built sector. This sector contributes 39% of the total global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, in which operational carbon accounts for 28%. By implication, it must seek strategic measures to reduce emissions generation by leveraging existing built assets through a resource efficiency lens.

UK's revised 2013 emissions reduction target highlights the need to do more. With many research efforts invested in lowering the sector's GHG contribution, what other less explored areas can contribute at scale? Concentrating more research efforts on existing non-domestic buildings that account for 80% of the total stock presents scope for effecting real change. As such, this study provokes new and unconventional thinking within the realm of the existing building stock in ways that look beyond construction-based interventions (Langston *et al.*, 2008; Ren, Shih and Mckercher, 2014; Aigwi, Egbelakin and Ingham, 2018; Sanchez and Haas, 2018; Esther *et al.*, 2019). It examines the transformational adoption of hotel lobbies as workspaces as an emerging alternative workspace genre. It poses a propositional construct that existing spatial resource possesses untapped value. Especially in cases of underused or idle spaces, sector actors can deploy new value creation and extraction mechanisms that prolong their operational life⁶ and improve utility. This approach eliminates the need for building new or adopting construction-led interventions.

Therefore, as part of a larger doctoral project, this paper initiates a unique insight within the sustainability discourse of how shifting work practices influenced by technology ubiquity can unlock the intrinsic value of underused and idle built assets as modern workspaces. It starts with an empirical understanding of how hotels are becoming modern work environments.

2.0 Research Background

'Resource-efficient cities combine greater productivity and innovation with lower costs and reduced environmental impacts while providing increased opportunities for consumer choices and sustainable lifestyles'⁷ (UNEP, 2018)'.

A variety of built spaces within cities are transforming into socially constructed work milieus (Olga, 2009) to fulfil growing demands for alternative workspaces unmet by traditional offerings. Major cities like London exemplify this phenomenon, as seen in the recent transformation of hotel lobbies into workspaces. They join a growing database of web listings that account for places and spaces to work. Extending lobby access to non-lodging members of the public is symptomatic of changing attitudes towards asset ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881) and the publicness of privately built assets (De Magalhães and Trigo, 2016:5). However, the adoption of lobbies for work confounds conventional wisdom of their traditional use and function as waiting areas for lodging hotel guests (Tallack, 1998) and challenges existing space-use norms (UK, 1987). Current academic studies like Humphry (2009) often cite lobbies as workspaces for business travellers and lodging guests. Their use as publicly accessible workspaces is uncharted in current academic studies, although some focus on their designs within the biophilic (Abreu, 2015),

atmospheric elements or servicescape (Countryman and Jang, 2006; Naqshbandi and Munir, 2011; Avan et al., 2019), and green-ness (Verma and Chandra, 2016) domains. Existing claims of lobbies as public workspaces are online descriptors publicised in commercially-led articles, lacking empirical justification. Associated characterisations of why they draw public attention as workspaces remain unclear. Presently, this publicness and use of hotel lobbies as workspaces is missing in academic literature and presents a gap in current knowledge. Without an empirical understanding of this phenomenon, researchers cannot fully explore associated implications.

Transformational changes of lobbies for social, communal and work functions are widely covered in practice-based literature. These literature acknowledge that lobbies are underutilised (Schalk, 2017) and how technology interventions can improve their use (Bair and Wright, 2013). They claim hoteliers are exploiting their real estate by extracting new value from their lobby servicescape (Bitner, 1992; Wheeler, 2009; Schalk, 2017), with spatial 'destination' offerings (Abreu, 2015) such as digital 'experiences' for guests (Cisco, 2018). These guests, according to Wheeler (2009), include both lodgers and members of the public, he refers to as 'local traffic' (Pg. 56). Today, the trending modernity of lobbies demonstrable in their portrayal as social milieu with technology tools (Kazmi, 2012; Mest, 2013; Fox, 2016; Schalk, 2017; Peterson, 2018) makes them relevant to the digital age. Some even claim that lobbies are now offices (Magnolfi, Lindsay and Waber, 2014) and would eventually become the future workplace (Simmons, 2016; Connors 2019) to cater for an emerging creative class (Florida, 2002; Fawaz, 2015). While such claims challenge the relevance of traditional workplaces in an increasingly digital age, their suitability for modern work remains unclear.

However, a vast majority of academic and practice-based literature share the United States (US) as their resident study catchment, with none offering an understanding of the public use hotel lobby with empiricism. Although a growing body of studies examining alternative workplace offerings is emerging, these mainly focus on the coworking spatial model. Literature citing of lobbies used for work often feature to underscore technology's influence within the workplace with none examining their validity as an emerging alternative to traditional offerings. Notably, these studies are often non-UK focussed. So, what is behind this phenomenon in the UK and its associated implications? Why is the public drawn to lobby spaces and adopting them for work (publicness)? What characterises these spaces as workspaces (design/servicescape) and what typologies of work and worker attract their patronage (user)?

In a pilot case study that forms part of an extensive doctoral research project, this study explores the concept of hotels as public workspaces. Due to lacking empiricism, it aims to gain a preliminary understanding of this phenomenon (Yin, 2009) and then develops associated characterisations for better knowledge development. The ensuing sections

present a concise pilot report and a propositional theoretical framework within a discourse that speculates on study implications and the need for future research work.

3.0 Pilot Case Study report

3.1. Method

Most workplace research (Ruostela et al., 2015) employ case study research methods and techniques to contribute to the current understanding of new phenomena (De Vaus, 2014). As Yin (2017) expressed, the relevance of case studies to research questions is to explicate some contemporary circumstances or social phenomenon. Therefore to understand the phenomenon of hotel lobby publicness and their use as workspaces, this study pilots hotel lobbies in London applying the case study method.

3.2. Site Selection Strategy

Fieldwork commenced in mid-summer to mid-autumn of 2018 by initially combining desktop feasibility study of online web listings and self-reported use of lobbies for work, academic citing (Thapa, 2007; Magnolfi, Lindsay and Waber, 2014; Martins, 2015) and practice-based (Goodman, 2011) literature. Google search query: 'hotel lobbies used for work in London', produced blog articles of hotel lobbies used or recommended as workspaces. Four hotel brands that recurred in the combined study (Fig 1) informed the pilot hotel lobby cases selected. During the study, the fourth hotel (circled in below) declined interview requests due to non-approval of the public use of their lobby. This outcome reduced the pilot case numbers to three lobbies of American-affiliated hotel chains.



Figure 1: Location of selected hotels lobbies used in London

3.3. Data Collection

Data collection protocol involved evidence-gathering from online archival records and documents reviews of selected lobbies, direct observation and unstructured interviews (Figure 2). Researcher participation in the public use of these lobbies enabled the collection of spatial attributes and activities in lobbies (Bitner, 1992;

Countryman and Jang, 2006; Naqshbandi and Munir, 2011) by observing behaviours (Lockwood and Pyun, 2019). Unstructured interview data collected with a recording device was transcribed and analysed with Nvivo software (QSR International Pty Ltd, 2015; Garrett, Spreitzer and Bacevice, 2017; Nelson, Jarrahi and Thomson, 2017).



Figure 2: Data collection protocol with intended data output – Adapted from Yin (2017)

3.4. Results and Initial Findings: Characterising hotel lobby working

Twenty lobby users (Table 1) and two hotel management staff accepted interview invitations, totalling twenty-two interview respondents. Each interview lasted an average of twenty-five minutes, and each lobby-user respondent averaged 31.4 years old. Sixty-five per cent (65%) were male and thirty-five per cent (35%) female. The Table 1 below shows a further breakdown of the interview respondents.

Table 1: Interview Respondents Data: Job Title, Employment Status and Gender Split by Age

Place	Job Title	Employment Status	Age Distribution By Gender		Age Total
Hotel	By Respondent's Self Description	By UK Classification	Male	Female	
Lobby_A	User Interface Designer	Self-Employed	25		25
	Creative Designer 1	Self-Employed	34		34
	Art Director	Self-Employed	33		33
	Digital Editor	Employee	43		43
	Head of Digital	Employee	38		38
	Creative Designer 2	Self-Employed	42		42
	Founder - Fashion Modelling Agency	Self-Employed		25	25
	Guitarist and Music Producer for MUNA	Self-Employed		26	26
	Software Developer	Employee	29		29
	Music Software Developer	Self-Employed	28		28
	Head of Coaches	Employee		30	30
Lobby_B	Property Entrepreneur	Director	34		34
	Art Director	Director		30	30
	Software Developer	Employee		26	26
	Financial Consultant	Employee		32	32
Lobby_C	Head of Storytelling - Writer	Self-Employed		30	30
	Digital Film Colourist	Self-Employed	25		25
	Head of Sales	Employee	30		30
	Marketing Consultant	Self-Employed	38		38
	Behavioural Economist Consultant	Self-Employed	30		30
Grand Average Total Age:			33.0	28.4	31.4

3.4.1. Characterising user, work and spatial attributes (observation analysis and interview data)

As shown above, most respondents were of a younger worker demography with work typology characterised as 'creative' (Florida, 2002, 2014). Further analysis of interview responses provide key themes and attributes of lobby users, their work and spatial features of the lobbies, summarised below:

Table 2: Characterising piloted hotel lobby users, their work and lobby spatial features in London

User (Characterising lobby user)	Work (Characterising work activities in lobbies)	Spatial (Characterising spatial activities in lobbies)
• Non-lodging • Member of the public • Regular user • Telecommuter – Home Worker	• Solitary • Independent • Administrative	• Accessible and open for public consumption • Socially themed and human element • Available for use during the day (8am – 5pm) • Nicer than cafés like Starbucks
• Creative professional • Super creative worker • Remote/Flexible/Mobile worker • Young (millennial) demography	• Design • Marketing • Consultancy	• Free admission • Free access to thick bandwidth of hotel Wi-Fi • Free access to electric power • Free access to clean toilet facilities
• Independent • Entrepreneurial • Start-up • Gig-economy	• Digital • Software development • Technology	• Café-styled with coffee shop, bar and restaurant • Mix of soft and hard furniture • Library-styled communal table • Arty

3.4.2. User Attributes: Creative Worker Typology

The corporate world is the opposite way of working, especially as creatives where you are in a cubicle, it's sweaty,... it's not meant for creative thinking and stimulating'
- Art Director

Interview participants were predominantly of a young worker demography (Nichols and Wright, 2018:156), who self-described as 'creatives' with an independent working style. More male users agreed to interview requests (65%), compared to female users (35%). Although sixty-five per cent were self-employed or directors and thirty-five per cent, employees (Fig 3), the latter category led teams in their organisations without the limitation of workplace spatial fix. By inference, all respondents benefitted from a degree of independence and liberty to determine their work geography.

In the context of work, Florida's (2002, 2014) study on the growing ranks of creative workers offers a classification framework. By applying this framework to respondents' job titles and work types, each interviewed lobby user matched either the super creative or creative professional creative typology. This classification substantiates their self-identification as 'creatives'.



Figure 3: Interview respondent employment status, their purpose of lobby and tools used on lobbies

While there is a lack of clarity in the relationship between creative workers and their choice of space, data suggests that technology tools play an essential role in promoting their capabilities to work in these lobbies. For instance, technologies such as hotel's WiFi network and users personal artefacts, like mobile phones, tablets and laptops, along with software apps (Fig 3) were crucial in achieving their objectives in the lobbies. Some further qualified their access to free hotel WiFi network as a determining factor of using the lobby for work:

'I use Trello, Slack, TeamWork... My office runs office365, so we use Sharepoint and OneDrive. I use Skype and Zoom... for calls. My laptop is important and the WiFi – I would not be here if there wasn't free WiFi' – Digital Editor

Again, Florida's (2002) early work on the emergence of creative work established strong correlations between the growing ranks of creative workers and technology.

3.4.3. Work Attributes: Knowledge-based Creative Work Forms

By implication, these lobby users engaged in varying expressions of creative work that relies on technological artefacts, such as digital editing and software development. On closer examination, these creative work forms highlight a relationship between Drucker's (1993) knowledge work and Florida's (2002) creative work theories. As Weisberg (2014) observed, knowledge provides the blocks upon which creativity builds upon, such that creative workers often require substantial domain-specific knowledge to produce creative work. Based on study data, respondents' work type (e.g. software developer) does suggest that prerequisite domain-specific knowledge predicates their creative expressions. However, to undertake such work using technology artefacts in a lobby differentiates these types of creative work forms from others like creative expressions like performance arts, singing. So, rather than attribute their work typology as 'creative', this study characterises respondents' work forms in lobbies as 'knowledge-based creative work'. Thus, distinguishing these creative work forms from others like, painting, acting and singing.

3.4.4. Spatial Attributes: Convenient Communal Creative Work Servicescape

'First, it is kind of convenient for me because it is close to my house. Secondly, there is a vibe here – there are many people here who have come to work...their presence encourages you to work...open plan office can be really noisy and distracting, but here, though it is open, you still have some sort of privacy...The people element is important because you can feed off other people's energy and get inspiration and motivation to work. Thirdly, it's kind of cool, like it's kind of trendy – I quite like it, and that helps. The whole context of the space enables me to do my work and all the factors within the space. There are networking opportunities, but it isn't forced like in the coworking spaces I have experienced, here nobody bothers me. Networking is something that should happen naturally. I have come here first to do my work, not to hang out with people.' – Software Developer

The response above encapsulates various ways by which respondents characterise the lobby spaces and their activities: spatial convenience (location and proximity) and spatial content (community and coolness). By observation, these lobbies are centrally located within towns or on the high streets. As a result, they are easy to locate and access. Apart from being full of people of the same ilk, their spatial content incorporate design layouts comprised of dark wood flooring, bare concrete and brick walls, chipboard ceilings, artwork displays, biophilia (Abreu, 2015). They combine this with a mix of soft and hard furnishing, mainly of inexpensive repurposed minimalistic items of sometimes reclaimed finishing and furniture such as used communal tables and seats (Wheeler, 2009; Dizik, 2012a; Mest, 2013; Fox, 2016). Figure 4 below exemplifies the servicescape one of the piloted lobbies with associated pictorial depictions of activities. Similar to the other piloted lobbies, Lobby A's long, sixteen-seat communal worktable made of cast iron, oak, and copper which overlooks a gallery of artwork served as a popular workstation for non-guests (Dizik, 2012). In the description of a respondent:

'I like working on this table, that's why I come early. It has accessible in-built electric charging points, which is important; because without it, it will be tricky to work here.'
– Software Developer

Further, these lobbies incorporate arty and café-styling designs within which they offer restaurant and bar services (Figure 4) to non-lodging guests (Dizik, 2012). They grant public users free access all lobby amenities including WiFi network, toilet facilities and electric power charging points. As such, these lobby milieus create and offer a home-working environment that supports capabilities to work mobile while promoting social interactions. Extant studies depict the totality of such spatial offerings as servicescapes (Bitner, 1992; Balakrishnan, 2017; Lockwood and Pyun, 2019).

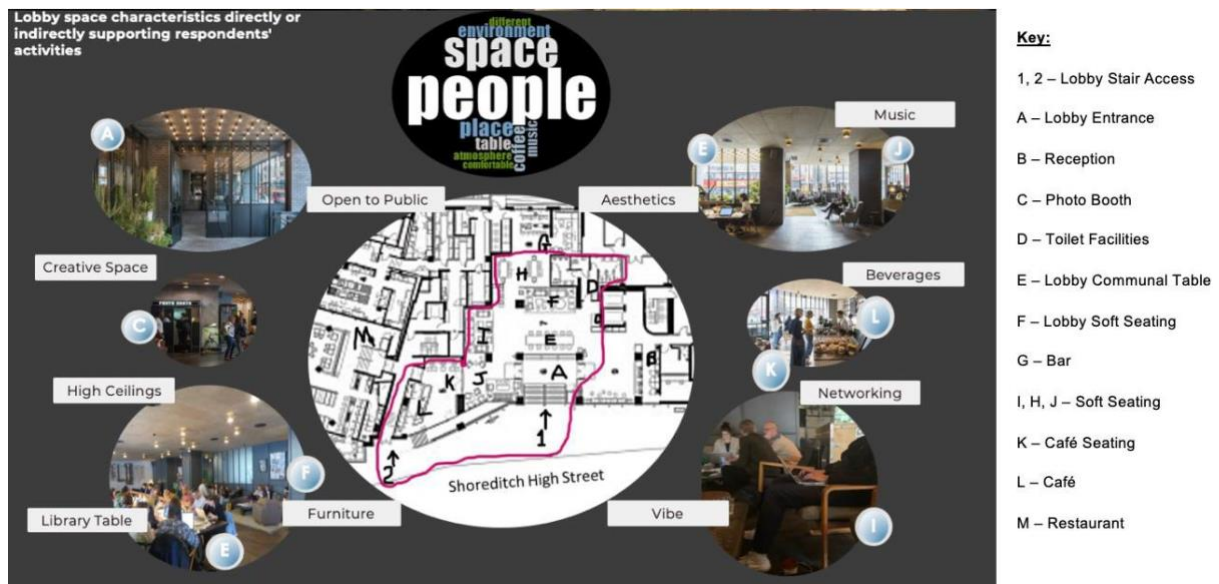


Figure 4: Pictorial depiction of hotel A lobby spatial attributes

In sum, the pilot hotel lobbies provide servicescapes offerings that extend beyond physical spatial provision. The content of these spaces, such as the 'people' they attract (Figure 4) is as relevant to their use by these creative workers. Therefore, place-based factors – spatial appeal (Mellander, Florida and Stolarick, 2011) and community-led factors – ability to meet people (Florida, Mellander and Stolarick, 2011) are vital attributes respondents used in characterising how lobbies supported their activities.

3.4.5. Publicness and use of hotel lobbies for work (observation analysis and interview data)

'Our policy is to open the lobby to the public as long as they can find a space to sit... Some people book the lobby ahead, but the left side is open to the public. You can see so many laptops everywhere.' – Hotel C Manager

Both interview respondents (Table 1) and hotel management (Quote above) corroborated the public use of piloted lobbies as workspaces. While twenty interviewed lobby users described themselves as members of the public, hotel management affirmed their interpretation of the publicness of their lobbies as workspaces aligned with their lobby-use policy. While, this may suggest the importance of hotel type and policy in promoting their publicness, Hotel D's response challenges this proposition. Declined interview request by Hotel D (Fig. 1) implies the non-applicability of policy and hotel type to public perceptions of hotel lobbies for work. Lobbies servicescape may indeed play a vital role in the non-verbal spatial cues interpreted as publicness. Hotel D's manager underscored this view when he revealed the existing conflict between public perception of their lobby as a workspace and their lobby-use policy. While he claimed this negatively impacted their business, positive views projected by online reviews (Simmons, 2016) and interview data suggests otherwise.

In summary, interview data support the publicness, and use of piloted hotel lobbies by a predominantly young, independent and knowledge-based creative workforce demography.

These class of modern workers actively seek publicly accessible milieus, like hotel lobbies, to perform their work and network. Their work typology is predominantly of a knowledge-based creative form, distinguished from other types of creative work, like singing, acting and performing. For such an environment to attract these class of workers, lobbies must offer servicescapes that are conducive for making social connections and free at the point of access with tools that support capabilities to work mobile. Bitner's work (1992) and recent research advancements on servicescape, support correlated relationships between spatial attributes and their use. The departure of these lobbies from the traditional grand entrance-hall design (McNeill, 2008) and styling, elicit behaviours (Bitner, 1992) that demonstrably attract a young workforce demography (Nichols and Wright, 2018). This finding requires further enquiry. With more clarity on the publicness of these hotel lobbies and their use as an alternative workspace, it is still unclear why some hotels encourage such behaviours, and others do not. While drawing more footfall into these idle lobbies may project an image of successful hotels (Dizik, 2012) and generate more revenue, this concept presents a proposition for examining spatial idleness or underutilisation of built spaces and how to their efficient use. So, what can the built sector learn from the maximisation of lobby use, and how can it apply this to existing underutilised or idle built assets? To understand this, we turn to collaborative consumption theories, that underpin improved use of existing, but underutilised assets or idling spaces.

4.0 Hotel lobbies

Studies have theorised the deployment of value extraction mechanisms from underused or idle assets. These reside in the collaborative consumption (CC) theoretical domain linked to Felson and Spaeth's (1978) initial work. Recent studies have advanced CC to perpetuate vectors through models across consumer (Botsman and R. Rogers, 2010; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012), business (Belk, 2014; Benoit et al., 2017; Akbar, 2019), cleaner production (Edbring et al., 2016; Toni et al., 2016; Catulli et al., 2017) and psychology (Lamberton, 2016; Laran, 2016) domains. They commonly explicate society's changing consumption practices by depicting how asset owners reimagine the utility of their underused and idle assets (UIA). By employing efficient means, like technology, asset owners convert these assets into useful forms (Botsman, 2012). Emerging business models within sectors such as transport – Uber, Zipcar and Blabla car, accommodation – Airbnb, and recently, commercial office – co-working space models; exemplify this phenomenon.

4.1. Growing consumption-based business models

Within these business models, ubiquitous technology plays a significant role in the efficient deployment of their value extraction mechanisms at a scale previously impossible before the internet. By this, they enable the consumption and transformation of underused and idle assets into useful forms and in some cases, making them liquid. Within the commercial sector, rising adoption of alternatives offerings to traditional workplaces suggests the value placed on these consumption forms. Of these, the popularity of co-working space models

have gained scholarly attention; with WeWork at its vanguard (Lercq-vandelannoitte and Isaac, 2016; Roberts, 2018). Co-working models are forms of collaborative workspaces that reflect growing spatial demands (Spinuzzi, 2012; Spinuzzi et al., 2019) unmet by traditional provisions (Merkel, 2015; Bouncken and Reuschl, 2018). Current literature now characterises (D'Ambrosi, 2018) co-working practice as a form of collaborative consumption. Similar to this trend, the transformation of hotel lobbies into work milieus positions them within the alternative workspace genre.

In contrast to the design intent of co-working, however, this alternative use of lobbies confounds the conventional wisdom of their function, design intent and use. Coworking spaces function as workspaces and marketed as such; hotel lobbies differ. Their spatial commodification distinguishes them from the initial ideation of lobbies as waiting areas, and the projection of hotels' image (Tallack, 1998; Thapa, 2007). Regardless of references made to the psychological need to purchase coffee when using piloted lobbies, respondents required no market-mediated prerequisites for access. As such, these free-to-access co-created spatial consumption forms differentiate lobbies within the alternative workspace genre. So what theoretical underpinnings of CC studies support this form of spatial consumption.

4.2. Extracting new value from underutilised and idle assets

Circumscribing pilot findings within CC theories, we turn to Botsman and Rogers (2010) and Bardhi and Eckhardt's (2012), who both supply language that articulates how changing consumption practices are replacing traditional modalities. As CC employs the agency of technology to reinvent traditional market behaviours, they connect 'haves' (idle hotel lobbies) and 'wants' (alternative workspaces) in ways that unlock the value of underused or idle assets to enable greater efficiency, empowerment and access (Botsman, 2012). Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) present this in a transactional type where asset owners grant public access to their underused/idle assets for an agreed consumption time, with or without marketmediation (pg. 881). By this construct, hotel operators are granting members of the public free access into their idle or underused lobbies, with technology tools and artefact serving as means of engagement. Through such transactions, hotel operators are converting the idling capacity of their lobbies into useful forms (workspaces) by exploiting changing societal demands (Toni et al., 2016) for alternative workspaces. Therefore, members of the public now access and acquire consumption time with spatial assets they previously could not afford or choose not to own (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012:881). They framed this transactional construct within the access-based consumption (AbC) models, in which no transfer of asset ownership occurs. Variations of access consumptionscapes are characterised by temporality, anonymity, market mediation, consumer involvement, type of accessed object, and political consumerism (p.884). Though how these apply to the spatial consumption of hotel lobbies need a further enquiry, pilot data suggests that technology

affords the co-creation of lobbies into workspaces through the exploitation of their idling capacity (Botsman, 2012).

Botsman (2012) characterises idling capacity in terms related to Brundtland's (1987) sustainability-led aspirations. Thus, idling capacity expressed as the untapped *social, economic, and environmental* value of underused or idle assets (Botsman, 2012), implies a relationship between CC forms and sustainable practices (Toni, Renzi and Mattia, 2016). Only a few extant studies make this connection. Toni, Renzi and Mattia (2016) equated them to resource-efficient usage of and access to scarce and underused assets (p.4467). However, missing in these studies is an explication of how CC-related practices result in efficient use of spatial resources, especially in improving the use of underused and idle built spaces, as seen in the piloted lobby case.

5.0 Study derivatives, implications, and proposal for future work

Motivated by the burden to reduce the GHG emissions contributions from the built sector, this study sought to explore avenues for extending the useful life of built spaces by extending their 'use' lifecycle phase. With eighty per cent (80%) of the UK's non-domestic buildings stock already existing, improving idling and underused portions of this stock presents opportunities to concentrate research efforts on how to make them more resource-efficient. Therefore, this study explored how current work patterns demonstrable in the flexible use of spaces can contribute at scale to ongoing sustainability debates by leveraging already existing built assets. To achieve this, it examined changing working practices reflected in the growing adoption of alternatives to traditional workspaces, within the traditional sector of hotels. As this is missing in current empirical studies, it piloted the transformational use of three hotel lobbies as workspaces in London, examining associated implications.

Pilot data revealed the publicness of these lobbies and their spatial consumption as public workspaces. Three main characteristics that appropriate them as such included their spatial layout and content (servicescape), user typology (young, independent creative workers) and the work types undertaken in these lobbies (knowledge-based creative work).

Consequently, study findings suggest that spatial fixity no longer characterises the workplace. It implied the need for workspace reconceptualisation by both all built environment actors, such as facility managers and operators. Associated affordances of technologies, demonstrable in the rise of knowledge-based creative work, indicates increasing shifts in modern workers' spatial needs unmet by traditional offerings. To further understand these findings, a conceptual leaning towards collaborative consumption (CC) theories offered language to understand hotel lobby as public workspaces better.

CC theories offer a theoretical construct for framing lobbies as an alternative workspace genre. Two primary studies (Botsman and Rogers, 2010b; Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) provide language that articulates the pilot findings and supports a resource-efficiency

construct for improving underused and idle assets. Hotel management, as representative of asset owners, grants members of the public free access and consumption time within their idle/underused lobbies, without direct market-mediation (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012). By connecting the demand for alternative workspaces to the supply of idle hotel lobbies, lobbies unlock their idling capacity (social, economic and environmental) (Botsman, 2012). This transaction between hotels and the public ideate co-creation of alternative workspaces that leads to more efficient use of spatial resources. Technology plays a critical role in this spatial resource improvement. Without the pervasive nature of mobile and digital technology networks and availability of artefacts, this mode of working will be impossible.

Therefore, this paper proposes an initial spatial resource-efficiency conceptual framework for underused and idle built assets. Asset owners can unlock the sustainable value of their idling assets by deploying already existing tools and assets by which modern workers access and co-create consumptionscapes suited to their workspace needs. By adopting the term 'hotel-lobby-working' to describe how hotel operators and modern workers co-create and improve the use of idle lobbies for workspace needs. This concept is a aligns with CC. The conceptual proposition is that the transformational conversion of idle lobby spaces into useful forms entails the deployment of resource-efficient value extraction mechanisms that improve its utility as a spatial resource. These include lobby spatial attributes depicted in Table 2 above.

If this proposition is accepted, then hotel lobby working inspires a sustainability enquiry within built environment studies, through the application of idling capacity concepts to all forms of existing, obsolete and underutilised built spaces. Reframing existing buildings as spatial resources possessing idling capacity provokes a debate that investigates their untapped social, economic and environmental (sustainability) value in ways previously unexplored.

To surmise, increasing digitisation of modern work and changing worker demography contribute to shifting workplace preferences. These shifts result in a migration that suggests there are spatial needs unmet by traditional offerings. Pilot data suggests that creative workers demand spatial attributes that both inspire creativity and supports mobile working capabilities relevant in this digital age. Knowledge gained in this study has a three-fold implication for the built environment:

1. incremental innovations within hotel lobby space models;
2. a re-conceptualisation of existing normative workplace designs that support mobile work;
3. a repurposing of redundant, underutilised, obsolete and idle spaces into functional and creative spaces in ways that contribute to sustainability goals while supporting economic activities associated with modern work.

Given the empirical validation of hotel lobbies as workspaces for creative workers, further enquiry is needed to develop and concretise this concept further. Exploring the sustainable value of using existing idling and underused spaces in the UK, especially London, necessitates a framework to guide theory and practice. CC theories expressed in access-based consumption models offer means towards developing such a theoretical framework.

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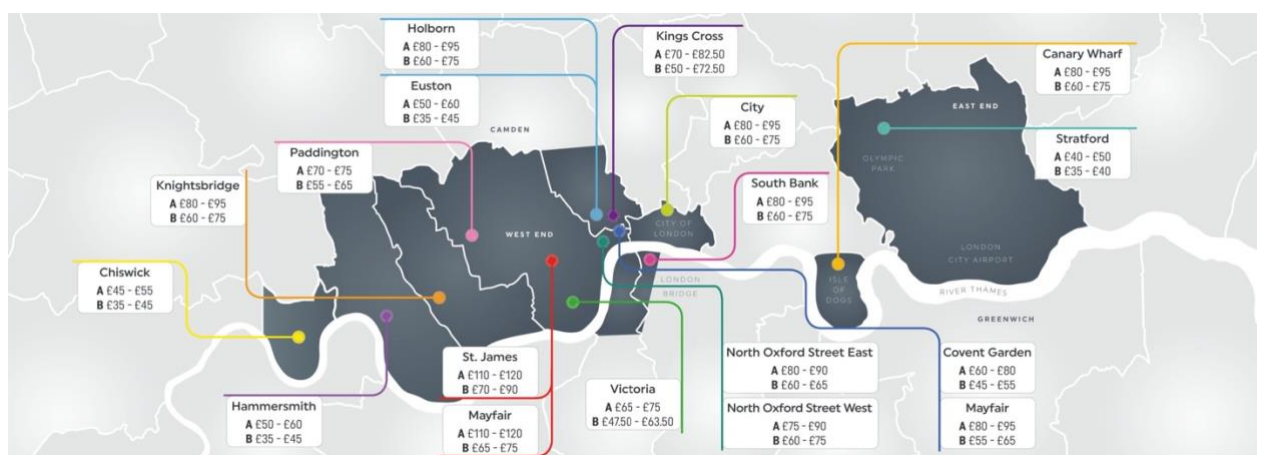
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C. Cost of Office Spaces (2019)



D. Occupation and Earning Capacity of Richard Florida's Creative Class (United States) (Florida, 2014)

Table 3.1 Average Annual Wages and Salaries for the Classes, 2010

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) Survey, 2010. Available online at <http://www.bls.gov/oes/>. Analysis by Kevin Stolarick.

Class/Occupation	Salary
<i>Creative Class</i>	\$70,714
Management	\$105,440
Legal	\$96,940
Computer and Mathematical	\$77,230
Architecture and Engineering	\$75,550
Health Care Practitioners and Technical	\$71,280
Business and Financial Operations	\$67,690
Life, Physical, and Social Science	\$66,390
Sales (high-end)	\$61,484
Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media	\$52,290
Education, Training, and Library	\$50,440
<i>Working Class</i>	\$36,991
<i>Service Class</i>	\$29,188
<i>Agriculture</i>	\$24,324
<i>All Occupations</i>	\$44,410

E. Proposed research questions and its structured development

Proposed Research Questions

Unit of Analysis: Hotel lobbies

Phenomena of Interest:

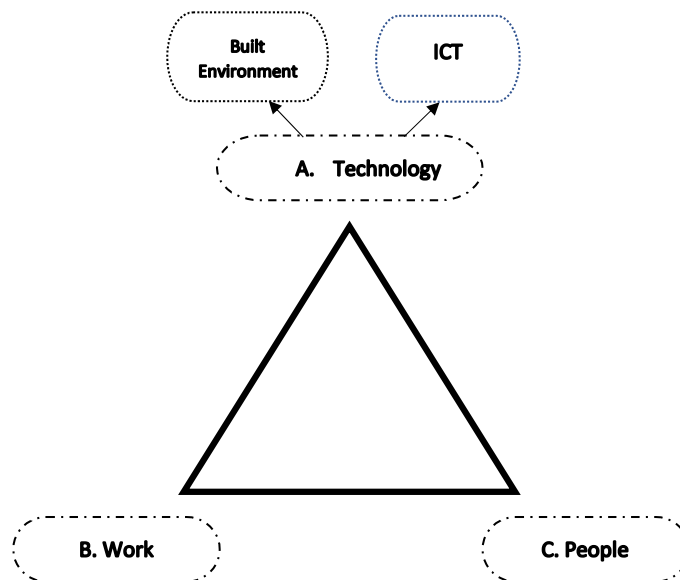
- ☐ Types of Lobby Users
- ☐ Types of Work being done in hotel lobbies; and
- ☐ Technology (Built environment and Information and Communication Technology (ICT)) features and tools that support work types.

Structured Questions*:

- Q1. Why are you here today? (People and Built Environment)
- Q2. Describe your typical workday (People and Work)
- Q3. Tell me about different types of technology tools like software apps, devices you use when in this place (ICT and Built Environment)
- Q4. How do you access the internet when you are here? (ICT)
- Q5. What is it about this space that makes it relevant to your being here today? (Built Environment)

Conceptual Framework:

The diagram below provides an conceptual framework of the phenomena of interest used in framing the proposed structured questions:



F. Interview data (Demographics)

1. Interview Data

Place	Gender	Age	Employment_Status	Employment_Status_Gov	Employment_Status	Employment_Category	Occupation/Class (Creative Secretariat)	Creative Class	Job Title	Citizenship
Hotel_1	Male	28	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	User Interface Designer	British
Hotel_1	Male	34	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Designer	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	33	Self-Employed	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Art Director	British
Hotel_1	Male	43	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Digital Editor	British
Hotel_1	Male	38	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Digital Editor	British
Hotel_1	Male	42	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Creative Designer	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	28	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	App Developer (Music Software)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Female	25	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Business Owner	British
Hotel_1	Male	22	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	MSc Student	British
Hotel_1	Male	29	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Lawyer and Property Designer	British
Hotel_1	Female	30	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Film Maker	British
Hotel_1	Male	52	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Designer	Non-British
Hotel_1	Female	27	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Founder of 'Divine Foods'	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	24	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Other	Other	Legal Recruiter	British
Hotel_1	Female	30	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Doctor and MSc Student (Studying Public Health)	British
Hotel_1	Female	27	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Freelance worker - Theatre Arts	British
Hotel_1	Male	25	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Finance-based Researcher (Chemical Engng Graduate turned Investment Banker)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	26	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Financial Manager (Covering Europe, Zambia, Panama and South America)	British
Hotel_1	Female	21	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student (Long dist. Learning at Deakin)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	45	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Web Developer (IT Contractor)	British
Hotel_1	Male	20	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Other	Other	Intern	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	22	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Other	Other	Staff	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	38	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Wine Maker (Founder of Renegade)	British
Hotel_1	Male	28	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Journalist	British
Hotel_1	Female	27	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Financial Analyst (manages investment)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Female	22	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	MSc Student in Global Politics (Studying for Exams in lobby)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	27	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Graphics and Website Designer	British
Hotel_1	Female	37	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Other	Other	Communications Personnel	British
Hotel_1	Male	31	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Other	Other	Communications, Marketing and Engagement (Cooms Team in Mental Health and Community Services NHS Trust)	British
Hotel_1	Male	25	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Business Consultant at IBM (Business Strategy and Operations)	British
Hotel_1	Male	40	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Consultant (research services start-up)	Non-British
Hotel_1	Male	25	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Consultant (brand valuation and sales)	British
Hotel_1	Male	26	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Film making	British
Hotel_1	Male	26	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Start-up	British
Hotel_1	Female	30	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Head of Coaches	British
Hotel_1	Female	26	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Guitarist and Music Producer (Founding Member of MUNA Pop-rock Band)	Non-British
Hotel_2	Male	34	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Property Manager	British
Hotel_2	Female	33	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Consultant (Transforming restaurants)	British
Hotel_2	Male	37	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Start-up (Upcycles Materials into furniture) with background in Advertising and Comms	Non-British
Hotel_2	Male	38	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Director	British
Hotel_2	Female	30	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Business Owner (Art Director)	British
Hotel_2	Female	23	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Software Developer at Capco Consulting	British
Hotel_2	Female	32	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Consultant at Capco Consulting	British
Hotel_2	Female	21	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	British
Hotel_2	Male	27	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Analyst at a Pharmaceutical Company	British
Hotel_2	Female	26	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Buyer (Salmadai in Berlin)	British
Hotel_2	Female	33	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Head of Brand Management in Hospitality Sector	British
Hotel_2	Male	51	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Entrepreneur (finance and investment)	Non-British
Hotel_2	Male	34	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Architect (Business Partnership)	Non-British
Hotel_2	Female	22	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	MSc Student / Event organiser	British
Hotel_2	Female	38	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Entrepreneur - start-up (new cosmetic line)	British
Hotel_2	Female	30	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Entrepreneur - start-up	British
Hotel_2	Male	51	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Founder of FourFront (design and build)	British
Hotel_2	Female	32	Business Owner	Director	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Other	Other	Yoga Teacher - Start-up	British
Hotel_2	Male	37	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Manager (Manages Models)	Non-British
Hotel_2	Female	61	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Other	Other	Social Worker	British
Hotel_2	Male	46	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Architect	British
Hotel_2	Male	28	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Competitive profiling analyst intern - start-up	British
Hotel_2	Male	42	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Management Consultant	British
Hotel_2	Female	24	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	Student	MSc. Exchange Student from Sweden	Non-British
Hotel_2	Male	33	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Financial Advisor	British
Hotel_2	Female	26	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Workplace Wellbeing Consultant at Making Moves	British
Hotel_2	Female	30	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	University Lecturer (Stafford House: Cambridge School of English)	British
Hotel_2	Female	24	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Service Design (User Experience)	British
Hotel_2	Male	36	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Head of Product	British
Hotel_2	Male	39	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Creative Director	British
Hotel_2	Female	50	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Consultant (Financial Advisor)	British
Hotel_2	Female	28	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Creative Professional	Creative	Lawyer	British
Hotel_2	Female	30	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Head of Storytelling - Writer	British
Hotel_2	Male	25	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Super Creative Core	Creative	Digital Colourist	British
Hotel_2	Male	30	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee	Super Creative Core	Creative	Head of Sales	British
Hotel_2	Male	38	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Marketing Consultant	British
Hotel_2	Male	30	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Self-Employed	Business Owner/Self-Employed	Creative Professional	Creative	Behavioural Economist - Consultant	British

G. United Kingdom's Standard Occupational Classification (SOC)

3. SOC 2010 Groupings

[Source: Office for National Statistics](#)

Skill Level	Sub-major groups of:	SOC 2010	Description
Level 4	11	Corporate managers and directors	Relates to what are termed 'professional' occupations and high level managerial positions in corporate enterprises or national/local government. Occupations at this level normally require a degree or equivalent period of relevant work experience
	21	Science, research, engineering and technology professionals	
	22	Health professionals	
	23	Teaching and educational professionals	
	24	Business, media and public service professionals	
Level 3	12	Other managers and proprietors	Applies to occupations that normally require a body of knowledge associated with a period of post-compulsory education but not normally to degree level. A number of technical occupations fall into this category, as do a variety of trades occupations and proprietors of small businesses. In the latter case, educational qualifications at sub-degree level or a lengthy period of vocational training may not be a necessary prerequisite for competent performance of tasks, but a significant period of work experience is typical
	31	Science, engineering and technology associate professionals	
	32	Health and social care associate professionals	
	33	Protective service occupations	
	34	Culture, media and sports occupations	
	35	Business and public service associate professionals	
	51	Skilled agricultural and related trades	
	52	Skilled metal, electrical and electronic trades	
	53	Skilled construction and building trades	
Level 2	54	Textiles, printing and other skilled trades	Covers a large group of occupations, all of which require the knowledge provided via a good general education as for occupations at the first skill level, but which typically have a longer period of work-related training or work experience. Occupations classified at this level include machine operation, driving, caring occupations, retailing, and clerical and secretarial occupations
	41	Administrative occupations	
	42	Secretarial and related occupations	
	61	Caring personal service occupations	
	62	Leisure, travel and related personal service occupations	
	71	Sales occupations	
	72	Customer service occupations	
Level 1	81	Process, plant and machine operatives	The first skill level equates with the competence associated with a general education, usually acquired by the time a person completes his/her compulsory education and signaled via a satisfactory set of school-leaving examination grades. Competent performance of jobs classified at this level will also involve knowledge of appropriate health and safety regulations and may require short periods of work-related training. Examples of occupations defined at this skill level within the SOC2010 include postal workers, hotel porters, cleaners and catering assistants
	82	Transport and mobile machine drivers and operatives	
	91	Elementary trades and related occupations	
	92	Elementary administration and service occupations	

H. Grouping Florida's (2014) Creative Secretariat with SOC Skill Levels

4. Creative Secretariat_w_Skill

Characterising the Creatives (Richard Florida)			
"The distinguishing characteristic of the creative class is that its members engage in work whose function is to 'create meaningful new forms'".			
The Creative Secretariat			
Classification	Characterisation	Occupation and Sector	Skill Level (Based on SOC 2010)
Super-Creative Core	Produce new forms or designs that are readily transferable and broadly useful, e.g. designing a product that is widely sold and used; theorems and strategies applicable in many cases or composing music that can be performed many times over.	Scientists	Level 3/4
		Engineers	Level 3/4
		University Professors	Level 4
		Poets	Level 3? Not Clear
		Novelists	Level 3? Not Clear
		Artists	Level 3? Not Clear
		Entertainers	Level 3? Not Clear
		Actors	Level 3? Not Clear
		Designers	Level 3/4
		Architects	Level 3/4
		Thought Leadership of Modern Society	Non-fiction Writers
			Level 3? Not Clear
			Editors
			Level 3/4
Creative Professionals	Work in a wide range of knowledge-intensive industries and engage in creative problem-solving, drawing on complex bodies of knowledge to solve specific problems. Usually with high degree of formal education (high level of human capital). They produce methods and products that turn out to be widely useful but not part of a 'job description'. Independent thinkers, exercise great deal of judgement, apply and combine standard approaches in unique ways to fit situation.	High-tech sector	Level 3/4
		Financial sector	Level 3/4
		Healthcare Professionals	Level 3/4
		Business Management	Level 3/4
		Technicians (apply complex bodies of knowledge to working with physical materials)	Level 3? Not Clear
			Level 3? Not Clear

I. United Kingdom's Main Employment Status

5. Employment Status

[Source: Gov.UK](#)

Main types of employment status in the UK	Description
Worker	Have a contract or other arrangement to do work or services personally for a reward (your contract doesn't have to be written); their reward is for money or a benefit in kind, for example the promise of a contract or future work; they only have a limited right to send someone else to do the work (subcontract); they have to turn up for work even if they don't want to; their employer has to have work for them to do as long as the contract or arrangement lasts; they aren't doing the work as part of their own limited company in an arrangement where the 'employer' is actually a customer or client
Employee	An employee is someone who works under an employment contract.
Self-Employed	A person is self-employed if they run their business for themselves and take responsibility for its success or failure. Self-employed workers aren't paid through PAYE, and they don't have the employment rights and responsibilities of employees.
Director	Company directors run limited companies on behalf of shareholders.
Office holder	A person who's been appointed to a position by a company or organisation but doesn't have a contract or receive regular payment may be an office holder.

Research_Data_Results_Analysis.xlsx

J. Analysing Florida's (2014) Creative Secretariat with SOC Classification

6. Compare SOC with Creative CI

Comparing Standard Occupation Classification (SOC) with Richard Florida's Creative Class				
Skill Level	Sub-major groups of:			
	SOC 2010	Creative Class/Occupation (Richard Florida)	Creative Secretariat (Richard Florida)	Difference between The Creative Secretariat and SOC
Level 4	11 Corporate managers and directors 21 Science, research, engineering and technology professionals 22 Health professionals 23 Teaching and educational professionals 24 Business, media and public service professionals	Management Legal Computer and Mathematical Architectural and Engineering Health Care Practitioners and Technical Business and Finance Operations Sales (High-End)	Engineers Scientists University Professors Architects Designers Thought Leadership of Modern Society High-tech Sector Finance Sector Business Management	The occupational categories Florida (2014) identified as belonging to the creative class were jobs in knowledge-intensive industries that involve the production of new ideas and products, or that engage in creative problem solving and fell under a number of categories, including design, entertainment, and media; computer and mathematical sciences; management; law, architecture and engineering; medicine; finance; life, physical, and social sciences; education; and the super creative occupations like university professors, thought leaders, actors, musicians, dancers, novelists, and poets.
Level 3	12 Other managers and proprietors 31 Science, engineering and technology associate professionals 32 Health and social care associate professionals 33 Protective service occupations 34 Culture, media and sports occupations 35 Business and public service associate professionals 51 Skilled agricultural and related trades 52 Skilled metal, electrical and electronic trades 53 Skilled construction and building trades 54 Textiles, printing and other skilled trades	Management Legal Computer and Mathematical Architectural and Engineering Health Care Practitioners and Technical Business and Finance Operations Life, Physical and Social Sciences Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports and Media Education, Training and Library	Engineers Scientists Architects Designers Poets Novelists Artists Entertainers Actors Thought Leadership of Modern Society High-tech Sector Finance Sector Business Management Technicians (apply complex bodies of knowledge to working with physical materials)	He argues that the normative measure of educational attainment was a broad, monolithic and not a very nuanced measure of human capital or skill. He asserts that identifying a person's level of talent with their level of education, that is, whether or not a college degree or above is earned, was 'elitist' and incomplete. First, it excluded creative individuals who hadn't earned college degrees, and second, it omitted a critical category of entrepreneurs who hadn't earned college degrees, like Steve Jobs and Bill Gates, and an even wider range of non-academically credentialed artists and musicians.
Level 2	41 Administrative occupations 42 Secretarial and related occupations 61 Caring personal service occupations 62 Leisure, travel and related personal service occupations 71 Sales occupations 72 Customer service occupations 81 Process, plant and machine operatives 82 Transport and mobile machine drivers and operatives			
Level 1	91 Elementary trades and related occupations 92 Elementary administration and service occupations			

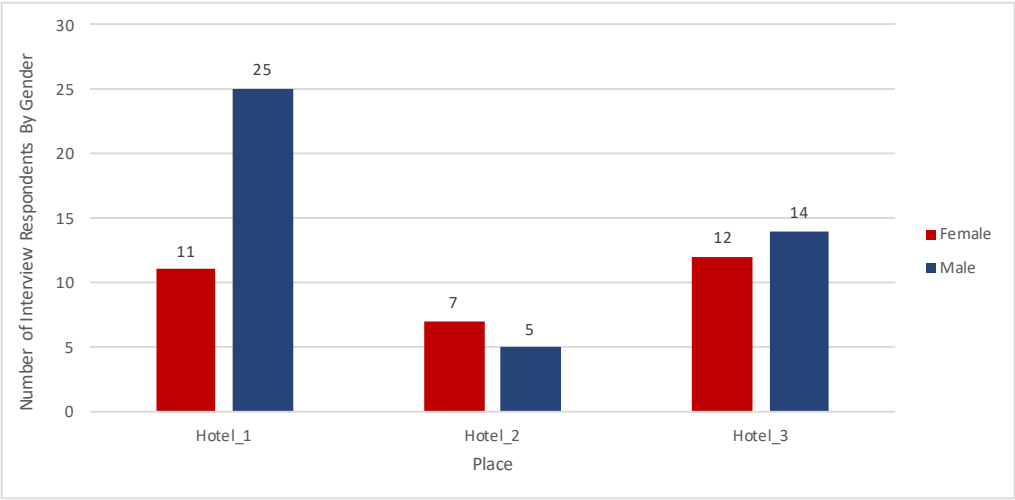
Florida, R., 2014. The creative class and economic development. *Economic development quarterly*, 28(3), pp.196-205.
Florida, R., 2014. *The rise of the creative class—revisited: Revised and expanded*. Basic Books (AZ).

K. Research Result and Analysis: Interview results

7. Interview_Results_01

Interview Data Summary: Age Distribution by Gender of Employment Category in Hotel Lobbies
(Place)

Count of Age	Column Labels		Grand Total
	Female	Male	
Row Labels			
Hotel_1	11	25	36
Hotel_2	7	5	12
Hotel_3	12	14	26
Grand Total	30	44	74



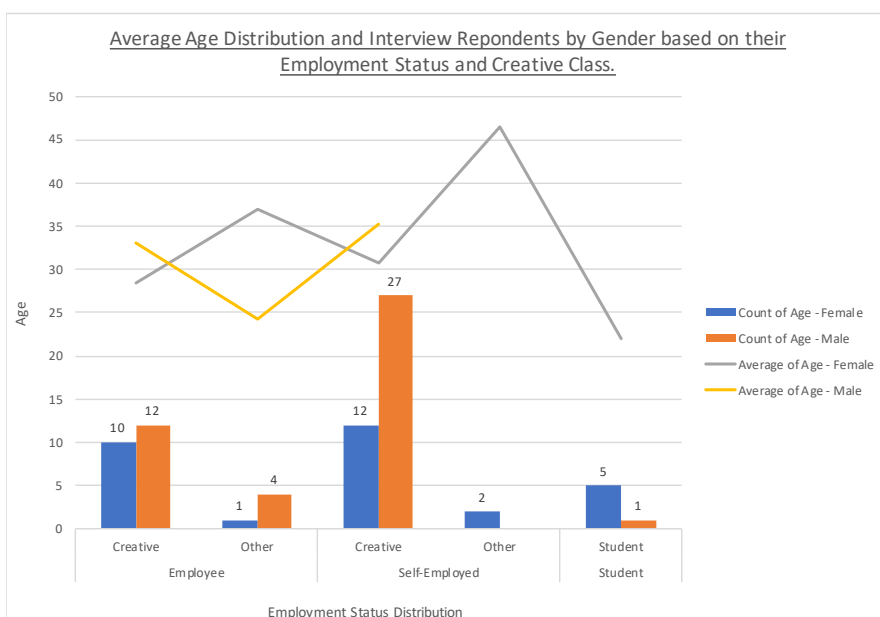
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L. Research Result and Analysis: Gender distribution

8. Interview_Results_02

Case study interview respondents summary report

Row Labels	Count of Age		Average of Age		Total Count of Age	Total Average of Age
	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Employee	11	16	29.3	30.9	27	30.2
Creative	10	12	28.5	33.1	22	31.0
Other	1	4	37.0	24.3	5	26.8
Self-Employed	14	27	33.1	35.2	41	34.5
Creative	12	27	30.8	35.2	39	33.9
Other	2		46.5		2	46.5
Student	5	1	22.0	22.0	6	22.0
Student	5	1	22.0	22.0	6	22.0
Grand Total	30	44	29.8	33.3	74	31.9



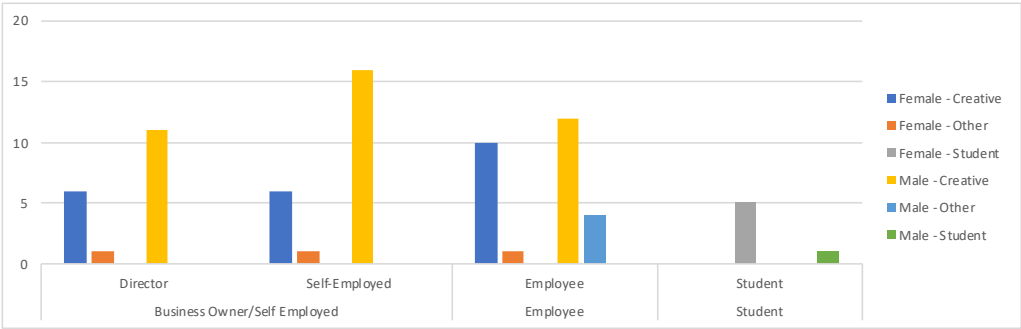
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M. Research Result and Analysis: Employment distribution across creative class and gender split

9. Interview_Results_03

Interview respondents gender distribution with chart

Count of Age	Column Labels							
Row Labels	Female			Female Total	Male			Male Total
	Creative	Other	Student		Creative	Other	Student	
Business Owner/Self Employed	12	2		14	27			27
Director	6	1		7	11			11
Self-Employed	6	1		7	16			16
Employee	10	1		11	12	4		16
Employee	10	1		11	12	4		16
Student			5	5			1	1
Student			5	5			1	1
Grand Total	22	3	5	30	39	4	1	44



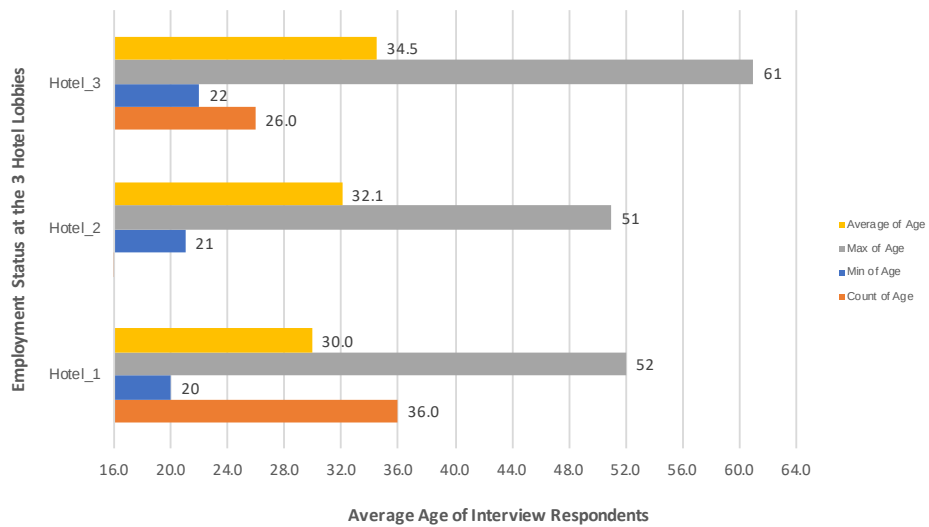
N. Research Result and Analysis: Age distribution per hotel

10. Interview_Results_04

Interview respondents age distribution report

Row Labels	Count of Age	Min of Age	Max of Age	Average of Age
Hotel_1	36.0	20	52	30.0
Hotel_2	12.0	21	51	32.1
Hotel_3	26.0	22	61	34.5
Grand Total	74.0	20	61	31.9

Average age of respondents by employment status in each hotel



Research_Data_Results_Analysis.xlsx

O. Compliance with UCL's Ethical Consent



THE BARTLETT SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENT, ENERGY AND RESOURCES

BSEER Research Ethics – Low Risk Application – Evaluation (v1.10)

Applicant UCL email address: dolapo.oluteye.12@ucl.ac.uk

Energy Institute / IEDE / ISH / ISR (Cross out as applicable)

Student Dola Oluteye

(If Student) Course: PhD

(If Student) Supervisor: Ben Croxford and Peter McLennan

(If Staff) Principal Investigator:

Title of Study: Workplace Suited to the Modern Workforce: A Case Study of Hotel lobbies

Date of Application: March 11th, 2019

	Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	N/A
STUDY DETAILS			
Sufficient study details provided to evaluate ethical implications		X	
Study does not seem to include sensitive topics (see High Risk checklist)		X	
Sufficient sampling details provided to evaluate ethical implications		X	
Sample does not seem to include vulnerable individuals (see High Risk checklist)		X	
CONSENT			
Information for participants covers necessary issues adequately (Researcher & says if student, Institution, funder, study title & purpose, how participant selected, what happens to participant, how long it will take, benefits, potential risks/harms, anonymity/confidentiality, voluntariness, right to withdraw, contact details)		X	
Information for participants is sufficiently concise		X	
Information for participants is written in an appropriate style (Study title and content appropriately phrased for participants, level of detail appropriate for participants)		X	
(Where participants known to researcher) appropriate procedures to ensure participants feel free to not participate & withdraw from the study			X
EVALUATION & MITIGATION OF HARM			
Risk of harm to participants seems to be minimal (see High Risk checklist)		X	
Recognises & addresses potential risks/harms to participants		X	
(Where risks to researcher beyond those experienced in daily life) has appropriate risk assessment been completed?			X
DATA PROTECTION & PRIVACY			
Correctly identifies whether/not personal data are being collected / used / processed (Definition of personal data is embedded in the low risk form Q42...check whole application to ensure applicant answered this Q correctly)		X	
Correctly identifies whether/not <i>sensitive</i> personal data are being collected / used / processed (Definition of sensitive personal data embedded in the low risk form Q43...check whole application to ensure applicant answered this Q correctly)		X	
(If personal data are being collected / used / processed) has registered study with UCL Data Protection Officer			X
(Where participants are known to researcher) appropriate procedures to protect participants' privacy (EG data collected &/or collection method)			X

Evaluation:

X Study is low risk and may commence.

☐ Study is low risk and may commence AFTER you obtain a UCL Data Protection number from UCL Legal – you are collecting personal data

☐ Study is low risk and may commence AFTER you meet the following conditions and demonstrate that to the evaluators:

☐ Study requires revised submission to BSEER Research Ethics Team. Data collection/processing cannot start until the research is evaluated as low risk.

☐ Study requires approval from UCL Research Ethics Committee prior to data collection/processing.

Name(s) of BSEER evaluator(s): Jonathon Taylor

P. Pilot Presentation Award at the United Nation's sponsored World Resources Forum, 2019



WORLD RESOURCES FORUM
 Geneva, 23-24 October 2019
 MAKING NATURAL RESOURCE GOVERNANCE FIT FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

BEST SCIENTIFIC PRESENTATION

Resource Efficiency - AWARD

Dola Oluteye



Christian Ludwig
Chair
Scientific Committee WRF

Sonia Valdivia
Vice-Chair
Scientific Committee WRF

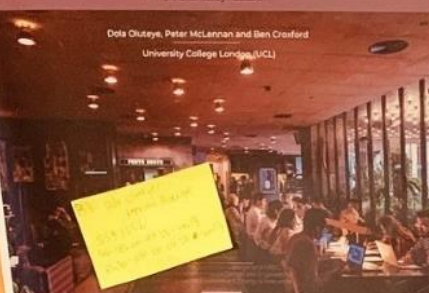
Bruno Oberle
President
WRF

Bas de Leeuw
Managing Director
WRF

Hotel Lobbies as Workspaces for the Modern Worker

Multiple Case Study Research

Dola Oluteye, Peter McLennan and Ben Crawford
University College London (UCL)



This research is a pilot study for a larger project on the use of hotel lobbies as workspaces for the modern worker.

Methods

THE GOAL OF RESEARCH IS THE USE OF METHODS AND TECHNIQUES TO ADVANCE OUR UNDERSTANDING OF A RESEARCH QUESTION (OR QUESTIONS)



Results

OVERVIEW OF CASES AND LOCATION IN LONDON



RESULTS

Introduction

MOTIVATION AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Net Zero Emissions

2050

Climate Resilience

UK's Building Stock

80%

Energy and Carbon Emissions

Product Based Consumption Model

3

Example: Goods



Methods

A CASE STUDY IS AN EMPIRICAL METHOD THAT INVESTIGATES A CONTEMPORARY PROBLEM IN THE 'CASE' IN DEPTH AND WITHIN ITS REAL-WORLD CONTEXT

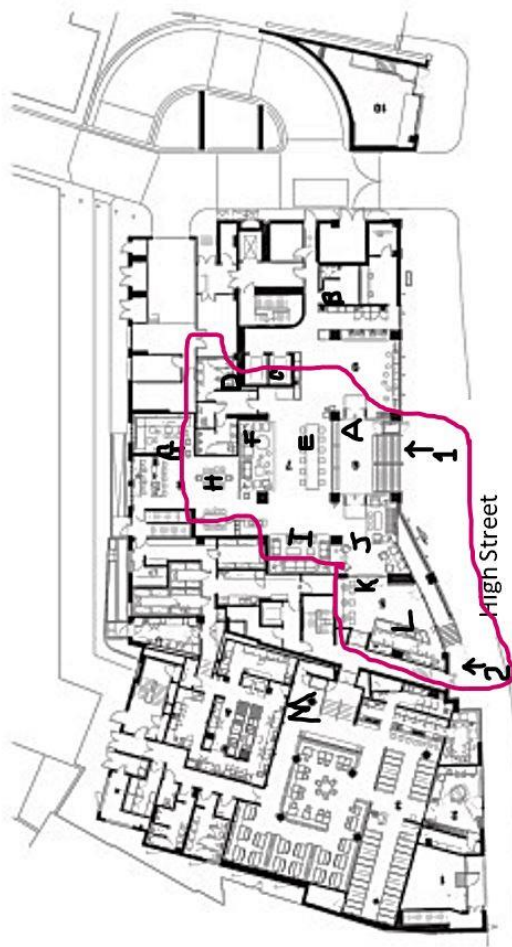
Results

USER ATTRIBUTES



RESULTS

Q. AHS Servicescapes Layout and Full Ground Floor Plan



1

A



B

E, F, I



B, C, E, F

E, J

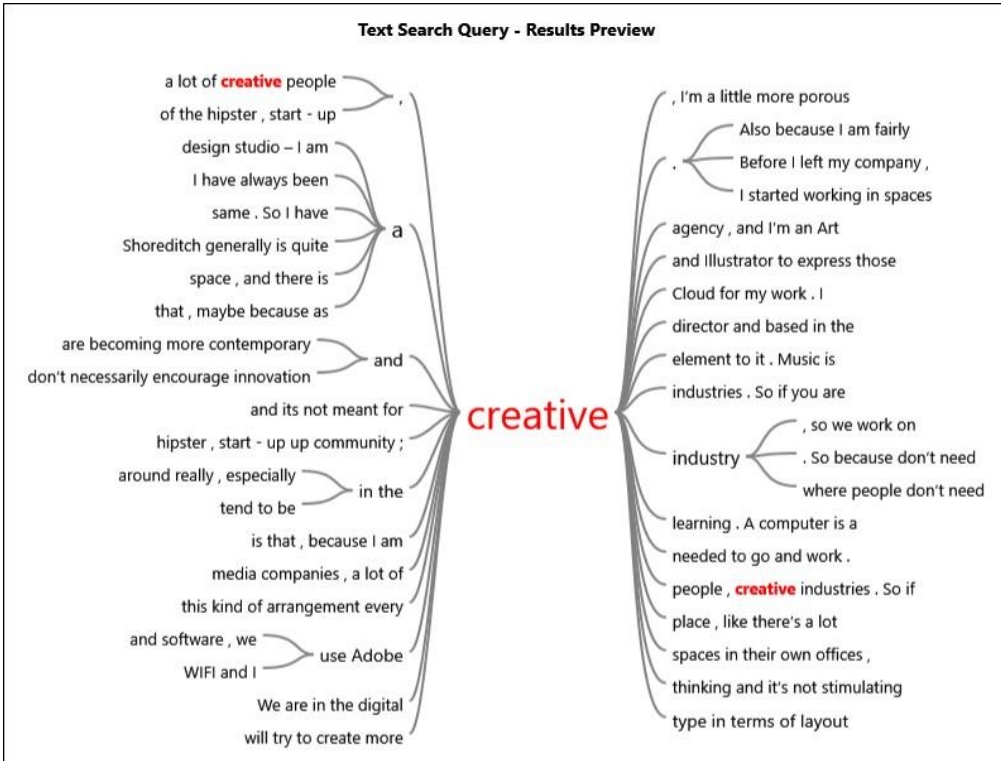


L, 2

Key:

- 1 – Lobby Stair Access
- A – Lobby Entrance
- B – Reception
- C – Photo Booth
- D – Toilet Facilities
- E – Lobby Communal Table
- F – Lobby Soft Seating
- G – Bar
- H – Soft Seating
- I – Lobby Soft Seating
- J – Lobby Soft Seating
- K – Café Seating
- L – Café
- M – Restaurant
- 2 – Lobby Stair Access

R. Further Analysis Using Nvivo Software: Frequently used term in word tree



S. Further Analysis: What do you use to support your activities



T. Further Analysis: Employment Type in Lobbies



U. Further Analysis: Spatial Attributes



V. Further Analysis: Work types



W. Initial Desktop Feasibility of Spaces Purported as ‘Places to Work’ in London

WorkspacesinLondon

Table 1: Developed on 08/02/2019

	Spaces	Name	Cost of Admission	Locations	Number in London
Name:					Count:
Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars					13
	Armoni Coffee	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Broadway Parade, Tottenham N8	10
	Japes	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Soho	20
	Pret A Manger	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Multiple	30
	Coffee Island	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	St Martin's Lane WC2H	40
	The Barbican Centre	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Silk Street EC2Y	50
	Lumberjack Cafe	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Camberwell Church Street, SE5	
	Coffee Plant	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Portobello Road, W11	
	Lido Cafe	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Shoreditch	
	Fix Coffee	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	161 Whitecross Road, Shoreditch EC1	
	Fix 126	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	126 Curtain Road, Shoreditch EC2	
	Blueprint	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Tower Bridge, SE1	
	Press Coffee	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Fleet Street, EC4 6 London Locations	
	Riding House Cafe	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	43-51 Great Titchfield Street, W1W	
	Bloomsbury Coffee House	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	20 Tavistock Place, WC1H	
	Tamp Coffee	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Chiswick, W4	
	Raw Press Chelsea	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Ellis Street, SW1X Kings Cross, N1C	
	Reddoor	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Greenwich, SE10	
	Department of Coffee	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	25 Centres with 4 launching soon	25
	Ezo Bistro	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Barking, IG11	
	Look Mum No Hands!	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Shoreditch Old Street	2
	Campus London (Google)	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Shoreditch EC2A	1
	Bean and Bread	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Junction Road, N19	
	Vagabond N7	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Holloway Road, N7	
	The CoffeeWorks Project	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Here East, E20	5
	Towpath Cafe	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	De Beavoir Cres, N1	1
	Rude Health Cafe	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Kings Road, Fulham, SW6	1
	Escape the daily grind	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Balham, SW12	1
	The Riding House	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Oxford Circus	1

Spaces for Work in London -Jbk

	Shoreditch Grind	Coffee Shops/Cafe/Bars	Free	Shoreditch, EC2A	
Coworking Spaces					6
	CoWork Hub	Coworking Spaces	Not Free	Notting Hill Gate, W11	1
	Hunter Collective***	Coworking Spaces	Free	Farringdon, EC1R	1
	ZiferBlat**	Coworking Spaces	5p/minute or £3/Hr	Old Street, Shoreditch EC1V	1
	St Pancras Renaissance Hotel Lobby Cafe	Coworking Spaces	Free	Euston Road, NW1	1
	DoubleTree by Hilton Hotel London	Coworking Spaces	Free	Pepys Street, EC3N	15
	Rocketspace	Coworking Spaces	Variable Membership Costs Applies	Islington High Street, N1	1
Restaurants					0
	Canova Hall	Restaurants	Free		
	Rivington Mix	Restaurants	Free		
	Japes	Restaurants	Free		
	Dishoom	Restaurants	Free		
	Iris & June	Restaurants	Free		
	London Grind	Restaurants	Free		
	F. Mondays	Restaurants	Free		
	Beauforth House	Restaurants	Free		
	Dean Street	Restaurants	Free		
	The Larder	Restaurants	Free		
	5th View	Restaurants	Free		
	Pearl hackney wick	Restaurants	Free		
	Bill's Putney	Restaurants	Free		
	Ginger and White	Restaurants	Free		
	Wringer and mangle london fields	Restaurants	Free		
	Antipode	Restaurants	Free		
	Hubbard and Bell	Restaurants	Free		
	Flat Planet	Restaurants	Free		
	Bean and Hop	Restaurants	Free		
	Charlotte's W5	Restaurants	Free		
Hotel Lobby Bars					2
	London Editions	Hotel Lobby Bars	Free		

	CitizenM	Hotel Lobby Bars	Free		
	Ace Hotel	Hotel Lobby Bars	Free	Shoreditch	1
	The Hoxton	Hotel Lobby Bars	Free	Shoreditch Holborn	2
		Hotel Lobby Bars	Free		
Social Spaces					0
	The Book Club	Social Spaces	Free	Shoreditch	
	Forge & Co	Social Spaces	Free		
	TY Seven Dials	Social Spaces	Free		
	Husk Coffee	Social Spaces	Free	Commercial Road, Limehouse E14	
Libraries/Halls					0
	National Art Library	Libraries/Halls	Free		
	BFI Reuben Library	Libraries/Halls	Free		
	Royal Festival Halls	Libraries/Halls	Free		
	Bethnal Green Library	Libraries/Halls	Free		
	Wellcome Collection*	Libraries/Halls	Free*		
	Westminster Reference Library	Libraries/Halls			
	British Library	Libraries/Halls			
	Open Workspaces	Libraries/Halls			
					0

* Membership cost of £90 for a dedicated workspace

** Membership costs is capped at £15/day and covers cup of tea, WiFi and Afternoon Nap

*** Coworking Space for Salons

X. Analysing what interview respondents use for supporting activities in studied lobbies and why?

What IPs use to support their activities	Why?
WIFI, Internet, Connection	<u>Free, Easy and Good Quality Internet Access:</u> ‘Cos it’s free, it’s free.’ ‘Cos it’s just reliable I guess’ The WIFI? ... I wouldn’t be here if there was no WIFI, yeah. free WIFI is a must ‘I think without the internet, it’d be pretty hard to do anything’ ‘...free to remotely access files on the Cloud’ ‘Free WIFI, otherwise I wouldn’t come’ ‘Because it allows you to work mobile’ ‘And yeah, general internet really for research – for my work. ‘...saves you from wasting your own data’ ‘I need the internet to do my job, I can’t do very much if I don’t have access to my emails or anything else’ ‘...that’s one of the big reasons I’m here, the WIFI’s good’ ‘The quality, yes it’s good’ ‘...because without it I wouldn’t be able to work’ ‘...allows me to work from wherever I am’ ‘Well, internet obviously the most important’ ‘...predominantly for emailing, uploading, downloading, design stuff, research, flights, staff management – everything’ ‘Well, I need to get onto my emails, I need to get onto some particular applications that are used for work, and I need to get onto LinkedIn. I need to do some research on the internet, and so it is essential – I can’t do without the internet’ ‘Everything is now digital, isn’t it? so it’s very easy for me to just carry around, and then because I’m on the WIFI you can download sort of a paper or something and work through that’ ‘So that we can log on to access our email and our work network, so we have to do that through the internet’ ‘My job involves like a lot of like secondary research, so I need like internet access to resources.’ ‘WIFI is for streaming ... so this presentation for example is streaming from the internet, so if I use my data, it’s actually quite expensive, but if I go on WIFI it’s free WIFI.
Laptop	<u>To Work:</u> ‘...to access hotel’s WIFI and to do my work’ ‘I can’t do my work without it’ ‘It has all my work on it’ ‘The work is done on my laptop’ ‘Cos, I work exclusively on my laptop’ ‘Because I work using my laptop’ ‘They’re the kind of tools of the creative trade really’ ‘My laptop is kind of the way I digitise’ ‘My work is all very laptop based’ just because all my work is done on my laptop pretty much.
Phone	<u>Make Calls:</u> ‘I need it for making client calls’

	'To connect with the outside world' 'I suppose that's just to hear from people' I need my Mobile phone to make calls
Work	<u>Key Activity:</u> Work is the unifying word for all the references made to why IPs use all referenced elements. 'Because that's just the modern world of work' 'WIFI here? – it's become synonymous with work'.
People, Social	<u>To overcome isolation and loneliness:</u> but I see people doing like coding and all this like complex stuff, I feel like it's probably quite fast. To with connect with people
Space, Places, Hotel	<u>Free mobile working offerings:</u> 'a place where I feel like I can stay without pressure of needing to leave quickly' 'We use the hotel's WIFI, just to stay connected, to be able to do your emails and send and receive documents etc' '...but most internet connections are pretty decent now when you go to a hotel lobby' 'I come here to save my money – free WIFI, free space to work' 'So, I need a place with WIFI' 'This place gives infrastructure, like WIFI and the socket – that's all you need' 'A little kind of office away from your house' 'It's just a really good kind of neutral space that you can actually get some work done without being too distracted' 'I can easily stay in a place like this for like 7 hours and just like get work done' 'So, a lot of these places, they want you to work here because actually people are buying...' 'Also say the resource in this space, this hotel lobby, cos it's what provides me to be able to work from wherever I want to work from' 'Because gone are the days where you are hard wired or you need to be fixed to that space' 'Some places it's a pain to log onto their WIFI, you need like a code – this is very straightforward'. '... it's the convenience of everything that I would have at home ... or an office environment; it's difficult to find places that have the free WIFI plus outlets, with spaces' 'Because if I need to meet someone, this place is a professional enough environment...a step up from a coffee shop' Affordability - because they are generally free; Utility - because I can communicate with anyone like send photos, files and voice recordings and conferencing up to four people; and Serviceability - that is, the service suppliers handle technology-related problems I may have, they provide the IT support, this allows me to concentrate on my business goals.
Coffee	<u>Work Compliment:</u> 'Puts me in the zone to start work in' 'Beverages are quite nice' 'Their coffee is really good' 'To keep awake'

Free	<u>Free Lobby Amenities and Infrastructure:</u> 'Here's good because it's got free WIFI' 'Free internet here is like perfect' 'Free space' 'Free nice space' 'Obviously the free internet here is like perfect'
Software	<u>For Doing Work and Communicating:</u> 'I need them to work.' 'Whatsapp or Botim to communicate (and exchange information and documents) by voice, video or text' 'Slack, TeamWork to work collaboratively with clients remotely' 'It's a Microsoft piece of software and we use it as an organisation' 'I use Trello as a calendar mainly...' 'Social media app is for checking like figures on how the shop's doing' 'LinkedIn for professional connections and communication etc.' '... we have a kind of network where we store stuff' '...mainly I use stuff like Google Docs, Google spreadsheets' 'I use the software to create music apps – I created Camelot' 'Invision is for sharing my work with people' 'Facebook app is for soliciting and continuing to engage clients'
Emails	<u>Communicate:</u> 'To send messages, files, and my work pieces to clients' 'For sending my work' 'Respond to my clients and team' 'The emails just for business, it's just to correspond with the agencies and you know scheduling and making other appointments, you know, just day to day' 'Uh well I need the internet to do my job, I can't do very much if I don't have access to my emails or anything else' So, most of my work is on email Like all our communication is done by emails.
Power, Electric, Plug	<u>To Charge Devices:</u> '...to charge my phone and laptop' '...to charge my laptop if it dies' 'Because I run short of power, just like 15 minutes ago' 'My laptop will die if it's not plugged in ... because it's old'
Headphones	<u>Noise Cancellation:</u> 'So, I can block out music' 'So, I stay focussed' 'They're for noise cancelling' 'They just help like ... again if I need to really concentrate, it just helps to kind of just block out any stimulation that's around really' I need my headphones to listen to music I am editing.