Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA)

Hosted by the Destination Branding & Marketing Group (DBM-VI)

Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao
Macao S.A.R., China
5-7 December 2018

Leonardo (Don) A.N. Dioko, Phd.
Editor

Organized by:

Sponsor and support:
Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA)—Hosted by the Destination Branding and Marketing Special Interest Group (DBM-VI)

Editor: Leonardo (Don) A. N. Dioko

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Cover photo courtesy of Mr. Window Leong.

Macao SAR, China, December 2018

Leonardo (Don) A.N. Dioko, Phd.  
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Thanks to our supporting organizations and sponsors
Welcome from the Chairman of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA)

Dr. Robert Govers
Author, advisor, and speaker in Antwerp, Belgium
rgovers.com

On behalf of the board of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA) I would like to extend a warm welcome to The Third Annual IPBA Conference, hosted by the Destination Branding and Marketing (DBM) Special Interest Group in Macao. With this we are continuing a great tradition as this conference merges the annual IPBA conference with the sixth Destination Branding and Marketing Conference (DBM).

Hence, it is a great honour to be here. The DBM series is by far the longest running conference series in the history of the wider place branding field. The first DBM conference was held in Macao in 2005, followed by biannual conferences, all in Macao at the Institute for Tourism Studies (IFT), apart from 2012, when it was held in Cardiff, thanks to Nigel Morgan, a long term supporter of the DBM series (as is the University of South Carolina).

This is a long tradition indeed. IPBA members and delegates that remember how we started with the IPBA conference series in London two years ago, will recall that we merged several existing initiatives; one of which being the DBM series. The others were: the International Colloquia on Place Brand Management (London and Aosta) with its first meeting at Brunel University in 2009; the City Branding Symposia (Stockholm 2012 and Tsinghua University Beijing 2013); and the Poznan Best Place Summit of 2014.

With the DBM series launching four years before anyone else and in its third edition when other initiatives started to emerge, we are clearly profoundly indebted to IFT and the team in Macao. Thank you Fanny Vong, Don Dioko and everyone in the IFT team. Thank you also to Nigel Morgan (now at Swansea University) and Rich Harrill and Brian Mihalik of the University of South Carolina, for their relentless support to IFT over these many years.

As we have come to expect of IFT, the institute has once again put together a great conference programme with top keynote practitioner speakers from the Macao Government Tourism Office, Hong Kong SAR Government and MGM China Holdings. It promises to be a wonderful event. Most of the IPBA board members and delegates have also attended and/or supported DBM in the past, so from an IPBA perspective I expect this conference to be a grand celebration. As a community coming together I wish you all a wonderful stay in Macao, full of inspiration, friendship and fun.

Best regards,
On behalf of the IPBA board

Robert Govers
IPBA Chairman
Welcome from your Host

Dr. Fanny Vong
President
Institute for Tourism Studies (Macao)

On behalf of the Organising Committee, it is my great pleasure to welcome you all to the 3rd Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA), which is being hosted this year by the Destination Branding and Marketing Conference Group (VI), and which was founded here at the Institute for Tourism Studies in 2005.

We at the Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao, are very pleased to be hosting this meeting. Not only has the DBM Conference Series become internationally recognized for its contribution to this field of study in tourism, but it has become a close partner with IPBA, thus expanding and strengthening the network of scholars and practitioners of place and destination branding.

I would like to express our heartfelt appreciation to the co-organisers for the support and assistance they have provided. I would like to specifically thank our valued partners in this effort, Dean Haemoon Oh and Rich Harrill of the University of South Carolina, Prof. Nigel Morgan of the University of Swansea, and Dr. Robert Govers, Chair, and Members of the Board of the IPBA.

Our great appreciation extends to all presenters and speakers, who have come from different parts of the world to join us. We look forward to listening and sharing with you the many ideas and examples that we hope will stimulate our thinking about this important and relevant area in tourism. In particular, I’d like to thank our honorable keynote speakers, Dra. Helena de Senna Fernandes of MGTO, Mr. Grant Bowie of MGM China Holdings, Mr. Brett Free of ISD, Government of the Hong Kong SAR, and Dr. Andrea Insch.

I wish to also thank the generous support extended by the Macao Government Tourist Office (MGTO), A.J. Hackett Macao, and Palgrave Macmillan. Last but not least, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks and appreciation to our IFT colleagues and staff members for their collective and team effort in organizing and overseeing the many details involved in ensuring that we have a productive and meaningful meeting.

Macao recently became part of the newly established Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area (GBA) and, as I write this, colleagues from IFT are currently undertaking a joint destination branding study with partners from Hong Kong and Guangdong. It is very opportune therefore that the IPBA-DBM Conference is taking place this year in the new Greater Bay Area.

I hope that your experience at the IPBA-DBM Conference will be a productive as well as enjoyable one!

Fanny Vong
President, IFT
Welcome from your Co-host

Dr. Haemoon Oh
Dean
University of South Carolina, HRSM

On behalf of the College of Hospitality, Retail, and Sport Management (HRSM) at the University of South Carolina (USC), I welcome you all to this 3rd Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA) and the 6th Destination Branding and Marketing Conference (DBM-VI)!

We are honored to have been partners with IFT in advancing the field of destination branding and marketing since 2005. I am very pleased to have seen its fruits multiply over the years, especially in strengthening our links with the our partners in the Asia-Pacific region. This year is extra special in that the DBM Conference Series has started to work together with the recently established IPBA to advance the field further.

My special thanks to President Fanny Vong at the Institute for Tourism Studies (IFT) for having my college and Swansea University partner in this long-standing venture. I also want to thank the Organizing Committee led by Drs. Don Dioko (IFT) and Rich Harrill (USC-HRSM) and its members Mr. Patrick Lo (IFT), Ms. Wendy Tang (IFT), and Virginia Hong (IFT) for their exceptional workmanship.

Thank you all for attending. This is an exciting week in Macao as we not only kick off this conference, but we also inaugurate the International Conference on Tourism and Retail Management (TRMC) 2018 back to back as a hosting partner to IFT.

I sincerely hope you will have a productive conference and a wonderful time in Macao.

Most warmly,

Haemoon Oh
Dean
Foreword from the Co-Founders of DBM

Rich Harrill  
University of South Carolina, HRSM

Nigel Morgan  
Swansea University (Co-host of IPBA-DBM)

We are honored that you are spending this sometimes frenzied time of the year with us in Macao. We are always excited to return to Macao, and always grateful for the generosity and nurturing role of the Institute for Tourism Studies (IFT) dating back to the inaugural conference of the Destination and Branding Marketing Conference (DBM) in 2005. Looking back over some of the old photos from previous conferences it appears many of us are a bit grayer, but nonetheless still passionate about place and destination marketing and branding.

We think what makes this conference special is that it is a tightly knit community studying, investigating, and examining communities. Whereas you might have a rather diverse group of scholars and practitioners studying a narrowly conceived subject, or conversely, a well defined group of scholars and practitioners studying a wide variety of related topics, the DBM Conference (which now partners with the IPBA), has remained an intact community, or even a family, of faculty, students, practitioners, and interested observers that are passionate about how the best places and destinations are built and function, and marketed and branded.

Welcome home!

Rich Harrill and  
Nigel Morgan
Very excited to welcome you all to Macao! IFT is where the Destination Branding and Marketing Conference Series began, more than a decade ago in 2005. This year’s conference is special as it is the first time we are hosting the International Place Branding Association (IPBA) conference and the first time IPBA is holding a meeting in the Asia-Pacific region.

As you browse through the contents of this Proceedings, you will notice the usual inclusion of some of the foremost names of scholars and practitioners in place branding and destination marketing, and in particular the notable addition of a number of exciting papers and presentations from the Asia-Pacific region. Sometime back, Pike & Page (2014) noted that four of the 11 notable international conferences held on the topic of destination branding and/or marketing since 1990 are from the DBM series. It is humbling therefore to see that this field of study and practice continues to thrive and foster.

Such continuity is owed to the numerous assistance and support of individuals and organizations. IFT, and its President, Dr. Fanny Vong, have been the staunchest supporters of this endeavor, with the strong backing of USC and Swansea University in the persons of Rich Harrill and Nigel Morgan, respectively. Robert Govers, Chairman of the IPBA has been instrumental in expanding our collaboration and network.

Most crucially, the Conference is powered by an “army of the few” who work tirelessly in the background. Their names are in the following pages. Please extend your appreciation to them in person at the conference.

Linus Pauling (Nobel prize winner in chemistry) once said: “The best way to have a good idea is to have lots of ideas.” We hope the Conference we have put together fills your mind with numerous ideas and that at least one of them leads you to greater things.

Don Dioko

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1 See Table 2 in Pike, S. and Page, S.J., Destination marketing organizations and destination marketing: A narrative analysis of the literature, Tourism Management, Volume 41, April 2014, Pages 202-227.
Organization

We thank and acknowledge the immense contributions provided by the following individuals in providing the overall strategic direction and ensuring the success and continuation of the conference.

CHAIRS
- Don Dioko, Chair
- Robert Govers, IPBA

IPBA COMMITTEE
- Don Dioko Chair
  IFT Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao SAR, China
- Nigel Morgan
  Swansea University, Wales, UK
- Magdalena Florek
  Poznan University of Economics and Business and Best Place Institute, Poland
- Hong Fan
  Tsinghua University Beijing, China
- Mihalis Kavaratzis
  University of Leicester, UK
- Chiara Mauri
  Università della Valle d'Aosta, Italy

SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE
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  Stockholm University, Sweden
- Erik Braun
  Erasmus University Rotterdam, The Netherlands
- Charles Dennis
  Middlesex University, UK
- Keith Dinnie
  University of Dundee, UK
- Don Dioko
  IFT Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao SAR, China
- Hong Fan
  Tsinghua University Beijing, China
- Magdalena Florek
  Poznan University of Economics and Business and Best Place Institute, Poland
- Rich Harrill
  University of Southern Carolina, USA
- Andrea Insch
  University of Otago, New Zealand
- Mihalis Kavaratzis
- University of Leicester, UK
- Chiara Mauri
  Università della Valle d'Aosta, Italy
- T.C. Melewar
  Middlesex University UK
- Nigel Morgan
  Swansea University, Wales, UK
- Annette Pritchard
  Cardiff Metropolitan University, UK
- Heather Skinner
  Place Branding SIG at The Institute of Place Management, UK
- Sebastian Zenker
  Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

SECRETARIAT
- Wendy Tang
  IFT
- Virginia Hong
  IFT
- Patrick Lo
  IFT
Programme and paper review committee

We thank and acknowledge the tremendous effort and assistance provided by the following individuals in ensuring the quality of presentations and taking care of the conference delegates and their needs.

- Ali Bavik  
IFT
- Balvinder Kaur Kler  
Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Malaysia
- Chin Yi Fang  
National Taiwan Normal University
- Cindia Lam  
IFT
- Eli Avraham  
University of Haifa, Israel
- Elizabeth Cheng  
IFT
- Fiona Yang  
IFT
- Florian Kaefer
- Henrique Fátima Boyol Ngan  
IFT
- Hong Fan  
Tsinghua University Beijing, China
- José Fernández-Cavia  
Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Spain
- Ksenia Kirillova  
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
- Laurie Malungu  
IFT
- Lianping Ren  
IFT
- Loretta Tou  
IFT
- Louis Tze-Ngai Vong  
IFT
- Magdalena Florek  
Poznan University of Economics, Poland
- Martin Boisen  
University of Groningen, The Netherlands
- Massimo Giovanardi  
University of Leicester, UK
- Max Zhao  
IFT
- Mihalis Kavaratzis  
University of Leicester, UK
- Nuri Hermawan  
Podomoro University, Indonesia
- Rami Isaac  
NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands
- Rich Harrill  
University of Southern Carolina, USA
- Robert Govers  
IPBA
- Saloomeh Tabari  
Sheffield Hallam University, UK
- Sandeep Basnyat  
IFT
- Suh-Hee Choi  
IFT
- Thea Vinnicombe  
IFT
- Tuan Phong Ly  
IFT
- Ubaldino Couto  
IFT
- Veronica Lam  
IFT
- Xiangping Li  
IFT
Local organizing committee

We thank and acknowledge the following IFT colleagues, friends, or students for the numerous and various tasks or roles contributed toward ensuring the smooth running of the conference.

- Ali Bavik
- Cindia Lam
- Elizabeth Cheng
- Fiona Yang
- Henrique Fátima Boyol Ngan
- John Ap
- Jose But
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- Lianping Ren
- Loretta Tou
- Louis Tze-Ngai Vong
- Max Zhao
- Patrick Lo
- Qi Xiaotong
- Sandeep Basnyat
- Selina Xie
- Suh-Hee Choi
- Thea Vinnicombe
- Tuan Phong Ly
- Ubaldino Couto
- Veronica Lam
- Xiangping Li
With special appreciation for....

Lo Ka Man, Mary

Mary graduated from the Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao, in 2017 and majored in Hotel Management. She learnt to play guzhén, a traditional Chinese musical instrument, since her early childhood. She won an outstanding award in one of the performances in 2013 and has been one of the guzhén players in The Macao Cheong Hong Orchestra since 2016. She is currently developing her budding career in music. Mary will be regaling conference delegates with her talent at the gala dinner on December 6.

Gu YuJun, Gracia

Gracia is currently a third year student at the Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao, and is majoring in Heritage Management. She started learning the bamboo flute, which is also known as zhùdi, in China from her primary school years. She has performed many times in school performances in her hometown of Jiangsu. Playing the bamboo flute continuously is Gracia’s personal hobby. Gracia will be regaling delegates with her talent during the welcome reception at the Military Club on December 5, with Anny (below).

Huang Ning Yu, Anny

Anny is a fourth year student at the Institute for Tourism Studies, Macao and is majoring in Tourism Business Management. As a young child, she learnt to play pípa, a Chinese traditional instrument, in her hometown of Shandong. She has achieved a level ten certificate for pípa which was presented by the Shanghai Conservatory of Music. When Anny was in Weihai, Shandong province, she attended a lot of traditional instrument performances and has gained plenty of performance experiences. Anny will be performing with Gracia (above) for conference delegates during the welcome reception at the Military Club on December 5.
Keynote Speakers
Dra. Helena de Senna Fernandes

Director
Macao Government Tourism Office

Dra. Maria Helena de Senna Fernandes came on board the Marketing Department of the Macao Government Tourism Office (MGTO) in 1988, and throughout the years organized many local and overseas tourism exhibitions, conferences, seminars, marketing, and promotional activities of different scale. She became one of the two Deputy Directors in September of 1998, where she continues to be highly involved in the marketing and promotion of Macao as a tourism destination. Ms. Fernandes was appointed as Director of MGTO in December of 2012. In 2016, Ms. Fernandes was awarded the Medal of Merit – Tourism by the Macao Special Administrative Region Government.

She concurrently serves as Coordinator of the Tourism Crisis Management Office of the Macao SAR Government and is member of the Tourism Development Committee, Economic Development Committee, Cultural Advisory Committee, Committee of Cultural Industries, Urban Planning Committee, Investment Committee, among others, of the Macao SAR Government. In May 2018, Director Senna Fernandes was elected as Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) Secretary/Treasurer 2018/2020.
Mr. Brett Free

Deputy Director
Information Services Department
Hong Kong SAR Government

Brett Free has worked in the media and public relations fields for 38 years. He joined ISD in 1993 after a 13-year career as a journalist in Australia, the UK and Hong Kong. From October 2007 Brett led ISD’s Publicity and Promotions Division responsible for major publicity campaigns, local publicity and promotions, international promotions, publishing, book and photo sales, advertising, Internet resources, as well as design, photography and video services. Since September 2014, Brett has been Deputy Director with oversight of both the Publicity and Promotions Division, and the Public Relations Outside Hong Kong Division responsible for monitoring and promoting Hong Kong’s image overseas, in the Mainland and Taiwan. Brett was awarded Chief Executive’s Commendations for Government Service in the 2010 and 2009 HKSAR Honours Lists, and received a Commissioner’s Commendation from the Royal Hong Kong Police in 1997 for his work in police public relations. He won the Kevin O’Donohue Memorial Award for cadet journalists in Queensland, Australia, in 1982. He is a Senior Executive Fellow of the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University. A native of Brisbane, Australia, Brett is married with two daughters.
Mr. Grant R. Bowie

Chief Executive Officer and Executive Director
MGM China Holdings, Ltd.

Mr. Bowie is responsible for the overall management, strategic development and expansion of the Company including the direction and operations of MGM MACAU and MGM COTAI, the latest addition to the MGM portfolio in China. Mr. Bowie joined MGM Grand Paradise in August 1, 2008 as President. Prior to this, he was President and General Manager of Wynn Resorts (Macau) S.A. from 2003 to 2007. Before coming to Macao, Mr. Bowie spent 16 years with Park Place Entertainment Corporation in Australia, holding senior positions in gaming, general finance and hotel operations. His last position held was Area Senior Vice President for Park Place Entertainment Corporation overseeing their Australian operations. Mr. Bowie was educated in New Zealand and obtained a Bachelor’s degree in Commerce from the University of Otago in 1980. He was recognized by leading financial publication “Institutional Investor” as “Best CEO” in the All-Asia Executive Team survey for three consecutive years from 2015 to 2017. He is currently a Governor of the American Chamber of Commerce in Macao, a Member to Advisory Board of the Institute for the Study of Commercial Gaming at University of Macau and an adjunct professor of Tourism and Leisure Management at University of Queensland. Previously, he was a member of Australian Federal Government’s Tourism Forecasting Council, Chairman of Queensland’s Responsible Gambling Advisory Committee and a member of the National Advisory Body on Gambling.
Dr. Andrea Insch

Senior Lecturer
Department of Marketing
University of Otago

Dr. Andrea Insch’s research expertise is focused on place-based marketing, with an emphasis on understanding and measuring the ways that place identity can create stakeholder value. Currently she is working on defining and measuring place brand equity in New Zealand’s cities and regions and hopes to extend this research to other countries. She was recently awarded a School of Business Emerging Researcher Award. Andrea plans to use the award to test a model of place satisfaction among residents in the Dunedin community, as part of a larger collaborative, international research project. The model was recently presented at an international conference and won the best paper award.
Programme Overview

Subject to last minute changes.
Please consult latest version with conference organizers.
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<th>December 5, 2018 Wednesday</th>
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<td>8:30 AM</td>
<td>Bus departs from Royal Hotel for IFT</td>
<td>Registration + coffee</td>
<td>Bus departs from Royal Hotel for IFT</td>
<td>Post-conference tours</td>
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<tr>
<td>9:00 AM</td>
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<td>Bus departs from Royal Hotel for IFT</td>
<td>Details to be confirmed shortly. Please standby for announcements.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>IPBA Board Meeting</td>
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<td>(Bus pickup from Royal Hotel for Board Members at 9:30 AM.)</td>
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<td>11:00 AM</td>
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<td>Lunch at IFT Educational Restaurant</td>
<td>Group photo</td>
<td>Lunch at IFT Educational Restaurant</td>
<td>Lunch at IFT Educational Restaurant</td>
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<tr>
<td>1:00 PM</td>
<td>Lunch at IFT Educational Restaurant</td>
<td>(For Doctoral Colloquium participants. Bus pickup from Royal Hotel at 12:00 PM.)</td>
<td>Delegates wishing to attend/participate in the Doctoral Colloquium sessions are welcome. Please sign up here: <a href="https://bit.ly/2z2EmDC">https://bit.ly/2z2EmDC</a> on or before 28 November. Limited seats available. First come, first served.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2:30 PM</td>
<td>Doctoral Colloquium 1</td>
<td>Keynote 3 &amp; Keynote 4</td>
<td>Concurrent Session 5</td>
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<td>4:30 PM</td>
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<td>5:30 PM</td>
<td>Doctoral Colloquium 2</td>
<td>Concurrent Session 2</td>
<td>Concurrent Session 6</td>
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<tr>
<td>6:00 PM</td>
<td>Bus #1 departs from IFT (for Doctoral Colloquium participants) to Military Club</td>
<td>Bus departs from IFT to take ALL delegates to Grand Coloane Hotel for Gala Dinner</td>
<td>Bus departs from IFT to take delegates to Albergue 1601 for Closing Remarks and Farewell Reception</td>
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<tr>
<td>6:30 PM</td>
<td>Welcome reception for ALL delegates Military Club</td>
<td>Gala dinner Grand Coloane Hotel</td>
<td>Farewell reception Albergue 1601</td>
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<tr>
<td>7:30 PM</td>
<td>No shuttle back to Royal Hotel. (Royal Hotel is walking distance from Military Club. Delegates may wish to sample the many nearby dining options available for own dinner.)</td>
<td>No shuttle back to Royal Hotel. (Royal Hotel is walking distance from Albergue 1601. Delegates may wish to sample the many nearby dining options available for own dinner.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>8:30 PM</td>
<td>Bus departs from Grand Coloane Hotel back to Royal Hotel. Optional bus drop-off for delegates at COTAI strip (the Parisian Eiffel Tower replica) for night out.***</td>
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<td>***Delegates wishing to be dropped off at COTAI strip for night out are advised to pack and change into comfortable attire before leaving the Grand Coloane Hotel.</td>
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Doctoral colloquium

Arranged by first author’s last name
Unlocking the garden of Eden: A postcolonial reading of tourists and locals’ image of the Seychelles

Hervé Atayi
University of Leicester
UK

Abstract

There is a growing interest in destinations’ image formation and in particular how third world countries and their hosts are represented in tourist brochures. It has been argued that brochures influence tourists’ decisions by appealing to their presuppositions, beliefs and expectations using well-crafted wordings evoking paradise, exoticism and the surreal.

Theoretical frameworks drawn from the social sciences have been used to explain and understand destinations’ image formation in third world countries. However, none of them have examined, in-depth, the Indian Ocean, thus making the region under-studied, in particular the island of the Seychelles. Moreover, the formation of the image of a destination is consistently represented through tourist brochures and the media, thus neglecting the lived experience of tourists and locals alike.

The main objective in this research is to understand how the image of the Seychelles is represented by tourists and locals.

Using photo-elicitation, combined with in-depth interviews and from post-colonial perspective and reading, this paper seeks to understand how tourists and locals experience the image of the Seychelles. By doing so, the researcher will attempt to bridge the gap between what is marketed in brochures and the actual lived experience in the Seychelles using a phenomenological approach.
“Cool Japan” as a place branding strategy: Differential understandings and ambivalent results

Paul Capobianco
University of Iowa
US

Abstract

In the early 2000s, the Japanese government launched a “Cool Japan” initiative aimed at developing Japan as a “national brand” and marketing positive images of Japan abroad. Drawing on Japan’s cultural and technological resources that experienced popularity overseas, “Cool Japan” uses public-private partnerships to project a specific image of Japan’s identity on a global stage. To date, academic coverage of “Cool Japan” has been limited in scope. Branding scholars have not covered this effort in any significant capacity despite its direct relevance to destination branding and place marketing. On the other hand, social scientists have critiqued these initiatives on economic, cultural, and political grounds, and have deemed them failures (Daliot-Bul 2009; Iwabuchi 2002; Valaskivi 2013).

There is thus a considerable dearth of literature exploring the ways these efforts have succeeded and what implications these efforts have on how Japan is perceived. Given Japan’s recent tourism boom, record numbers of foreigners studying and working in Japan, and renewed faith in Abenomics-backed government policy, it begs the question whether or not these policies have truly failed to enhance Japan’s value as a destination.

Arguments

1. I will show how, contrary to much social scientific critique, “Cool Japan” may have in fact worked to enhance Japan’s value as a tourism, educational, and cultural destination in ways that have long-term implications.

2. I demonstrate how “Cool Japan” engages place branding (Anholt 2007; Kotler and Gertner 2004; Papadopoulous and Heslop 2002) and marketing literature in practice, and how “Cool Japan” can advance understandings of these theoretical concepts.

3. I argue that critiques of “Cool Japan” have failed to account for large systemic changes in travel and tourism from the consumer perspective, which has yielded problematic and insufficient understandings of Japan’s branding effort. Considering these issues from a place branding perspective, I suggest we can better understand the interconnected actions of macro- and micro-level forces to more comprehensively make sense of “Cool Japan” and its outcomes.

I will make these arguments using primary data collected from foreign tourists and foreign residents in Japan, and through an extensive literature review of extant scholarship and official documents.

This presentation shows that despite receiving only scant and critical scholarly attention, “Cool Japan” efforts need to be considered within a wider framework of global
systemic changes in tourism and consumer behaviors to capture their true impact and implications. It also shows that the ultimate outcomes of “Cool Japan” are much more ambiguous than scholars have previously suggested. In doing so, I demonstrate the ways that “Cool Japan” relates to contemporary destination branding theory and makes use of different strategies proposed by branding scholars.

References


When the map is not the territory: Brand concept maps revisited

Guido van Garderen
University of Cape Town
South Africa

Abstract

Developing nations, many of which are in Africa, often suffer from a poor brand image. Their respective brands are made up of negative, general or no associations, while positive brand associations can enhance tourism, trade and investment (Baker & Cameron 2008). How do we identify, measure and map the associations of nation brands and guide their development?

‘Brand Concept Maps’ (BCM) is well-referenced methodology to identify and map brand associations (John et al 2003). It has been applied to places, such as Liege, Hamburg and Seoul (Brandt & de Mortanges 2011, Zenker & Beckmann 2013, Ci & Choi 2016), improved upon (Schnittka et al 2012, Divakaran 2014, Böger et al 2017) and subsequently used in place branding (Zenker 2014).

The accuracy of a ‘Brand Concept Map’ can be improved by using free associations of respondents and mapping, based on frequency and salience, instead of using a prompted and potentially leading set of brand associations mapped by respondents. The suggested revision ensures the measurement of associations held in memory (Keller 2003) rather than opinions.

BCM is flexible in the elicitation phase, as demonstrated by the authors, who used associations from previous consumer research in combination with suggestions by the marketing department. I argue that the elicitation process is key in determining brand equity. A comparison between methodologies will demonstrate the accuracy of the revised BCM method. A randomly selected sample of 100 visitors at a three-day Holiday Fair will be divided at random into four groups of 25 individual respondents. Two groups will use the original BCM method and two will use the revised BCM method, in order to ascertain the place brand equity of France and Liberia. I expect that the use of free associations and elicitation-based mapping will result in a BCM that represent the brand equity, in terms of (fewer) brand associations, more accurately and consistently.

Our capacity for processing information limits us to remembering a maximum of seven associations, plus or minus two, for high interest categories (Miller 1956). The BCM on the Mayo Clinic (John et al 2003: figure 3) featuring no less than 13 core and 6 non-core associations can’t be a reflection of the “brand associations in memory” (Keller 2003).

A revised BCM method, based on the mapping of free associations, will correct the inflated sense of brand equity places might think they have. We now accurately measure the number and strength of brand associations held in memory, instead of soliciting an opinion from respondents.

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Multifaceted nation branding: Azerbaijan is the West in the East and the East in the West

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Abstract

This paper attempts to analyze how Azerbaijan has been utilizing international sport, cultural and political events to form a nation brand for different purposes (political and economic) by highlighting its various Identities (European, Muslim, Turkic, Oriental) toward various targeted audiences (Western countries, and the rest, namely the middle east). Starting 2008 the country began to accumulate vast amount of wealth from exporting its natural resources to world market, which allowed Azerbaijan to launch nation branding and country promoting internationally. Given that the country was little unknown globally due to being part of the Soviet Union for 70 years, Azerbaijan, as an independent state, not only aimed to put itself on the global map but it also wants to be affiliated with positive images and reputation. Began by hosting Eurovision Song Contest in 2012, the country continually started hosting international sport and cultural events such as European Games 2015, Azerbaijani Formula 1 (2016, 2017, 2018), Islamic Solidarity Games 2017, International Jazz Festival (2005-2018), International Shopping Festivals (2015-2018) etc. Parallel to hosting events of modern Popular Culture, the country gathered world former and current leaders to its capital city Baku through International political summits and forums, such as the World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue (2011, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017), Baku International Humanitarian Forum (2011-2014, 2016, 2018), and Baku Global Forum (2013-2018).

In addition to hosting international popular cultural and political events, the capital city of Azerbaijan went through drastic makeover, turning itself from a typical soviet city to both a modern and high-cultured city. While modern city claim has been backed by building futuristic architectural buildings of World famous architectures’ masterpieces, calling the capital city the Dubai of the Caucasus, the high-cultured look of the city is backed by covering surface of soviet buildings, streets, and parks with to French-style architectural looks, calling the capital the Paris of the Caucasus.

This paper attempts to examine how Azerbaijan started to brand itself when sporting, cultural, and political events with physically changed capital city put Azerbaijani on spotlights providing access to broad global audience. More specifically, it looks closer how Azerbaijan has started to highlight its multi-layer cultural identities (claiming to be crossroad of civilization where it belongs to both western and eastern civilizations) and unique geographic location (claiming to be part of both Asia and Europe) have been utilized for nation branding purposes.

The paper argues that Azerbaijan has brand itself as a secular Muslim (culturally) and Asian (geographically) country toward western audience for diplomacy and soft power purposes, while at the same time it has branded itself as a European (culturally and geographically) toward the non-western audience for economic purposes namely to attract tourism and investment.
Azerbaijan is the West in the East and the East in the West! Welcome! This is how Azerbaijan declares its geographic and cultural identity on its official tourism website, which aims to provide incoming tourists with all the information they need about the country (Azerbaijan.travel, 2017). This country that claims to span Western and Eastern civilisations has only existed as an independent country since 1991, following the collapse of the Soviet Union. Through the exploitation of its natural resources (Caspian oil and gas), Azerbaijan transformed itself from being a war torn country into one of the fastest growing economies in the world in the 2000s (The Economist, 2007). As the energy export revenues money flowed in, Azerbaijan gained confidence and sought to place itself on the world map. Branding itself as a prosperous, glamorous, fast-developing, good-will, multicultural and tolerant country, Azerbaijan aims to build a positive international image both for political gain and economic benefits.

This article seeks to examine first of all how branding techniques have been deployed to construct Brand Azerbaijan; and second, how that brand is utilised for economic and political gains. The paper argues that by promoting itself internationally under slogans as wide ranging as the Land of Tolerance, the Dubai of the Caspian, the Paris of the East, the European Charm of the Orient, the Bridge of Civilisations, The Address of Multiculturalism simultaneously, Azerbaijan has adopted multi-layered branding identities as an alternative to the traditional approach of finding a single competitive identity. In addition, the paper analyses the different ways in which Azerbaijan has positioned its brand identity before different audiences, and with different purposes. More specifically, Azerbaijan has positioned itself as a Western/European country to attract tourism from the East (namely from the Gulf States), while positioning itself as an Eastern/Muslim country toward the world political community.

Literature review

The rapid advancement of globalization and modern information technology following the end of Cold War has widened the range of stakeholders engaged in transnational interactions beyond governments, leading to greater economic integration among states. In the context of these closely intertwined political and economic relations, countries became aware of the competition for shares of the world’s consumers, tourists, investors, and entrepreneurial opportunities (Jansen, 2008). To succeed in this environment, a positive national image was crucial. Peter Van Ham has described this as a shift from the “modern world of geopolitics and power to the post modern world of image and influence” (Ham, 2001). Fan posits that the international image of a country is considered as the sum of all perceptions of a nation held by international stakeholders, including people, place, cultures, language, histories, regional foods, fashions, famous people and/or certain brands (Fan, 2010). For some states, image cultivation entailed reshaping or rehabilitating an existing image and reputation, such as the US, Germany, UK, Japan. Other countries, such as the former Yugoslavia, African or the post-Soviet republics, had to create, develop and manage a new image largely from scratch in order to gain the attention and respect of other governments, the corporate world, and ordinary people. For many countries, image cultivation and management became part of national policy (Szondi, 2007). Countries such as Hungary, Poland, and Latvia established special state institutions to carry out research and evaluate current images across different target countries; to develop external communication/marketing strategies; and to coordinate campaigns and branding initiatives (Szondi, 2007).

Starting in the late 1990s, countries began consciously engaging in nation branding toward their “consumers”, namely the wider international stakeholders, in order to create a positive image, or reshape an existing image (Dinnie, 2008). Branding, according to American Marketing Association, is a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competition” (American Marketing

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2 The Azerbaijan-Armenia Nagorno-Karabakh conflict broke out after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The war lasted for four years (1988-1992), and it was not until 1994 that a ceasefire was signed between two states. Now the territory is considered as one of the four frozen conflicts in the post-Soviet space along with Abkhazia, South Ossetia, and Transnistria.
encouraging emotional attachments to their country, government, people, products, and geography through popular culture (Saunders, 2016).

The Baltic states, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, are clear examples of countries that used nation branding for political purposes immediately after gaining independence from the Soviet Union in early 1990s. Szondi argues that for the Baltics, nation branding played a critical role as they were trying to gain membership within Euro-Atlantic institutions such as the European Union and NATO (Szondi, 2007). All three countries engaged in sophisticated nation branding together with public diplomacy, focusing on cultural features such as language and ethnicity to highlight their similarities with Europe. Estonia branded itself under the “Estonia: Positively Surprize” slogan, identifying itself as a Scandinavian state. Neighbouring Latvia chose to market itself as “Latvia: the Land that Sings” referring to its rich folk music traditions and peaceful society, offer further harmony as an EU member (Saunders 2016). Lithuania, on the other hand, deployed the slogan “Lithuania the Brave”, focusing on its medieval heritage and resistance to the Soviet Union in the 1980s to reunite with greater Western Europe (Saunders, 2016).

Once a state defines its unique brand competitive identity, it tends to utilize nation branding tactics for both political and economic purposes. For example, Estonia’s branding campaign served the political goal of building a new geopolitical identity as a part of Scandinavia and Europe. At the same time, the created brand identity helped Estonia to transform itself into the Silicon Valley of Europe as well as a popular a tourist destination (Jansen, 2008). However, it is less common to see nation branding based on multiple identities, with these identities deployed for different purposes across various target audiences. Hence, this paper will explore the unconventional nation branding approach of Azerbaijan, which does precisely this in order to reach its economic and political goals.

Economic branding: “Azerbaijan is the West in the East.... Welcome!”

The paper argues that Azerbaijan has branded itself as part of Western civilisation, with an emphasis on European high culture, lifestyle, progressive values, and modernity: aimed at attracting tourists from the Gulf States. Yet, at the same time, Azerbaijan also defines itself as a part of Eastern Civilisation, positioning itself as part of the Muslim and Asian continent for political purposes, in order to create a positive image among European politicians and at international institutions. This section explores the former, and the second section explores the latter.

While the Azerbaijani economy remains heavily dependent on the energy sector, there have been consistent efforts to diversify the economy, with particular emphasis on the tourism sector. The country first underwent a physical makeover, transforming its capital to look like a cosmopolitan European city. Azerbaijan also began hosting international cultural and sporting events to highlight its western orientation through international media in order to attract tourism particularly from the Gulf States. The government redoubled its efforts to improve its tourism infrastructure when the oil price...
dropped to its lowest point in 2014, below 40USD per barrel.

A) Baku’s physical transformation

In order to eradicate the architectural heritage of Azerbaijan’s Soviet past and increase its European appeal for Middle Eastern tourists, Azerbaijan undertook expensive construction work across Baku. The transformation pursued two parallel themes. As the “Dubai of the Caspian”, the intention was to show Azerbaijan as forward-looking, progressive and glamorous side. The “Paris of the East” branding sought to showcase the country’s European identity, affiliating itself with European culture and lifestyle. The former entailed newly constructed skyscrapers, residences, shopping centres and business centres inspired Dubai, New York and Shanghai (CNN Travel, 2018). The physical change under the Paris of the East was driven by constructing Persian-style buildings, or external cladding of the Soviet buildings into Housman’s style to make Baku look like Milan, Paris, Vienna, or Madrid.

Baku’s makeover began a year before the country was due to host Eurovision Song Contest in 2012, as the country expected an influx of visitors during the competition. The transformation gathered further momentum when Baku started hosting Formula 1 from 2015, along with European Games (2015) and Islamic Solidarity Games (2017); broadcasts of these events are viewed by millions of people both in and outside the country. Baku’s corniche on the Caspian Sea, the Bulvar, symbol of Soviet times, and the Old Town both underwent drastic changes in order to resemble a European city similar to Nice or Barcelona. New parks, shopping malls and iconic towers started to pop-up on the Bulvar. The Baku Eye is a copy of the London Eye; the Bulvar is home to Little Venice, featuring artificial channels and gondoliers; and the stores along the Bulvar are reminiscent of boutique stores in Paris, Rome and Milan. The Old Town, a UNESCO Heritage site, dates back to the 12th century, featuring mosques, hamams and caravansaries, is now home to art galleries, restaurants, wine-houses, souvenir shops, echoing old city of Prague, Munich and Brussels. The parks have been turned into Viennese-style parks, London-style pedestrian tunnels have been built, and two metro stations along the airport route have Louvre museum-inspired glass ceilings, albeit containing Soviet trains and designs inside.

In parallel, Baku is pursuing another look - the Dubai of the Caspian, in order to showcase its modernity, progressiveness, and glamour through post-modern and futuristic architecture, along with shopping malls, cultural centres, glistening skyscrapers, and luxury residences inspired by Dubai, New York, and Shanghai. Inside a decade, world-class five star hotels such as Marriott, Four Seasons, Hilton, and Fairmont replaced earlier symbols of Baku, such as the Intourist, Moscow, and Absheron Hotels (CNN Travel, 2018). The Baku International Airport, inspired by the Chinese 2012 Olympic Stadium, a modern Baku Stadium, and the SOCAR Tower - the tallest glass skyscraper in the Caucasus - are among the latest architectural additions. The highest-profile architectural projects are the Flame Towers and the Heydar Aliyev Culture Center, which have become symbols of Baku and Azerbaijan around the world. The Flame Towers, three gigantic flame-shaped skyscrapers, are located on one of the highest points in Baku, home to a hotel, business centre and residence. It can be seen from every part of the city, and has replaced Baku’s previous icon, the 12th century Maiden Tower, on all tourism materials. The Heydar Aliyev Cultural Center, opened in 2012, is considered to be another pearl of the construction boom. It was designed by the world famous British architect Zaha Hadid, and has won several international prizes, including the Design of the Year Award in 2014 in London (Design Museum, 2014).

B) International Cultural and Sport Events

Starting with the 2012 Eurovision Song Contest, Azerbaijan has hosted a series of international cultural and sporting events. This has served two main functions. First, hosting international events accelerates Azerbaijan’s self-branding, providing significant access to international tourists and audiences. This is a common trend among emerging economies like China (Beijing Olympics 2008), Russia (Sochi Olympics 2014), South Africa (World Cup 2010), and Brazil (Rio Olympic 2016; World Cup 2014), India (Commonwealth Games 2010) (Grix and Lee, 2013). Second, Azerbaijan aimed to utilize these opportunities to position itself toward Middle Eastern audiences (Westland, 2015). Baku’s international cultural and sporting events have targeted Middle Eastern audience, to raise awareness of the country and showcase its Western look. More specifically, the Eurovision Song Contests, the European Games, Formula 1, and UEFA Cup, the annual Tour de Azerbaijan (cycling tournament), the International Jazz Festival, and the biannual Shopping Festival are all focused at showcasing Azerbaijan’s
western characteristics in order to attract tourists from the Middle East, especially the Gulf States. Further to this aim, Azerbaijan has deployed Western popular culture, by bringing in Western singers such as Lady Gaga, Shakira, Beyoncé, Jennifer Lopez, and Enrique Iglesias to perform either at international events or solo concerts (En.apa.az, 2012). The Formula 1 Azerbaijan Grand Prix, which Baku has hosted since 2015, has been widely covered mainly in the Arab media, especially in the United Arab Emirates, Egypt, Saudi Arabia and other Arab countries (Azertag.az, 2018).

C) International Media Coverage

International sponsored media coverage of Azerbaijan by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism has also focused on its Western characteristics: the country’s best-known slogan is “The European Charm of the Orient” positioning itself as a European country located in Asia (YouTube, 2013). The visuals that accompany tourism advertisements and videos tend to feature Western parks, futuristic architecture, and Western-styled residents strolling through Baku. One of the most popular advertising clips of Azerbaijan, broadcast on CNN International, runs under the tagline, “Where in the world are you?” (YouTube, 2012). The video compares Azerbaijan to various Western capitals in order to instil a sense of Azerbaijan’s Western identity in the eyes of the audience. The video shows Baku’s imported London cabs, the metro station modelled on the Louvre, Barcelona-style buildings, the national opera, similar to that of Vienna, parks like those of Monte Carlo, and shopping malls inspired by Las Vegas.

Target audience: Tourists from Gulf States

Within the scope of its overall branding project, Azerbaijan’s main tourist target is the Middle East, especially the Gulf countries. Given its geographic location, Azerbaijan has targeted the Muslim travel market as one of the fastest-growing segments in the global travel industry, a strategic move considering that Muslims represent nearly one-fourth of the world’s population. Last year, Muslim travellers spent around $155 billion, approximately 13 percent of total global travel expenses, according to the Global Muslim Travel Index (GMTI) (Halalmedia.jp, 2018). The GMTI predicted that the Muslim travel market will be worth $220 billion by 2020, and $300 billion by 2026, spurred by Muslim-friendly amenities and easy access to travel information. The number of Muslim tourists today is 108 million, and this figure is projected to rise to 150 million in 2020 (Halalmedia.jp, 2018).

The main reason Azerbaijan has targeted the Gulf State tourists is because of their wealth and geographic proximity. The average flight time from the Gulf States to Azerbaijan is about three hours. During one of the interviews with senior officials from the Ministry of Culture revealed that Baku prefers Arab tourists on the basis that “Europeans are demanding, but less willing to pay more, while Arab tourists willing to spend more with lower expectations.... Also, while Western, or Russian tourists are interested in cheaper all-inclusive packages, Arab tourists from Gulf States are usually high-spending tourists. As such, Azerbaijan positions itself as a European country increase its appeal before this group.” (Interviewee 1 at Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2018). The second official of the Ministry of Tourism and Culture who was interviewed added that, “people from Gulf states want to see Europe when they travel, not what they have at home.... Hence it is no accident that within ten years, we have opened franchises of European hotels, restaurants, shopping centres, and hosting European events to attract the visitors...It is unsurprising that the first Overseas Representative office of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of the Republic of Azerbaijan was opened in Dubai, UAE in 2011” (Interviewee 2 at Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2018). In fact, when Azerbaijan launched electronic visa system, first it was offered to Gulf countries - even before its close political, cultural and economic ally Turkey. As of 15 May 2018, of the 15 countries whose citizens may obtain Azerbaijani visas at the airport upon arrival, six of them are Gulf countries: Bahrain, UAE, Kuwait, Qatar, Oman, and Saudi Arabia (Asan.gov.az, 2018).

The frequency and routing of daily flights out of Baku is yet another indication of Azerbaijan’s target market. While there is no direct flight to Europe’s main capitals, such as Brussels, Madrid, and Geneva, there are daily flights from all the Gulf States, except Oman. Currently between Baku and the UAE (Dubai and Abu Dhabi) there are four different airlines running several flights per day (Azerbaijan Airlines, FlyDubai, AirArabia, Etihad). Between Azerbaijan and Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrain, and Saudi Arabia there are daily flights with Qatar Airways, Jazeera Airways, and Azerbaijan Airways, and others (Gulfair.com, 2018).

The fact that Azerbaijan has accorded particular attention to Halal Tourism in this context
reveals another element of the strategic targeting of Muslim tourists from the Gulf States. Azerbaijan was included in top 10 best Islamic tourism destinations in the Global Muslim Travel Index 2018 ranking, which reviews 130 countries (Halalmedia.jp, 2018). The study assesses evaluates ease of obtaining a visa, access to prayer, safe travel, accessibility and quality of halal products, terms and conditions in hotels. In 2016, the same Index placed Azerbaijan in 24th place (Azvision.az, 2018). Hence it is not surprising that the number of Middle Eastern visitors to Azerbaijan is rising year-on-year. The number of foreign citizens arriving in Azerbaijan increased by 12.6 percent in the first three months of this year compared to the same period in 2017, according to the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (AzerNews.az, 2018). During the first quarter of 2018, the majority of foreigners who arrived in Azerbaijan were from Russia, Iran and Georgia (342,457 people or 54.5 percent), followed by Middle Eastern countries (166,976 people or 26.5 percent) and then European countries (93,122 people or 14.8 percent) (AzerNews.az, 2018).

Political Branding: “Azerbaijan is the East in the West! Welcome!”

While Azerbaijan has branded itself as a Western country among the Gulf States for economic purposes, it is branding itself as a good-will Eastern country in its engagement with the international political community. The latter identity encompasses Azerbaijan’s place in the Muslim world and its Islamic values and traditions. It must be noted that when targeting the Gulf States for economic purposes, Azerbaijan has carefully created an image of a country that enjoys a Western lifestyle and high culture, avoiding any emphasis on its differences with the West. In other words, it benefits from the characteristics of the West that appeal to the Eastern countries. Yet, when branding itself towards the political decision-makers within international institutions, especially those which are Western-centric, Azerbaijan has sought to create an image of good-will eastern country. In fact, Azerbaijan highlights the negative stereotypes that have dogged Muslim countries since 9/11 in particular, and negatively affected the image of all the Muslim countries. It positions itself as a rare alternative - a Muslim country which appreciates and cherishes cultural, religious and other differences and closely works with countries from all over the world, including the West. Ultimately, while projecting the first image required virtually no additional efforts, significant extra work was required to make Azerbaijan stand out against the negatively stereotyped Eastern countries.

Since 2008, Azerbaijan has hosted numerous international humanitarian and cultural events under the Baku Process. These events offer an international platform for Baku to brand itself firstly as an Eastern/Muslim country, and secondly, as a good-will Muslim country that is ready to tackle world humanitarian problems and intercultural conflicts. Along with taking on major world challenges, Azerbaijan is bringing Eastern civilisations together with the West. Through this branding strategy, Azerbaijan hopes to win the “hearts and minds” of the international political community.

Baku Process

The Baku Process was initiated in 2008 when the Azerbaijani government hosted the conference of Ministers of Culture of the Council of Europe member states. Although the conference was organised in partnership with the Council of Europe, the Azerbaijani government invited the Ministries of Culture of Muslim countries to attend the event, an unprecedented approach to building dialogue (Bakuprocess.az, 2018). A year later, in 2009, the Azerbaijani government hosted the VI Annual Conference of the Ministries of Culture of Islamic States. Again, the Azerbaijani government invited high-level officials and culture ministers from more than ten European countries to participate in order to facilitate cross-cultural dialogue. Based on these two experiences, the Azerbaijani president took these events to the United Nations General Assembly in 2010, declaring Azerbaijan’s new initiative launch the first World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue, along with the Baku International Forum (Bakuprocess.az, 2018). Since 2011, Azerbaijan has hosted four World Forums on Intercultural Dialogue and six Baku International Forums.

The World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue aims to enable and encourage people, countries and organisations around the globe to take concrete actions to support diversity, dialogue and mutual understanding among nations by raising awareness on the importance of intercultural dialogue worldwide (Bakuprocess.az, 2018). The Baku International Humanitarian Forum positions itself as an important event aimed at building dialogue through round tables that provide the basis for constructive debate and discussion, exchange of ideas, theoretical and practical knowledge. These
discussions intend to produce recommendations and appeals to international organisations, governments and individuals regarding global humanitarian development.

The Baku Process has been declared as “a very important event in the modern world history and significant contribution to the world order” by the Azerbaijani political elite (En.president.az, 2013) and “an important contributor to the tradition of tolerance and inter-civilizational dialogue (Bakuprocess.az, 2018). One of the key brand ambassadors, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Elmar Mammadyarov, has made numerous public comments on the function and impact of the political events hosted by Baku:

“All these events serve the formation and recognition of a positive image of Azerbaijan in the international arena, and at the same time contribute to the fight against discrimination, hostility, and violence in the world. In this way we project a positive image of Azerbaijan to the world and give our support to fostering understanding and dialogue at the international level.” (AzerNews.az, 2016)

Initiating and organising international humanitarian and cultural events focused on addressing international political issues not only highlights Azerbaijan’s goodwill, but also provides a platform for Baku to brand itself. The Azerbaijani President, Ilham Aliyev - who is the country’s ultimate decision maker on brand identity and strategies - is always the keynote speaker on the opening day of each event. His speeches are always aimed at cultivating Azerbaijan’s image. This paper includes a narrative analysis of the ten speeches given within the framework of the Baku Process (four from the World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue and six from the Baku Humanitarian Forum). Narrative analysis shows that at each hosted event, the President has repeatedly identified Azerbaijan as a Muslim country, an integral part of the Islamic world, and upholding Islamic values. At the same time, he emphasises that as a Muslim country, Azerbaijan is a forward-looking, progressive, and secular state. At each event, Azerbaijan highlights its global firsts as an Eastern country; the country claims to be the first democratic republic in the East/Muslim World, the first country to give women the right to vote in the East, to open an opera house, and a girls’ school in the Muslim world (En.president.az, 2015).

“Azerbaijan is an integral part of the Islamic world. Islam is our religion and Islamic and national values are dear to us” (En.president.az, 2011)

“Azerbaijan is part of the Muslim World…. At the same time, there was a fairly strong European influence in Azerbaijan at different times, especially since the 19th century…. The Azerbaijan Democratic Republic was the first republic in the Muslim world and essentially not only led to the independence of the Azerbaijani people but also provided an impetus for the development and spread of the republican system in the region and the Muslim world” (En.president.az, 2013)

“Azerbaijan is a country which is part of the Muslim world, and, at the same time, a country with strong connections with Europe. The first democratic republic in the Muslim world was created in Azerbaijan in 1918. And immediately after that women were granted the right to vote much earlier than in some of the European countries” (En.president.az, 2015)

In addition to positioning itself as part of the East/Muslim world, President reiterates that Azerbaijan has made solving world humanitarian and cultural conflicts one of its priorities. Azerbaijan is committed to bringing a range of different countries together in Baku to engage in dialogue to combat current global instability, racism, xenophobia, and terrorism (En.president.az, 2016).

Along with acting as a meeting point for key European and Muslim decision makers to solve global problems, from 2015 Azerbaijan has emphasised its role as a unifying force within the Islamic world between the Sunni and Shia sects (News.az, 2016). With the major political turbulence across the Middle East, especially in regard to the fallout of civil wars in Iraq and Syria; the rise of religious extremists; and the confrontation between Islamic religious sects, Azerbaijan has redoubled its efforts to brand itself a reliable, stable Muslim country in a troubling geography. The President of Azerbaijani describes Azerbaijan as the only Muslim country in the world that unites Sunni and Shiites Muslim followers at Friday prayer in a single mosque, where both religious sects pray before one religious imam, and where their religious holidays coexist in peace and harmony (Trend.az, 2018). This peaceful coexistence remains a distant dream in many of its neighbours, and Azerbaijan exploits this fact, positioning itself as a unique country in the Islamic world. In his speeches at Baku Process, the President presents state policies and events hosted by Azerbaijan; for instance declaring 2017 as the Year of Islamic Solidarity, and hosting the 4th Islamic Solidarity Games. The President continues to position Azerbaijan as an important Muslim
country which acts as a unifying force, bringing athletes from more than 63 Muslim countries to compete together in peace, regardless of religious differences at his every speech hosted under Baku Process(En.president.az, 2017).

**Targeted audience: World political community**

Although the names and the organisers of the various events under Baku Process tend to differ, the invitees of events represents the same community: world political community. The World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue has been supported and co-organised by international institutions, with close affiliation with Euro-Atlantic institutions such as UNESCO, the UN Alliance of Civilizations, World Tourism Organization, Council of Europe, North-South Center of the Council of Europe, as well as ISESCO. The list of attendees from the official website of the Baku Process illustrate that the World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue attracts more than 600 representatives from 115 countries from all continents, including heads of governments, former presidents, ministers, mayors, international organisations, and NGOs (Bakuprocess.az, 2018).

The Baku International Humanitarian Forum was organised jointly by the Azerbaijani and Russian governments. The list of attendees on Baku Process website shows that more than 500 participants representing the political and cultural elites of world communities are invited to attend the Baku International Humanitarian Forum, including well-known public and political figures, Nobel Prize winners, and leaders of influential international organisations (Bakuforum.az, 2018).

**Conclusion**

“Azerbaijan is the West in the East and the East in the West! Welcome!” A country with a very short diplomatic history and limited international exposure, Azerbaijan brands itself as an inclusive country to Eastern and Western audiences alike. As the paper has demonstrated, Azerbaijani attempts to position itself as a Western country toward Gulf States to gain economic benefits, while at the same time cultivating an image of an Eastern country toward the western dominant political community. The nation branding literature, on the other hand, suggests that a successful international image building campaign requires a single, unified national image based on the country’s competitive identity and a clear vision of how it wants to be known in the world (Olins, 2002; Anholt, 2007). Azerbaijan challenges this idea, deploying an overarching branding strategy that entails various identities depending on the target groups. Hence, the country ends up cultivating multi-layer and complex country images. These images are not always complementary, and are indeed frequently contradictory, leading to confusion among the target audience. The simultaneous projection of multiple images can be especially confusing for a country that is not well-known internationally. If multi-faced nation branding continues, as a newly visible country on the international stage, Azerbaijan has yet to find a way to manage and control its diverse images among the target audiences.

Regardless of the branding dimension (culture, language, environment, economy), a country focuses on branding for positive image building. The usual practice entails a focus on simplicity, highlighting the unique characteristics of the nation in question. By branding itself as part of two world civilisations, not only does Azerbaijan generate a complex image, it dilutes or even loses its uniqueness and authenticity. This is especially true when it brands itself as a European country to attract tourists from the Gulf States, which it does by highlighting its similarities with European states. It is true that when it comes to political branding toward the West, Azerbaijan – as an Eastern country – seeks to distinguish itself from other Eastern countries by emphasising its tolerance, harmony, and goodwill. However, in order to differentiate itself, it necessarily brands the East in a less positive light. Hence, it is still under question whether the West in the East and East in the West narrative has helped Azerbaijan to articulate its competitive edge to its desired targeted audience as the country tries to commercialize its national identity for economic and for political purposes.

**Bibliography**


Place branding for small places and surrounding areas: Interdependence of time and place brands

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Abstract

Due to global processes in international economies, territorial competition between places has all over the world increased (Baker, 2012). It has resulted in searching for marketing instruments and solutions and influenced the development of place marketing and place branding techniques. A large number of regions implement place branding strategies in order to attract people or businesses to the place or to prevent migration out of regions (Mikulcak et al, 2015).

Today, literature links place marketing and place branding. In many research the definition and terms of place branding is studied with the emphasis on the capacity of the brand to be differentiated and creating and promoting an external image aimed at attracting tourists, investors and creative people (Kavaratzis, 2005). Place brand is considered as a “network of associations” and the process of place branding formation is seen as the interaction between associations connected with places in people’s minds, that are based on materiality, practices, institutions and representations (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015).

Even though place branding is a widely studied and implemented approach, there is very little information and research on place branding at a small, local scale, especially for small cities and surrounding or rural areas, where large budgets are not available and which suffer from the outflow of young and skilled citizens (The Place Brand Observer, 2017). Consequently, all the places are different, and branding process and its implementation substantially depend on local conditions, (Kavaratzis, 2008) that implies a range of specific issues for branding small cities and surrounding or rural areas. Moreover, rural economies are usually cyclical, so supply and demand there depends on a season or time of a year.

In place branding literature some emphasis is put on analyzing attributes of places as a core element of place branding (Kavaratzis, 2015). However, very little attention is paid to the concept of time and time-related issues. Thus, there is a research gap in studying place brand as a time-related concept. Therefore, there is a question, how concepts of time and place are interconnected in place branding theory and applied into practice. The academic context provides the research questions. The central overarching question of the PhD research will be identifying the specificity of place branding for small cities and rural areas in connection with the concept of time – “What is the role of time in place branding for small places and surrounding areas”.

Thus, this study aims at investigating the two gaps in the literature mentioned above (i.e. branding for small places and the relationship between time and branding). To answer the research questions, a series of cases will be studied in Russia and two European countries using preferably the methods based on the interpretative paradigm of social sciences. A series of interviews will be conducted with main places’ stakeholders. The results will be compared with the outcomes of observations and secondary data analysis.
Collaborative visual narratives as a place-based, inclusive and transformative approach

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Abstract

In the last couple of decades, Place branding initiatives and strategies have been centred on discourses of competitiveness between countries and regions in regards to attract investments, businesses, visitors and residents (Morgan, et al., 2011). This focus on competitiveness and market drive resulted in quick-fix initiatives, (Karavatis, Giovanardi & Lichrou, 2017) which, therefore, failed to address the geographical and socio-political contexts that define places. A growing number of critiques is pointing towards the “placelessness” (Gale, Bosak, & Caplins, 2013) of such approaches as well as the disregard of local communities needs and views (Ahn, Hym & Kim, 2015). Indeed, Karavatis, Giovanardi and Lichrou (2017) reinforce these critiques stating that place branding strategies cannot continue to overlook the need for more responsible and socially sensitive approaches, which acknowledge the importance of resident participation in decision-making.

Therefore, aiming to contribute with novel and critical view over place branding, this paper purposes a new framework that is place-based, inclusive and transformative. At the same time, it stimulates local communities’ support, engagement and empowerment by giving these communities the opportunity to influence, be part of the process, and communicate their perspectives via their own stories and place values (visual narratives).

To test the framework, a collaborative multi-actor case study was applied in two different geographical and social contexts. The first case study was developed in a rather small and deprived village in a rural area in the interior of Portugal, whereas the second case study was applied in a more affluent area which is part of a National Park, therefore, more touristically developed. The groups with whom we collaborated also differ in formation, in the Portuguese case the people were gathered specifically for the research intervention, while in Wales the group already existed, being established to promote tourism around the area. Both groups collaboratively worked with the researcher to create insightful narratives on the human-nature relationships that were converted into two documentaries.

Bearing in mind the importance of geographical and sociological contextualization in a place-based approach, some reflections on the discourses provided by the two communities will be drawn. It intends to highlight the main commonalities and differences regarding what is valued by these communities in their respective place. It intends equally to reveal how the process of involvement and cooperation was developed as well as how the ownership and power over the visual narratives (documentary) was undertaken by the communities.

References


Main sessions

Arranged by first author’s last name
The factors creating affinity between destinations and target audiences in tourism ads: Towards a conceptual model

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Abstract

Most place advertisements try to attract tourism and investment; some attempt to repair an image, but all of them try to create sympathy and build relationships. Advertising, along with other marketing tools, contributes toward creating a "projected image" of destinations. In the face of growing competition in the tourism industry and an increasing number of crisis events during the last two decades, place marketing has become more challenging. Marketers have begun seeking new ways to create affinity with various target audiences. Using qualitative content analysis of 108 case studies from around the world, this study develops a theoretical model offering typologies of factors used by tourism marketers to achieve affinity in tourism ads. The model takes into account four factors used to achieve campaign goals: the target audience (global, continent/area, country, diaspora, domestic), spheres (national, geographical, economic, cultural), appeal strategies (rational, emotional), and tools (slogans, text, visuals, logos, models).

Full paper

1. Introduction

The growing competition between tourism destinations, especially those perceived as providing "similar" products, such as sea & sun or ski destinations, and the frequent crises in tourism over the past two decades pose many challenges for tourism marketers. These marketers have been forced to seek creative marketing strategies, to brand destinations differently, and to search for more resilient target audiences during crisis events, while attempting to create an affinity with potential consumers (Aaker, 2010; Asseraf & Shoham, 2017; Byun & Jang, 2015; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009; Kim & Lehto, 2013). The urgency of the destination marketers’ need to create this affinity is growing with the popularity of new media, which allow marketers to directly reach a specific audience (Frochot & Batat, 2013). However, there is very little research on the attempts of marketers to create an affinity between destinations and a variety of target audiences and the destinations’ "projected image" that they need to create in order to succeed (Asseraf & Shoham, 2017; Byun & Jang, 2015; Kim & Lihto, 2013). Most studies of affinity have evolved in the field of COO (Country-of-Origin), were demand-driven, and did not seriously discuss the supply side for marketers/advertisers and what they should do to create the desired affinity (Asseraf & Shoham, 2017; Kim & Lehto, 2013; Byun & Jang, 2015; Souiden, Ladhari & Chiadmi, 2017).

The objectives of this study were to develop a conceptual basis and theoretical model that would offer a typology of geographical target audiences (global, continent/area,
country, diaspora, domestic), spheres (national, geographical, economic, cultural), appeal strategies (rational, emotional), and means (slogans, text, visuals, logos, models). To do this, the study utilized qualitative content analysis of 108 case studies, which were collected from four various sources.

As a result, this research established a methodological framework that could also become a practical tool for tourism-marketing organizations in their efforts to create affinity with various target audiences. Affinity research is especially important for marketers and policymakers because it can help them overcome a negative image and negative attitudes toward destinations, as well as help restore destination image after crisis events (Asseraf & Shoham, 2017; Bekk, Spørre & Kruse, 2016; Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Souiden et al., 2017).

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Destination’s Projected Image and Branding

Authors distinguish between “destination image” (DI) and “projected image” (PI). According to Stephenkova and Li (2014), a destination image includes the attributes of a destination and the perceptions that characterize it. The projected image, on the other hand, “is formed through promotional activities of the DMOs and those in the tourist industry as well as news and information about the destination from multiple sources” (Kim & Lehto, 2013: 120).

The efforts of decision makers, stakeholders and marketers to build a certain image and to attach values, narratives, and perceptions to specific destinations are done using various tools, such as ads, PR (public relations), and social media. Recent decades have seen researchers and practitioners increasingly use new concepts, such as “nation branding,” “destination branding,” and “brand identity” (Aaker, 2010). Although there are significant differences among them, these terms refer to a broad set of activities undertaken by decision makers, marketers, and stakeholders aimed at marketing and enhancing a place’s visibility (Frochot & Batat, 2013). Baker (2007) defined “destination branding” as designing the experiences and meaning connected with a place so that they are positive, attractive and unique. According to Lee, Cai and O’Leary (2012), any nation-branding strategy for tourism should start with a selection of key dimensions of national identity that a country wishes to emphasize for the target audience.

Destination-brand values are principles, concepts, or themes that a destination wants to be associated with, such as fun, authenticity, environmental friendliness, green spaces, history and tradition, safety, and so on (Baker, 2007). Marketers invest serious effort in ensuring that when tourists hear the name of the destination, they immediately think about its “projected” values. The aim of many advertisements, press releases, and other events is to make sure that tourists will “assimilate” the destination values as part of the place’s identity. When these tourists look for one of the destination’s values, fun for example, they will be convinced that they can find it (only) in this destination. Northern Ireland’s marketing plan, for example, focused on its core brand values, using the elements of hospitality, friendliness, and humor to restore its positive image (UNWTO, 2009).

According to Souiden et al. (2017), destinations, like people, need to develop steady personality traits that describe and differentiate them.

This allows people to attach the traits to the destinations.

2.2 Target Audience and Destination Personality

One main goal of creating a projected image by means of the branding process is, as mentioned, to effect a specific target audience. The audience component in the communication process is a well-researched field. According to this process, a source/sender encodes a message to a specific recipient who is supposed to decode it (Chaudhary, 2010). For example, if advertisers want to brand their destination as suitable for a family vacation they will add visuals or video of children playing with their happy parents in the playground. As we already know, not all customers are alike, and different strategies and approaches are needed for different segments. Customers have different values, dreams, resources, life style and preferences. In order to convince them to buy a product, there is a need to attach these preferences to the product (Cahill, 1997). For example, Chaudhary (2010) presented the cultural difference between Asian and European tourists: Asians are more oriented towards the group, with an emphasis on sociability; Europeans are more oriented towards the individual, with an emphasis on privacy. It seems logical that destination marketers who want to attract these two kinds of tourists will use different strategies and emphasize the destination’s different characteristics. To gain a competitive advantage, marketers need to define their target audience in order to fit its characteristics to the “personality” of the marketed product (Kim & Lehto, 2013).

Research shows that using human traits improves the marketers’ search for a target audience as well as their...
understanding of the relationship between brands and potential consumers (Aaker, 2010). According to D’Astous and Boujbel (2007), the personality perspective fits well with the self-image congruence theory, which proposes that people prefer objects whose psychological characteristics are congruent with their own psychological characteristics. The study was based on the experience of researchers and marketers trying to understand how brand personality affected the product evaluation, product position, and purchase intentions of a variety of target audiences (Souiden et al., 2017). The field that dealt with relations between foreign brands and local audiences was called “Country-of-Origin” (COO). It was natural that the field of place marketing would adopt the knowledge gained in the field of brand personality. D’Astous and Boujbel (2007) claimed that it was important to discuss the personality perspective of countries because the presentation of countries is often human-like (Kim & Lehto, 2013; Bekk et al., 2015). Human traits provide rich meaning that permits the prediction of different types of actions. Research has provided empirical evidence that well-established and well-communicated brand personality influences consumer preference and usage, determines product evaluations, evokes emotions in consumers, and increases levels of loyalty to a brand (Kim & Lehto, 2013; Bekk et al., 2015).

2.3 Affinity in General and in Tourism

The study of the affinity between audiences and products has grown, particularly in the field of COO (“Country-of-Origin”), as part of the effort of researchers and marketers to understand why local audiences buy foreign products. One of the concepts of the affinity theory is that consumers are more attached to brands that they perceive as being similar to them. According to Bekk et al. (2015), the self-congruence theory states that congruence between the image of a brand and the consumer’s self-image was positively related to the attitude, behavior, and loyalty of the person toward the brand. Asseraf and Shoham (2017) claimed that, “In general, consumer affinity is considered a positive attitude toward a specific focal country” (p. 2). Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2014) defined consumer affinity as “feelings of liking and fondness for a specific foreign country” (p. 774).

The term “affinity” has been used in at least three contexts in marketing and management (affinity marketing, cultural affinity, intercultural communication affinity) (Nes et al., 2014, p. 775). Oberecker et al. (2008) mentioned that the sociology literature refers to the term “affinity” as “forces that cause one person...to be drawn to, and seek a relationship with, another...based on the latter’s attributes (Hartz, Watson & Noyes in Oberecker et al., 2008, p. 24).

Bekk et al. (2015) claimed that choosing a holiday destination depended on the interplay between the personality characteristics of the destination and the people going to visit it. Tourists might evaluate a place more positively if they perceive a fit between themselves and the destination, in terms of their own personality characteristics. In their research, Bekk et al. introduced the tourist destination personality similarity (TDPS) into tourism research and defined it as similarity between tourist perception of their own personality and their perception of the destination’s personality. According to Nes et al. (2014), “people who develop affinity toward a foreign country may do so because they identify with the country’s culture, they consider the country to be one of their in-groups because they find it attractive, or find that their identification with the country contributes to their social identity” (p. 774-5).

According to Kotsi, Balakrishnan, Michael and Ramsoy (2018), the key was not only creating positive emotions but also creating emotional bonds with customers that result in a positive attitude. In addition, they claimed that it was not necessary to experience the product or place in order to have these “positive emotions.” There was a need to find emotional connections, which could be achieved by using various factors such as history, heritage, and culture (Kotsi et al., 2018).

There are a number of factors and spheres that marketers can use to connect the destination to a specific audience. Previous studies have found that many factors from various fields influence the image of a destination and the affinity between it and a target audience (Nes et al., 2014; Kotsi et al., 2018; Souiden et al., 2017). Oberecker et al. (2008) explored several bases for consumer affinity such as lifestyle, culture, scenery, politics and economics. Nes et al. (2014) claim that affinity derived from several categories: cultural, arts & history, people, landscape and climate, food, politics, family and friends and travel. Kotsi et al. (2018) suggest five image categories to deal with ads, which affect perception of a place brand: lifestyle, celebrations and festivals, artifacts and daily life, wildlife and landscape, and occupations. Souiden et al. (2017) claimed that most studies on DI focus on functional attributes such as landscape/surrounding nature, cultural attractions, nightlife and
entertainment, shopping facilities, residents’ receptiveness and safety.

First and Avraham (2009), who studied the use of the American myth in the marketing of products in Israeli ads, offered a model that included four spheres and their variables: 1. Cultural sphere (cultural products, local and international popular heroes, and holidays). 2. National sphere (flag, language, political leaders, etc.). 3. Geographical sphere (borders, naming, landscapes and sights, cities, and real estate discourse); 4. Economic sphere (technology, consumption, lifestyle, etc.). While most of the other research looked at the affinity created from the consumers’ point of view, Avraham and First’s model analyzed the affinity from the advertisers’ point of view. It is for this reason that we would like to adopt their model for our analysis.

Advertisers can divide the target audience for a particular brand by different characteristics such as age, gender, economic status, lifestyle, level of acquaintance, knowledge/experience with the brand, or proximity (Kotler & Armstrong, 1989). Avraham and Ketter (2008) found that most of the ads for places were targeted towards audiences according to a geographic cross-section (a specific country or continent). This finding makes sense, based on the simple logic that countries, by virtue of the fact that they contain a wide variety of tourist sites, hotels, and dining options, would not want to restrict themselves to reaching only a few target audiences solely based on age, lifestyle or economic status. For example, an advertisement for the marketing of Croatia in US would be aired in the hope that it would attract American tourists of many population segments, such as various ages or lifestyles.

Several authors have explored various groups of strategies used by localities to promote, brand and restore a positive image in order to create a competitive advantage for their destination and affinity between the destination and potential customers (Beirman, 2003; Baker, 2007). Among the many groups of strategies these authors identified, one that stood out was “audience-focused strategies”. The common denominator of audience-focused strategies is to brand, promote or improve a destination’s image by reaching out to certain geographical target audiences directly. Here, destination marketers address a specific audience and hint or say directly that this audience should feel positively toward the marketed destination for various reasons, such as common values, history, religion, or culture with the hope that this connection will encourage them to visit (Avraham and Ketter, 2016). An example of this is mentioning the historical and cultural proximity between the US and UK in order to create affinity of American tourists to the UK and by that to encourage them to visit the British Islands.

2.4 Advertising and Tourism Ads Components

Marketers use a variety of tools and means—such as advertising, public relations, promotion, and new media—in order to promote a chosen message, strategy, or branding (Tasci, 2011). This paper focuses on advertising that has many aims. One of them is to convince members of the target audience about the experience they will have if they use a product, as well as the dreams and needs (real or socially constructed) that they hope to fulfill. In achieving those dreams and needs, a product image has a central role (Kotler & Armstrong, 1989). According to Brito and Pratas (2015), “an ad is a (creative) combination of execution possibilities (layout, design, color, music, celebrities, etc.) which meet the delineated message strategy... a specific brand-related strategy (logo, brand signature and information) is incorporated into the ad, conveying an appropriate sales argument (or distinctive brand attribute)” (p. 123). To achieve effective communication, advertising is largely dependent on shared values and includes verbal and nonverbal cues and images, as well as printed and spoken words to convey meaning. Advertising’s objectives may include increasing awareness of the destination; conveying information; reminding the target audience about a certain destination; or persuading them to visit, to stay longer, or to revisit (Kotler & Armstrong, 1989).

Kladou et al. (2017) recommend including several brand elements in a campaign and describing their importance in order to succeed in attracting tourists. Usually, a campaign’s central components and brand elements are logo, slogan, visuals, text and human models (Tasci, 2011):

1. **Logo** According to Pimentel (1997), a logo is visual shorthand that carries a desirable meaning and association for products, services, and organizations. The goal of a logo is usually to create instant differentiation, easy identification, and also to promote awareness and promise delivery regarding the destination.

2. **Slogan** The slogan generally carries the essence of the destination’s spirit, trying to condense the marketing campaign into a pithy phrase (Gold, 1994).
According to Pike (2014), a slogan has many roles, such as to position destinations, offer benefits in the mind of the target audience, and differentiate the destination. A slogan is also designed for the long run. Lee et al. (2006) claimed that slogans established destination USP (unique selling proposition) and the market targeting.

3. Visuals, symbols or icons - Visuals, symbols or icons have the ability to transfer a variety of messages in a quick and efficient way to the target audience. Frochot and Batat (2013) claim that pictures communicate, in addition to the destination, also attributes, characteristics, concepts, values and ideas.

4. Text The text in advertisements is an important component for communicating messages to the target audience and convincing them that the destination’s values are suitable for the audience or for its needs (Kotler & Armstrong, 1989). Text is used in slogans, conveying messages about the advantages of the destination.

5. Human Models In most ads, advertisers use human models in order to help transfer messages to the target audience or in order to strengthen the association of particular values with the brand. Usually these models are well known or similar to the target audience members; for example, the use of child models in an ad to promote a game for children (Kotler & Armstrong, 1989).

3. Methodology
The main research question in this study is: Which spheres, appeal strategies and means were used by tourism marketers in ads in order to create affinity between destinations and various target audiences? The specific research questions were:

RQ1: What was the geographical base of the target audiences that were at the center of campaigns and advertisements that were trying to create affinity for target audiences to tourism destinations?

RQ2: Which spheres did destinations marketers use to create an affinity between various target audiences and destinations?

RQ3: Which appeal strategies and means did destinations marketers use to create an affinity between various target audiences and destinations?

3.1 Study Methods
3.1.1 Qualitative content analysis
To answer the above questions, this study utilized qualitative content analysis, based on a semiotic interpretation of texts. The qualitative approach is especially useful for studies attempting to explain social interaction in general and makes use of inductive reasoning, generalizing from the social reality to a more comprehensive theory (Tuchman, 1991). This method is based on a thorough understanding of the analyzed units and examines the common signifying process.

Researchers using this method believe that texts reveal general discourse patterns (Pauly, 1991) through the appearance of motifs, labels, definitions, logos, symbols, visuals, slogans, and generalizations presented in the ads as exclusively characterizing a specific place or destination (van Dijk, 1988). Similarly, Morgan and Pritchard (2001) noted that ads could be analyzed by means of both their language and visuals. The qualitative content analysis is a popular method among place marketing and branding studies (de Jager, 2010).

Ads and case studies analyzed
The current study included only ads that attempted to create affinity between destinations and certain audiences on a specific geographical basis (continent/area, country, diaspora or domestic); for example, an ad to promote the Bahamas for an American audience. When examining the case studies and advertisements, the researchers looked for spheres, appeal strategies and means while analyzing slogans, symbols, visuals, models and text. The 108 ads and case studies included in the analysis were those produced for destinations by official bodies (national tourism offices, ministries of foreign affairs, etc.) or recognized organizations or associations such as hotels chains or airlines, and include efforts to create affinity between destinations and certain audiences on the geographical base. Although previous studies in place marketing were actually individual case studies, focused on the marketing efforts of specific destinations (de Jager, 2010; Hudson & Richie, 2009), there has been a shortage of broad-based studies that analyze numerous case studies. By using a large number of case studies, this paper aims to reach typologies, general conclusions, and insights in order to build a theoretical model. As Cahill claimed, “Typologies can be an important method of theory...
building, not just descriptive tool” (Cahill, 1997, p. 12).

**Sources**

The case studies were collected from several sources:

1. **Video sharing sites, YouTube.**
To find the ads included in our analysis, we inserted the words “X (name of a country) tourism advertisement/campaign/ad/communication”, “X (name of a country) attracting investment/industries/firms/businesses/initiatives/citizens/immigrants”, according to the existing names of 192 countries taken from the United Nations site—for example, “Croatia tourism ad” or “India investment ad” (ads are marked #1-12 in Appendix A). From their messages, content and language (for example: “We are only 3 hours from the US”), it seems that most of the 12 videos that we found were primarily aimed at American/Western Europe audiences.

2. **Tourism Slogans Website, Bored Panda.** This website presents the slogan of each country in the world.

3. **Academic literature of place marketing and branding.**

4. **Five popular tourism magazines** (AAA World, Budget Travel, CNT-Conde Nast Traveler, NGT-National Geographic Traveler, TAL-Travel and Leisure). These magazines are all published in the US, and their main target audiences are American. The original idea was to collect data from these sources over a ten-year period from 2008 to 2017. As the size of the sample became too big, we decided to narrow it by only analyzing the first and last two years of this period (2008-2009 and 2016-2017). Each monthly issue of these magazines contains an average of 40 full-page ads, 20 of which are for tourism services (hotels, cruises) and about 10 on average for destinations. It was these 10 ads per issue that were analyzed. We estimate that over the four-year period, some 2,500 ads for destinations were examined; of these, only those that included an effort to create affinity to a certain audience based on geography were included in the sample.

Although having a sample of ads from a defined source and period can be an advantage, it is sometimes necessary to use various sources in order to build a model or a theory (Avraham & Keter, 2008). The 108 ads and case studies presented here are only the tip of the iceberg of the hundreds of ads and case studies found that tried to create an affinity to a certain geographical audience. We use these 108 cases in order to illustrate our point and to give examples of the model’s factors. Thus, if one or two examples are given in the article to present one of the model’s components, it should not be understood that these examples were the only ones found. In addition, in order to deal with so many case studies, we did not deal deeply with each, but rather brought attention to one of the ad’s components. The study did not attempt to examine if the advertisers’ efforts to create affinity through these ads were successful.

**The Model**

Based on the existing theoretical knowledge and the analysis of dozens of case studies, a model was built, which is presented in Figure 1.

4.1 **Target Audiences**

The first rectangle in Figure 1 deals with the various target audiences. According to the model, they are five possibilities: global, continent/area, foreign country, diaspora, and domestic.

4.1.1 **Global / general audience (no geographical base).** Here the campaigns’ messages are not targeted to an audience in a specific geographical area. There are two types of audiences: worldwide tourists and special interest tourism (SIT) groups.

4.1.1.1 **Worldwide tourists.** These campaigns and the marketing efforts do not address any audience on a specifically geographical basis: “it’s for everybody.” For example: “Scotland – Welcome the world,” “Chile - All are welcome,” “Dominican Republic – Has it all,” and “It’s all in Georgia” (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001, p. 280). It seems that marketers here did not attempt to create affinity to any particular audience on a geographical (or other) basis.

4.1.1.2 **SIT—special interest tourism.** The target audiences here are worldwide, without any geographical basis. Nevertheless, they have other “bases,” such as seeking “pure” nature, adventure, bird watching, and gastronomic tourism. Advertisers appeal to such audiences by using visuals, words, and symbols that are familiar to the audience. For example, while marketing adventure tourism, an ad could show a jeep crossing a turbulent river. The current paper...
did not deal with this type of advertising, which justifies a separate study. Examples for such campaigns came from Thailand, which was trying to aim at LBGT tourists by using the slogan "Go Thai - Be Free" (Avraham & Ketter, 2016).

**4.1.2 Specific continent or area.** Here the geographical base of the target audience is a specific continent, region, or group of countries. Marketers believe that there are certain characteristics that exist in the destination that may connect it to the residents of a region or continent while trying to create an affinity between the two. For example, Egyptian marketers tried hard to address potential tourists from the Persian Gulf states in several campaigns during the Arab Spring events. In 2014, Egypt’s Ministry of Tourism launched the campaign called “We miss you” to attract visitors from the Gulf states and launched the “Masr Qareeba” (“Egypt is near”) campaign to the same audience (Avraham, 2015). Thus, on the basis of cultural, religious, or historical proximity, marketers try to create affinity to the destination.

**4.1.3 Specific country.** Another type of target audience for marketers of destinations is a resident of a specific foreign country or city. Appealing to this audience is done through the use of a variety of spheres (such as cultural or geography, to be detailed below). This process can occur in regular times as well as during a crisis. For example, there were attempts by various destinations to create an affinity with the British audience: “Las Vegas – Visit a place where your accent is an aphrodisiac” (Berns, 2015); “WOW Philippines – There are more English speakers here than in England” (#4). In these campaigns the marketers tried to play on the accent and the language of the British in order to create an affinity between them and different destinations.

**4.1.4 Diaspora.** Here the target audience comprises citizens, or their descendants, who have migrated from the destination, whom marketers are trying now to convince to return “home.” For example, Morocco succeeded in
attracting some 2 million Moroccans living abroad as part of “Operation Merhava,” which was designed to convince Moroccan exiles to visit their homeland (Barel, 2017). Scotland ran a similar campaign to attract Scottish descendants in America with slogans such as: “I am Scot...I’m New Yorker, but I’m going home...Home coming Scotland” (NGT, November/December 2008).

4.1.5 Domestic. Here the marketers address a domestic audience, on a national basis, with the goal of encouraging them to come and visit local destinations related to the national narrative or a destination that has experienced a crisis. This “encouragement” is usually done by using patriotism and by playing on national feelings. Some examples were: “Culpeper, VA – Our history is the history of America” (NGT, May/June 2009); “Washington State – Where will your story begin?” (NGT, May/June 2009); “Saratoga – Where American history lives on...” (NGT, May/June 2009). A connection to a national narrative is often made during a crisis. Advertisers then claim that the local audience’s visit to a destination will help its efforts to rehabilitate itself, improve the national mood, or help the nation defeat the “bad guys.” For example, after the flooding in New Orleans following Hurricane Katrina, the “Louisiana rebirth – Restoring the soul of America” campaign appeared, and after 9/11, New York State appealed to Americans’ heightened patriotism by using the slogan: “Come show your love to New York State” (Avraham & Ketter, 2008).

4.2 Spheres

As mentioned, there are a number of spheres that marketers can use to create affinity and connect the destination to a specific audience. The current study used First and Avraham’s model (2009), which includes four spheres: the cultural, national geographical and economic.

4.2.1 The cultural sphere. The cultural sphere is central to marketers’ attempts to create an affinity between destinations and a specific audience. Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2013) found that cultural similarity influences the decision to travel to a foreign destination. This sphere includes the use of art, film, literature, music, and celebrities/cultural heroes, which are known to the target audience. The goal is to connect the target audience to the destination.

4.2.1.1 Culture, sport, art, and cultural symbols. Here marketers mention the destination’s culture and art in general. Some examples were: “Poland – Encounter with culture” (Budget Travel, April 2009); “Pasadena – culture & more” (NGT, October 2008); “Holland. Visit centuries of art and design” (Budget Travel, December 2008/January 2009). In addition, in a campaign to improve the image of Germany in Britain, the marketers used Germany’s rich cultural heritage, its bohemian Love Parade in Berlin and icons such as Boris Becker (tennis player), Claudia Schiffer (model) and the designer Jil Sander (Rossingh, 2003).

4.2.1.2 Movies and literature. In order to create an affinity to various audiences, marketers also use cultural products such as movies, literature, writers, and poets that are well known to the members of the target audience. Some examples were: “Kauai – See where it all began. Relive the magic and romance of the movie South Pacific” (NGT, March 2009); “Vicky Cristina Barcelona: On August 15 see Vicky Cristina Barcelona, the next day, book your trip to Spain” (NGT, May 2009); “Discover America’s national treasures (Washington, DC) A movie with Nicolas Cage” (NGT, January/February 2008).

4.2.1.3 Music. Marketers use music in general, with a focus on well-known musicians and singers, to create affinity. Some examples were “Live from the birthplace of America’s music – Mississippi” (NGT, March 2009); “Tennessee – Graceland” (NGT, March 2009); and “My Houston – Beyoncé” (TAL, April 2008). These campaigns associated the destination to several musical symbols using a variety of techniques.

4.2.1.4 Food. Food can also be used to create affinity. One example was: “Idaho. Great Potatoes. Tasty Destination” and “Louisiana – we’re really cookin’!” (Pike, 2004). Similarly, aiming at the American market, Canada used its culinary tradition when Prime Minister Justin Trudeau talked in a promotional ad about emerging food trends across Canada (#1). California did the same in the slogan: “Welcome to California, the land of wine and food” (CNT, September 2009). The state of Georgia emphasized its food scene with: “You might visit Savannah today for the fine food and charming atmosphere...” (NGT, March 2009). In 2009, a marketer for Japan ran the “A taste of Japan” campaign (NGT, April 2009), which offered: “From savory street food to premium sake tasting, multi-course meals, a cutting-edge nouvelle cuisine” (CNT, January 2009). Korea ran a similar campaign: “Eat Korea... come and enjoy one of the world’s healthiest and tastiest cuisines in one of the world’s coolest countries” (NGT, January/February 2017).
4.2.2 The national sphere. The national sphere consists of several of the destination’s elements, such as language, politics/history/heritage, and national leaders/politicians. It also encompasses key values that marketers believe can connect with different audiences and create affinity.

4.2.2.1 Language. The language of ads is a classic tool to connect with any target audience, so ads that use the language of the audience are much more effective. Beyond that phenomenon, this section addresses the overt emphasis on the destination’s use of the audience’s language to create affinity. Some examples targeting English-speaking audiences were: Holland - “Did you notice that I am speaking English? We all do…” (#2); Belize - “The only English-speaking country in Central America.” (#3); and the Philippines - “We speak over 176 local languages but we love playing around with English.” (#4). It is easy to see that emphasis on the English language was popular among destination marketers. It was important to draw target audiences “closer” to the destination and to combat potential fears regarding how the tourists would manage when they visited the destination.

4.2.2.2 Political history/heritage. Obviously, this characteristic will be central due to the great interest of tourists in the history and heritage of places. In the process of creating affinity, there are two main audiences:

1. Local audience – Some examples were: "Maryland - Gen. Lee invaded Maryland 144 years ago. You may follow in his footsteps any time you wish" (AAA World, July/August 2008); “North Carolina. Two armies colliding. One nation at stake. Bentonville.

2. International audience – Some examples were: "Discover the treasures of world heritage. Find and explore UNESCO monuments in Slovakia” (NGT, January/February 2017); “Egypt – Where it all begins” (NGT, January/February 2017); “Mozambique – Come to where it all started” (Bored Panda, 2016). Different audiences seek historical sites. Marketers offer the experience of national and international events and moments. For example, in 2009, Germany ran a campaign to attract tourists to celebrate the 20-year anniversary of the fall of the Berlin wall, using the slogan: "Relive defining moments of history in Germany” (Budget Travel, September 2009).

4.2.2.3 National leaders and politicians. Marketers use well-known national leaders and politicians to attract tourists to the destination. Sometimes these leaders try to attract foreign tourists to a country, in general, and sometimes to attract domestic tourists to a certain city. At times, they direct the potential tourists to visit the homes and offices of national leaders. A great example of using a politician to attract tourism to a country was an ad in which Canadian Prime Minister Justin Trudeau shared a meal at a well-known restaurant with Kristen Kish, a top chef from the United States. While talking about emerging food trends across Canada, Trudeau also mentioned Canada’s central values (#1). The idea behind this ad was to use a popular national politician to convince people from the United States to visit Canada and to connect the Canada brand to a well-known cultural symbol from the United States. Naturally, marketers try to attract tourism by using politicians who grew up in destinations or spent time there. Some examples were: “Hot Springs, Arkansas - Home of President Bill Clinton” and “Hope, Arkansas - Boyhood home of Bill Clinton.” Washington D.C. used a photo of Franklin Roosevelt in a tourism ad (CNT, May 1999) and Huntsville, Texas tried to associate the city with one of the founders of Texas by promoting "General Sam Houston’s birthday and Texas independence day celebration” (Avraham & Daugherty, 2012).

4.2.2.4 Values. Marketers use a certain place and its values to connect to specific a target audience. For example, Manheim and Albritton (1984) discovered that public relations firms in the United States recognized the national appreciation of human rights and democracy, so the PR firms promoted these values in Third World countries. The marketers wished to demonstrate to a certain audience that the destination’s values and inhabitants were similar to its own country’s values. This strategy may also be called the “like me strategy.” For example, after Saudi Arabia’s name was linked to the September 11th terrorist attacks in the United States, an ad campaign was started to restore the Saudis’ positive image.
It emphasized Saudi Arabia’s ties to America and their similarity:

“We are separated by three oceans, one language, but we share the same desires, the same dreams, same joy, same pain and same hope that we can make our world a safer place together...” (#6)

Besides language, this ad sought to connect with Americans on the basis of similar values, dreams and emotions. During its Arab Spring, Tunisia likewise planned several events under the slogan “Free to Live It All.” The campaign invited Western tourists to visit post-revolution Tunisia and support its struggle for freedom. It also reassured them about the security situation in the country (Avraham, 2015).

4.2.2.5 People / inhabitants. Here the marketers use the local people and their characteristics to create affinity between the target audience and the place. Thus, marketers highlight appropriate positive traits, among which may be welcoming, friendly, diligent, and efficient. As Nes et al. (2014) noted, “Affinity towards the people of a country can translate into affinity towards the country itself” (p. 776). Two examples were: “Romania – Come as a tourist, leave as a friend” (Morgan et al., 2002) and for the Philippines “Everybody, and absolutely everybody, knows how to smile and have fun...” (#4). Israel also endeavored to present the human side of the country and its multiple aspects. The “Shalom” campaign presented the slogan “You’ll love Israel from the first Shalom,” displaying interesting Israelis and their special connection to the land and landscape. This emphasized the human side of the country (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Similarly, Kosovo used its citizens in the nation-branding campaign called: “The young Europeans campaign,” in which promising and educated young inhabitants were presented in order to attract investors (#7).

4.2.2.6 Religion. Another way to create affinity is by addressing the religion of the marketed destination and certain audiences. For example, the slogan to promote Israel in the United Kingdom, called “Can you really experience the Millennium in SE 10?” was designed to connect the Christian-Judaic tradition of the destination to certain audiences (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001). Another example was from Croatia, which tried to re-introduce itself to British tourists at the end of the 1990s with the following: “The population is 90% Roman Catholic. So many aspects of Croatia will remind you of Italy, Spain and France, where strong family values remain and churches are always full on Sundays” (Morgan et al., 2002, p. 98). This text emphasized the religion component (in the national sphere) but also used association to well-known brands (in the geographical sphere) and values (in the national sphere).

4.2.3 The geographical sphere. The geographical sphere and natural environment are central in appealing to various target audiences (Frochot & Batat, 2013). Marketers attempted to create affinity between the destination and the target audience using the geographic sphere in several ways.

4.2.3.1 Geographical proximity and access. Tourists are usually concerned about the long distance to a destination. Here, the marketers try to give the audiences a feeling of geographical proximity of the destination location. Some examples were: “Belize:...Located only two hours from the US...” (#3); “Sierra Leon: Only 5 hours flying time from Europe...” (#12); “Canada – The wonderful world at your doorstep”; and “Wales – Two hours and a million miles away” (Morgen & Pritchard, 2001). Here, the frequent use of the word “only” was intentional and clearly emphasized how close the destination was to the target audience’s home country and that “is not as far as you think.”

The visa policy of the destination is another characteristic that influences a destination’s accessibility. Naturally, the visa issue bothers many tourists. Marketers try to create an image of an accessible place that does not demand a visa or a passport from specific audiences. Pike (2004) noted some examples: “Florida Keys. No passport. No shots. Friendly natives”; “No passport? No problem. Puerto Rico”; “Antigua-Barbuda - free visa to Americans and Europeans.” From these examples, marketers seemed to believe that the exemption from passport requirements was especially attractive to people in the United States who did not have a passport.

4.2.3.2 Sceneries and existing places. The use of landscapes to market destinations is the most important element in marketing tourism because tourists want to see destinations with their own eyes. Here, one can find that marketers use the visual aspects of the sites - such as beaches, mountains, and forests – along with slogans that describe these landscapes of the destination. One example was: “St. Lucia – Simply Beautiful” (Bored Panda, 2016).

Another way which can be considered as part of the geographical sphere is to claim similarity of the destination’s scenery to views familiar to the target audience. For example, as
part of the “Incredible India” campaign, India published an ad in which the headline was: “Scotland awaits in India” (NGT, January 2017). The visuals showed scenery that resembled the views in Scotland and the text proclaimed: “Abode of clouds, enchanting lakes, lush greenery, scenic waterfall, vibrant culture” (NGT, January 2017).

In addition, destinations try to associate themselves with familiar tourism brands that are also well known to the target audiences. Some examples were: “Jordan – The home of Petra” (NGT, April 2017); “Tanzania – The land of Kilimanjaro, Zanzibar and Serengeti” Bored Panda, 2016); and “Zambia – The home of Victoria falls” (Bored Panda, 2016). Destinations that suffer from a weak image tend to use this strategy. For example, Kansas City ran a campaign called "NY, LA, DC, KC," in which the city tried to associate itself with the well-known metropolises of New York, Los Angeles and Washington D.C. (Avraham & Ketter, 2008).

4.2.4 The economic sphere. An additional sphere that the marketers can use to create affinity is economic. According to Nes et al. (2014), “positive or negative association with a country may be caused by impressions of a country's economic system” (p. 777). The economic sphere includes components such as economic data and achievements, the technological level and innovation, as well as the destination’s lifestyle.

4.2.4.1 Economic data and achievements. Here, marketers try to present a location as a place that is well established and has a successful economy. They emphasize the location’s economic achievements in order to attract potential investors, who appreciate such data. Some examples were: “Incredible India - McKinsey estimate that Indian manufacturing export will grow at 17% p.a., reaching $300 billion by 2015” (NGT, May 2017); “Incredible India - If you search for it, you’ll find Google in Bangalore… Nearly half the Fortune 500 source their software from India” (NGT, March 2017); and “Poland – over 200 companies have already trusted us-join the best” (Barel, 2017). The “made in Italy” (#11) campaign presented the country’s achievements in industry, technology, and construction. Similarly, Germany ran a campaign called: “Made in Germany” and promoted the slogan: “Follow your Instincts. Invest in Germany,” which meant to show the strength of German exports. Germany also tried to create affinity with British audiences by naming football heroes imported to the UK from Germany (Aris, 2003). These examples demonstrate how data on economic success and an emphasis on the demand for local products are expected to instill appreciation in various target audiences for the destination or its residents.

4.2.4.2 Technological level/innovation. There is an attempt by marketers to show that the destination’s residents contribute to the development of technologies used by the target audience. For example, Israel’s marketers emphasized the use of technology in its ad “68 Facts You Probably Didn’t Know About Israel”:

...What was invented here? The technology that allows us to chat in WhatsApp, Messenger and everything else you youngsters spend your time on, the world’s first antivirus program...a technology to prevent taxi accidents...a small pill that allows you to photograph your body from the inside... (#8)

The narrator used common technologies to highlight the country’s contribution to the target audience’s day-to-day life. This message also was salient in two other campaigns for this country: “Israel - Land of creation” and "Born in Israel. Used in the US/UK" (Avraham, 2009). Other places used this sphere, for example “Made in NY” or “Made in Italy” (#11). Some of these ads can be categorized as a "What have you done for me lately?" strategy, by which marketers show the target audience how their destination brand contributes and is relevant to their lives. This is also a way to create affinity for the target audience.

4.2.4.3 Lifestyle. The destination’s lifestyle can be a characteristic used to create an affinity to the target audience. On many occasions, advertisers try to show similarities between the life styles of the marketed country and the foreign audiences. For example, in a Saudi commercial entitled “Saudi Arabia: yesterday and today building the future,” the narrator says: “This is the new Saudi Arabia. Nation-building for the future” (#9). The ad presents the country’s achievements and includes pictures of supermarkets and fast food restaurants. Valencia also used lifestyle in its promotion: “Valencia - Where Historic European cities show their contemporary style” (Budget Travel, November 2008).

On the other hand, the ads can present an opposite lifestyle in the destination. Some examples were: "Czech Republic: Come to slow down”; “Latvia – Best enjoyed slowly”; “Vietnam – Timeless charm” (Bored Panda, 2016). The marketers’ emphasis on the slow lifestyle probably resulted from their perception that the target audience
was looking to experience a lifestyle that was different from what they had “back home.” Usually, a slow lifestyle is preferred by people from Western urban centers.

4.3 Appeal Strategies

Here the advertisers can use two kind of appeals: rational and emotional. After selecting the appeal, the marketers need to decide on the strategy. In the “the multi-step model for altering place image,” Avraham and Ketter (2008; 2016) offered 14 message strategies. Although these strategies are useful in combating a negative image or crisis, marketers used only nine strategies to create affinity in advertising.

4.3.1 Rational appeal strategies. Marketers use rational appeal when they present facts and claims regarding the brand’s attributes and characteristics. Rational appeals also include information about saving resources (such as money, time, effort), which is provided to stimulate logical thinking regarding the product preference (Leonidou & Leonidou, 2009).

4.3.1.1 Presenting facts about the destination. In this strategy the advertisers present facts regarding the destination with the hope of creating an affinity with the target audience. Some examples were: “Belize: The only English-speaking country in Central America” (#3), “Delaware – the first state” (Pike, 2004), or “Portugal – Europe’s west coast” (Bored Panda, 2016).

4.3.1.2 Presenting the destination’s characteristics and possible activities. Here, the ads present the destination’s characteristics and possible activities, such as beauty, green, nature, shopping and so on. Some examples were: “Dominica - The nature island,” “Michigan. Great lakes. Great time,” “On your way to swim, work on your strokes (in gulf), and “Idaho – the soul of skiing” (Pike, 2004).

4.3.1.3 Saving resources while visiting. The advertisers can claim that a visit to the destination will save time, for example: “Sierra Leon: Only 5 hours flying time from Europe...” (#8) and “Missouri – Close to home, far from ordinary” (CNT, March 2008). Or the visitor can save money, for example: “Ireland, island of 100,000 welcomes. At some very friendly prices” (NGT, March 2009).

4.3.2 Emotional appeal strategies. Affective appeal centers on creating a state of heightened psychological arousal, consisting of positive or negative feelings. Positive feelings include joy, love, and pride; while negative feelings include fear, anger, and shame. Emotional appeal generates these feelings by describing feelings and emotions or by using emotive text, visuals, acts, colors, or music (Leonidou & Leonidou, 2009). These feelings influence the audience’s examination and acceptance of an ad’s message.

4.3.2.1 Description of feelings and emotions. The ads can insert feelings and emotions into the message by using text, visuals, acts, colors and music. Some examples were: “I feel SLOV/Enia” (NGT, November/December 2008); “Anguilla – Feeling is Believing”; “Paraguay – You have to feel it”; “Smile! You are in Spain!”, “Fiji - Where happiness finds you” (Bored Panda, 2016).

4.3.2.2 Use Humor. The use of humor in advertising is a familiar strategy because it is able to create sympathy for a brand, while arousing positive emotions. It can also create affinity and break stereotypes among specific audiences about a location or its residents. The use of humor can help deal with negative perceptions of governmental activity or violation of values that might be perceived as important by the target audience. Tunisia started an interesting campaign in 2011, which included billboards in London buses, stating “They Say that in Tunisia Some People Revive Heavy-Handed Treatment” and showed women receiving massages. While the slogan hinted at human rights violation, which might cause a country-image crisis in the UK, the visual emphasized something contradictory (Avraham, 2015).

4.3.2.3 Use patriotism. A common strategy to evoke feelings of pride among the audience is the use of patriotism. New York City marketers offered a great example of the use of this strategy after 9/11, when they called the American people to “Come show your love for New York State” in order to recover from the crisis in tourism. In another ad, they invited American visitors to “Paint the town red white and blue” in a show of patriotism (Avraham & Ketter, 2008).

4.3.2.4 Association with well-known brands. Here, as mentioned before in various spheres, destination advertisers try to bask in the reflected glory of well-known celebrities or well-known destinations, which the target audiences already appreciate. One example from the cultural sphere was: “My Houston – Beyoncé.” An example from the geographical sphere was the Kansas City campaign: “NY, LA, DC, KC.”

4.3.2.5 Claiming values, myths and brands. Here, the marketers do not just refer to symbols that are well known to the audience. They claim the symbols and convey the message that their destination offers the best place to experience the desired
myths, brands and values. When many similar destinations supply the same products, such as sea and sun or the connection to national history, the marketers usually use the claiming strategy. This conveys the message that they have the best beaches or only way to experience “real” history. In other words, the marketers claim authenticity while competing for legitimacy as the “true” representative of the “product.” Avraham and Daugherty (2012), for example, described how places in Texas were trying to claim their state narrative and myth. Some examples were: “Marathon - Where ... the Texas of your imagination exists”; “Lubbock - The Texas You Always Dreamed of”; and “Bandera - Visit a place where everything you ever heard about Texas still exists”.

Present similarity (or differences). Using this strategy, the marketers emphasize the similarly between the marketed destination and a certain audience in one or more of the geographical, cultural, national, or economic spheres. The self-congruence theory states that similarity between a person and a destination influences the person’s attitudes and behavior (Bekk et al., 2015). Kim and Lehto (2013) claimed that because similarity was considered to be emotionally rewarding, people tended to be attracted to others with similar personalities.

Using this strategy, marketers suggest that “we are similar” in many ways and spheres in order to create affinity (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2013). For example, while using the geographical sphere, the slogan of Delta Airlines to promote Japan in the U.S. was: “Japan. The other long island” (NGT, April 2009). Similarly, the Saudi Arabian image-repair campaign in the United States after 9/11, mentioned before, proclaimed “we share the same desires, the same dreams, same joy, same pain” (#6).

On the other hand, destinations try to present their spheres’ components as opposite to what the audience members have back home. Some examples, previously mentioned, include the emphasis on differences between the lifestyles in the destination and in the audience’s country, and the differences of scenery (rural or beaches vs. urban landscape).

4.4 Means

After selecting the target audience, the spheres, and the appeal strategies, the marketers need to choose the means through which they will create the affinity to the target audience. It is possible to create this affinity by using a slogan, logo, text, or visual.

4.4.1 Slogan. Throughout this paper there have been numerous examples of slogans chosen by marketers to create affinity between destinations and different target audiences. One such example was “Come show your love for New York State.”

4.4.2 Logo. A logo is also a means of creating affinity to the target audience. The design of the logo is important. For example, it would be illogical for a destination offering nature tourism to use a logo with cars, smoke, or tall buildings. Thus, the city of Kotor, Montenegro used a logo in which the name of the city was mixed with various nature symbols, such as sun, mountains, and waves; these described the possible activities and values of the city (NGT, December 2017). In other words, a logo can be a great tool in the creation of affinity.

4.4.3 Text. Text has the power to explain and detail a destination’s advantages. An example was the ad published by Saudi Arabia to keep its ties to the United States: “We are separated by three oceans, one language, but we share the same desires, the same dreams, same joy, same pain and same hope...” (Avraham & Ketter, 2016).

4.4.4 Visual or video. Visuals, still or on video, can serve as a means of connecting the target audience to different destinations. One example was the use of the American flag in the campaign to attract Americans back to New York after 9/11.

4.4.5 Model. As mentioned, models can also be tools in creating affinity. Colombia’s “Would you take the risk” video featured young foreign models, alone or as couples, when marketers were targeting the young-adult audience instead of the “regular” tourists who were afraid to visit the country at the time (#10). Similarly, in a campaign to attract tourists to Egypt after the Arab Spring, most of the models were whites with a Western appearance; the locals were wearing modern clothing and the women did not cover their heads. It seems as though the advertisers were sending the message that there were many activities for Western tourists in Egypt, that it is safe, and that many of them had already come to visit, and so the Western audience should not have any worries about also coming (Avraham, 2015).

4.5 Goals

The final stage of the model deals with the goals of the advertising campaigns. The process of choosing a target audience and then the use of spheres, appeal strategies, and means is directed at achieving one or more goals, reflecting the multi-purposed nature of creating affinity: 1. Attracting tourism or
influences – Given the contribution of tourism and investments to a location’s economy, these are the most common goals of campaigns run by destination marketers. 2. Creating sympathy – Places search for support and sympathy in the international and national level for various aims such as tourism, export of local products, and diplomatic support. 3. Repairing an image and removing animosity – These goals are set by places that suffer from a crisis of image, stemming from war, a terror attack, a natural disaster, or socio-political unrest.

Discussion and summary

Combining knowledge from different fields of study, this paper presented a theoretical model to understand which factors marketers use to create an affinity between destinations and various target audiences. The analysis of many test cases, from all over the world, showed that advertisers used a variety of spheres, appeal strategies, and means to create an affinity that would achieve three goals serving the ultimate purposes of the advertising campaign. This model, entitled “factors involved in creating affinity between destinations and target audiences in tourism ads,” contributes to research literature by filling the pre-existing gap caused by the paucity of research about a destination’s projected image.

Abraham Lincoln once said, “Give me six hours to chop down a tree and I will spend the first four sharpening the axe.” Similarly, marketers must undertake serious preparation, learning about their target audience in depth before launching a campaign that aims to create an affinity. The more familiar marketers are about the cultural, national, geographic, and economic characteristics of the target audience, the greater are the chances of producing an ad that will create affinity with the target audience. Aaker (2010) encouraged increasing the number of the product’s characteristics for the audience, so if one of them stopped being attractive (e.g., the sea becoming polluted), then the customers could still prefer the destination because of other characteristics (e.g., cultural or culinary). Thus, marketers should strive to expand the number of characteristics that create an affinity between places and audiences in order to deepen that affinity, but also because the audience’s tastes, preferences, and values keep changing over time (Pike, 2004; Aaker, 2010).

Marketers can increase the number of tourists visiting a location by creating an affinity between new audiences and the destination. Morgan and Pritchard (2002) clearly stated the growing need to create a relationship between audiences and destinations: “The battle for customers in tomorrow’s destination marketplace will be fought not over price but over hearts and minds. There is a need to build destination-consumer relationships with increased focus among marketers on differentiations through loyalty and emotional appeal. Feeling, perceptions, beliefs are most important and not the product’s tangible benefits” (p. 12).

The “factors involved in creating affinity between destinations and target audiences in tourism ads” model presented here has practical implications for marketers. Successful marketing, especially during the current era, requires creating an affinity with specific target audiences for several reasons. First, the consumer has become accustomed to personal marketing and direct messages mainly through new media. This development actually foreshadows the end of general marketing and an era in which advertisements were accustomed to address all target audiences. At the same time, according to Hudson and Ritchie (2009), tourism marketing is becoming more and more "experiential marketing": a tendency to show not only landscapes in the ads, but also culture and history, as well as create a combination of spheres (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009, p. 224), appeal strategies, and means (Frochart & Batat, 2013). From the model offered here, marketers can learn a great deal about the possibilities of creating an affinity with different target audiences at the national and international levels.

The marketers’ decision to use various components that appear in the “factors involved in creating affinity between destinations and target audiences in tourism ads” model depends on a number of aspects related to the destination, the target audience, and the relationships between them. For example, if a destination does not have celebrities who are well known to the target audience, the advertisers will be not able to use this appeal strategy in its marketing. This happened in the ad campaign for the U.A.E., which did not use celebs or other heroes (Kotsi et al., 2018). If the history of the destination includes wars and conflicts with the target audience’s country, it is not advisable to mention this while trying to build affinity. In this situation, it is better to concentrate on the present, as we saw in the case of Germany’s promotion in Britain, which concentrated on the cultural sphere (sports stars and models) or the
There is a need to mention the limitations of the study. While using the "Factors involved in creating affinity between destinations and target audiences in tourism ads" model to analysis ads, it should be remembered that the division into spheres, appeal strategies, and means is done mainly for academic analysis. Sometimes this analysis is challenging. The language component can belong to both spheres of culture and the national sphere (Avraham & First, 2009). At the same time, the distinction between emotional and rational appeal strategies is sometimes challenging because marketers tend to combine them and present emotions by displaying "dry" facts and data (Byun & Jang, 2015). For example, in "Gambia: The smiling coast of Africa," (Bored Panda) the slogan presented fact (i.e., the location on the African coast) but also used emotion (i.e., the smile). Even in the division of target audiences, it should be taken into account that sometimes destinations use different campaigns for different target audiences. For example, Wales’ marketers tried to connect to a British audience, using the geographic sphere, in the campaign: "Wales - Two hours and a million miles away." For overseas, Wales used the slogan: “Nature and Legend” (Morgan & Pritchard, 2006). Another limitation is that the study mainly analyzed ads in the English languages, from a Western point of view. It is possible that in other languages the models’ factors might get different emphasis.

Future research should focus on the differences that exist in the way marketers attempt to build affinity between a certain place and various target audiences. One example would be the different marketing efforts of Middle Eastern countries to create affinity with potential tourists in the U.K. and the U.S. Another example, once again in regard to Middle Eastern countries, would be the types of marketing to the British audience in English in comparison to similar efforts in France in French. In addition, quantitative studies about the various factors of the current model can examine changes over the years in the attempts to create affinity between various destinations among the same audiences. For example, which factors have Caribbean destinations used to build affinity to the American public over the years, and have these factors changed over time? Just as Pike (2004) found that places had changed their marketing slogans, a reasonable hypothesis is that marketers will change other factors as well. Finally, there is a need for research ranking the effectiveness of various ways to create an affinity between destinations and various target audiences.

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the development of a set of accountability criteria. *Acta Turistica*, 16(2), 102-124.


**Appendix A:**

*List of ads’ links participating in the research*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Country</strong></th>
<th><strong>Campaign</strong></th>
<th><strong>Link</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Canada</td>
<td>Food, culture &amp; travel: Justin Trudeau shares a meal with Kristen Kish, American Top Chef</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YRN1ddB75eI&amp;t=121s">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YRN1ddB75eI&amp;t=121s</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Holland</td>
<td>The original cool</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hoEh0iFWIgs">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hoEh0iFWIgs</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Belize</td>
<td>Belize – Mother nature's best keep secret</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yn5hDbLcAQ4hhttps://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8_SwmwC1yvU">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yn5hDbLcAQ4hhttps://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8_SwmwC1yvU</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The Philippines</td>
<td>It’s more fun in the Philippines</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U-a6yOp0CyI">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U-a6yOp0CyI</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Mexico</td>
<td>Mexico Vacation Safety - Mexico Tourism Office - Chicago</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=073XTgSDHio">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=073XTgSDHio</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>Image repair After 9/11</td>
<td>Ad was removed by YouTube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Kosovo</td>
<td>The young Europeans</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dQRGHAdQjR0">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dQRGHAdQjR0</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Israel</td>
<td>68 Facts You Probably Didn't Know About Israel</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i3wmT2wH690">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i3wmT2wH690</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>Building for the future</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xSDq6LFbIk8">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xSDq6LFbIk8</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Colombia</td>
<td>Would you take the risk?</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qgW8Y7F8DN8">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qgW8Y7F8DN8</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Italy</td>
<td>The Extraordinary Commonplace Italy</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LaXqHU32bm4">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LaXqHU32bm4</a></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Place branding: A Nordic perspective

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Abstract

This paper examines the Nordic as an ideological, cultural, and geographical site from which to examine place branding. Although a number of studies have addressed Nordic place brands and branding, the peculiarity of branding within the Nordic welfare states remains understudied (Cassinger et al., forthcoming). The unusual open access to the field of practice granted to researchers (at least compared to Anglo-Saxon and European standard), and the particular political, institutional, cultural environment of the Nordic has not fully been unpacked.

The limited scope of previous studies on place branding paired with a widespread international interest for the “Nordic” as both a geographical place, moral orientation, and (normative) discourse calls for more research into the global relevance of Nordic place branding. The Nordic is thus not confined to a region, but is approached as an idea that travels across the world.

The literature on Nordic place branding is emergent and deals with disparate themes such as conceptual issues (Andersson, 2014; Niedomysl & Jonasson, 2012), nation branding (Ren & Gyimóthy, 2013; Cassinger et al. 2016), regional branding (Syssner, 2009; Wærnaas et al., 2015), and city branding (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). The present study offers a focused reading across different approaches and empirical fields in order to explore the peculiarity of Nordic place branding. The Nordic is here addressed as an ideological orientation and a cultural construct, as well as an empirical context from which to explore place branding practices and theories. In particular, the Nordic research tradition is argued to be suited to push critical, but hence far not sufficiently explored, issues in place branding, such as feminism, bio-ethics, sustainability, and social justice. It is further suggested that from a Nordic perspective place branding is characterised by processes of depoliticization, consensus, collaboration, and transparency. These peculiarities may be used for building theories and developing methods, which can be extended to the Anglo-Saxon and European field of research and practice.

References


Mediatization of terror attacks and city brand image: A study of the Stockholm attack and the 'Last Night in Sweden’ event

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Abstract

In recent years, there has been an increased interest for how perceptions and experiences of fear influence the image of the city. Perceptions of security and safety of places are central to place branding (Coaffee and Van Ham, 2008). Previous research demonstrates that fear and insecurity are largely socially constructed and amplified by mass media (Avraham and Ketter, 2008) and social media (Doosti et al., 2016; Jansson, 2018). The realm of media has become more complex in an era characterised as posttruth in which “objective facts are less influential in shaping public opinion than appeals to emotion and personal belief” (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016).

The research aim in this paper is to advance the knowledge of the mechanisms of how terror in the tourism city is mediatised. To this end, the paper analyses two instances of terror in two Swedish cities as media events (Couldry and Hepp, 2018). The first instance concern the deadly terror attack in Stockholm in 2017, whereas the second instance refer to Donald Trump’s statement of a non-existing terror attack in Malmo. Lefebvre’s (2004) rythmanalysis approach is adopted to investigate rhythms of the media events on Twitter and online news platforms and their consequences for city brand image.

The study suggests that the mediatisation of the non-existing media event had greater impact on city image than the deadly one. At the time of the event, Malmo city suffered from a negative image, which made the city vulnerable to extremist and populist narratives. The celebrity status of Trump and circulation of fake news also created much publicity and attention. The fact that no one knew what had happened open up a space in which speculation and conspiracy fantasies could grow. Real and imaginary elements were woven together in an almost phantasmal way. By contrast, in the Stockholm attack there was no ambiguity with regards to the event.

References

The marginalized sounds of Peru: Peruvian music diplomacy

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Abstract

Perú’s musical traditions have not received the same international push from the Peruvian Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the same way Peruvian gastronomy has. In the following report, I place Peruvian Music as the logical counterpart to its cuisine and propose stronger Music Diplomacy efforts to be incorporated into the existing national brand.

I analyze the cultural importance of the sounds that in my opinion constitute the best exponents of Peruvian Music: Chicha (Peruvian Cumbia) and Afro-Peruvian music. For each style, I describe the marginalized communities (migrant Amerindian in one case and Afro-descendant in the other) these music styles originated from, as well as identify and compare the independent players, both domestic and international, behind Peruvian Music’s limited international exposure. The conclusion drawn from the analysis of the music diplomacy efforts behind both styles is that music diplomacy can address Perú’s issues of poverty, inequality and racism in a way gastro-diplomacy has not been able to do.

For Music Diplomacy recommendations, I recommend the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to engage in stronger musical exchanges and musical education efforts. Musical and educational exchanges with countries like Ecuador and Colombia, countries that share similar cultures shaped by their Amerindian and Afro-descendant population, can find a common ground in their musical roots and collaborate through workshops, music festivals and recorded collaborations. I also recommend the Foreign Ministry to push the Peruvian government towards subsidizing efforts, like the ones in Cuba and Brazil, where communities get an economic support for promoting the music of their country.

Full paper

The last 15 years have witnessed Perú’s successful efforts of redefining its culture and identity abroad. Through its cuisine, the country has been able to create an internationally recognized national brand that has stimulated foreign tourism in the region. Music has also played a role, on a much smaller scale, in attracting a foreign audience to the country. Although a niche one, this audience has shown an interest in the revival and new hybrid sounds of the previously marginalized music of the Amerindian and Afro-Peruvian communities.
same way its culinary counterpart does. The purpose of this paper is first, to address Peruvian Public Diplomacy’s challenge of a racist and unequal domestic reality at odds with the country’s national brand promoted abroad. Then, to describe the music of migrant Amerindian and Afro-Peruvian communities and compare the domestic and foreign efforts of the non-governmental actors behind the limited music diplomacy and the growing international interest of Peruvian music. Lastly, to propose a stronger and smarter music diplomacy to the Peruvian Ministry of Foreign Relations and Culture. A stronger music diplomacy of Amerindian and Afro-Peruvian sounds will empower marginalized communities and enhance the Peruvian national brand making it a more culturally diverse and socially conscious one.

“Good music goes with good food.” - African Proverb

Peruvians have always been self-aware of their rich cultural heritage, sometimes to the point of taking it for granted. I am a Peruvian immigrant myself and, living abroad, I have experienced the cultural yearning that many other immigrants describe when they leave the country. A yearning for the sounds and flavors of a previous life in which food and music, even though we did not realize it at the time, played a leading role in our everyday activities.

Peruvian food and music are both the product of mestizaje, the cultural mixing of the Amerindian, European, Asian and African traditions that arrived in the country at different points in time. Both have been intertwined from inception and they are considered to be two sides of the same culture. Colonization and the Trans-Atlantic slave trade had the biggest impacts on the music and food of the region. While Chinese and Japanese migration have had the strongest influence on Peruvian food during modern times; Andean/Amazonian, European and African traditions began their process of cross-pollination in the culinary and musical realms as far as the 15th and 16th century. Peruvian food and music that flourished from this mestizaje in the Sierra highlands, the Amazon jungle and the suburbs of the coastal cities, encompass the core of Peruvian identity. Their flavors and sounds have shaped the current Peruvian cultural pride that these days is serving as an engine for the country to attract foreign capital and effect economic growth. Presently Perú’s diplomatic efforts revolve around its nation brand “Marca Perú”, which has been successful in promoting Peruvian gastronomy abroad. The flavors behind the culinary boom have received their fair share of international attention thanks to food ambassadors like Gastón Acurio and strong public relations campaigns domestically and abroad. “Marca Perú” can be seen in buses of Los Angeles and New York promoting Peruvian food, and Peruvian chefs travel the world year round sharing their delicious plates. However, Perú’s culinary diplomacy has failed to paint a full picture of Peruvian culture. Tourists who visit the country are shocked by the contrast between the image that “Marca Perú” is promoting abroad and the reality they encounter on the ground—a reality of poverty and inequality, where marginalized Amerindian and Afro-descendant communities are victims of systemic racism. Furthermore, the economic growth brought by the culinary boom has not trickled down to these poorest sectors of society where, incidentally, Perú’s food traditions originated.

As such, throughout this paper I will be focusing on the multi-racial music and sounds of Chicha (Peruvian Cumbia) and Afro-Peruvian rhythms that where born out of these comunidades olvidadas (forgotten communities). Although their musical styles were victims of a prejudiced society that left them ignored in past decades, their sounds and rhythms are currently undergoing a process of revival and transformation that is gathering interest from abroad. Peruvian music can offer a solution to the social disparity. A stronger push towards awareness of Peruvian musical traditions’ resurgence could help suture the wounds of inequality that gastro-diplomacy has not been able to address. The multi-racial and culturally-hybrid nature of Peruvian music can defy the racial stigmas their progenitor communities suffer from. Music’s collaborative character can emphasize Perú’s diversity and spirit of conviviality, and empower these communities by showcasing their culture to a global audience. The country’s use of a more active and aware music diplomacy could lay the foundations for a more “well-rounded” image of the country; one that does not only revolve around its exquisite food but that also acknowledges its inequalities and provides a voice for the less fortunate by promoting their rich musical traditions. Much in the same vein as its neighboring country, Brazil, Perú can use its music as a cross-cultural platform towards better domestic and international relations.

Migrant Chicha and Amazonian Cumbia

If there is a soundtrack to the urban migration from the Peruvian highlands to the coastal city of Lima, it is Chicha music. Chicha is a fermented corn-based beverage from the Andes and
the Amazon Basin in South America. In Perú, this drink plays a central role both as religious offering, but also as an alcoholic drink consumed during festivities and communal gatherings. Just like the term “salsa” for the Puerto Ricans in New York, the meaning of the word Chicha morphed from an ancient Incan beverage to a word that encompasses the popular culture and musical fusion of Perú’s Amerindian population in the 20th century.

Chicha music mixes the tropical rhythms of Colombian cumbia with the electric guitar of American rock n’ roll and the sad Andean melodies of the Sierra’s Huaynos. This sonic cocktail took root in the hills of Lima around the 1960s and exploded in the 1970s and 1980s, when the capital witnessed an enormous indigenous migration from the Sierras due to the political violence of leftist guerrilla groups like the Shinning Path and the terrorism of leftist guerrilla groups. This massive migration to the city of any region in Latin America that encompassed the popular culture and musical fusion of Perú’s Amerindian population in the 20th century.

A different branch of this same musical hybridization reached the Amazon basin around the same time. There, cumbia mixed with the sounds of the Amazon. The Cumbia Amazonica (Amazonian Cumbia) “developed in the oil-boom towns of Iquitos, Moyobamba and Pucallpa during the 1960s when certain bandleaders took a notion to modernize their sound by replacing (Colombian) cumbia accordions with Farfisa organs and adding garage-psych electric guitar to the tropical rhythms.” (Gehr, 71) This combination of danceable tribal beats from the jungle and fuzzy sounding organ melodies turned groups like Juaneco y su Combo and Los Mirlos into overnight musical sensations in the area.

These groups proudly flaunted their Shipibo Indian traditions during their performances on stage, showcasing their dances and clothes. Again, due to the centralized character of the Peruvian economy, migrants from the rain forests started to settle in Lima’s misery belts. Amazonian cumbia coexisted with Andean cumbia and eventually became part of the same Chicha culture described above.

Chicha was influential in the development of another cultural phenomenon in Perú’s neighbor Argentina, the cumbia villera. Chicha and Amazonian cumbia bands who toured Argentina’s version of the pueblos jovenes, the villas miseria (misery villas), planted the seeds of musical hybridization and through a kind of underclass music diplomacy, empowered their citizens to channel their musical expression and develop their own musical hybridization projects. 40 years ago, Chicha music managed, even if only slightly so, to penetrate an international market; nowadays this music (along with the culture behind it) is being discovered internationally.

In recent years, Chicha has sparked international interest thanks in part to the new wave of tourism that Lima is experiencing as a product of its 21st century culinary boom. “As cool rulers of Perú’s underclass, ignored by critics and the upper crust alike, it’s unlikely that these fine artists ever expected Chicha to thrive outside Perú, especially insofar as many of its innovators are already dead.” (Gehr, 71) Surprisingly, Perú’s elite is also undergoing a shift into a new appreciation for the music. It is not clear if this shift is a product of the international interest or the domestic revivalist efforts but it is clear that Chicha is now a part of the mainstream culture. Jorge Olazo from the current Peruvian cumbia
The main actor behind exposing Chicha to an international audience has been the Brooklyn-based record label Barbès Records. In 2007 they released the compilation The Roots of Chicha: Psychedelic Cumbias From Perú. Olivier Conan, the head of the label, discovered the music on a trip to Perú in 2005 when he was searching for Afro-Peruvian sounds. He was able to track the master recordings of original Chicha songs and released a compilation that featured the aforementioned groups Los Destellos, Los Mirlos, Juanecco y su Combo, among others. Conan even started his own Chicha band, Chicha Libre, which has had an incredible reception in music festivals around Europe and the United States.

The most recent effort to bring Chicha to global notoriety has also come from abroad. In Spain, Peruvian expats are relaunching the previously defunct record label Discos Horóscopo, the label that in the 1970s and 1980s released the biggest names in the Peruvian cumbia scene. Their first release, a reissue of Chacalón y la Nueva Crema—considered by Peruvians to be the pharaoh of Peruvian Chicha—, is now unavailable due to the high demand.

Domestically, bands from Lima like Bareto and La Sarita have helped push the revival by recording covers of classic Chicha songs and touring all over the world. But probably the biggest exponent of Chicha in present time is the duo Dengue, Dengue and their digital cumbia productions. Dengue, Dengue, Dengue have placed electronic Chicha on the map. Digital Cumbia parties, or sometimes also called Nú-Cumbia parties, are now big in New York and Barcelona music festivals like TOMA! beats psicotropicales and Sónar. Harvard observes, “undergoing a sort of digital renaissance, the country’s rich tradition of cumbias and folklore are being transformed by the newer generations with all the splendor and psychedelia that made Perú a focal point of new sounds in [the] 60s, 70s and 80s.” (Munoz, 72) This is an example of how the Lima elite, with their access to the internet and the old Chicha material, has managed to start independent projects that further shape the image of the country abroad. “A public from different parts of the world now enjoy this music, which has been popularized thanks to the internet and social media engines like YouTube and Soundcloud, where geographic, racial and language borders are not an obstacle.” (Marquez, 61) In a way, Digital cumbia has been able to shorten a social gap in the country. It has managed to get Chicha music to reach a “Latin American public of middle and high class who before used to completely reject it, relating it to the lower classes and perceiving it as an aesthetically poor genre.” (Marquez, 64)

The music diplomacy of international exposure to Chicha music has been a task mainly undertaken by independent artists such as record labels, bands and festivals. These artists have been predominantly foreign ones. Some of them have been of Peruvian origin but acting from abroad in order to reach a wider international audience. The domestic actors have had a huge domestic reach, which has also resonated with a globalized public through social media and independent promotion and touring. Responding to the domestic interest in Chicha, “Perú’s Instituto de Etnomusicología (formerly known as the Centro de Etnomusicología Andina) has enriched the field of Peruvian music studies with its many noteworthy publications and recordings. Their offerings previously focused almost exclusively on noncommercial rural indigenous and mestizo music traditions...the center’s scope has broadened in recent years to include mass-mediated urban styles.” (Rios, 307) This shows that the Peruvian state does recognize Peruvian Chicha as an important cultural heritage but in terms of state-driven diplomatic efforts, Chicha does not have the presence that it has in the private and independent sector.

Black Perú and Afro-Peruvian Rhythms

The Transatlantic Slave Trade that took place between the 16th and 19th century deeply influenced the melting pot that is Peruvian culture. The slaves brought from Africa by the Spanish crown and the Viceroyalty of Perú belonged to a mélange of ethnic tribes, from Mandinka to Yoruba tribes, all with different religious traditions and belief practices. Slave-owners purposely separated families and communities in order to prevent uprisings and to make it harder for slaves to find a common ground to unite against their Spanish and/or criollo owners. Feldman explains, “black slaves tended to work in multi-ethnic groups on small haciendas and silver mines or (more commonly) in the urban homes of white slave owners, facilitating rapid assimilation into white Peruvian coastal society.” (Feldman, 208) One of these haciendas was the Hacienda San José in the Chincha...
Province, to the south of Lima. This hacienda housed a large number of the slaves that arrived in Perú to work the land. Even after slavery was abolished in 1854, the Afro-Peruvians of this region kept producing sugar and cotton in the same working conditions as their enslaved ancestors. It was in Chincha, specifically in the district of El Carmen, that Afro-Peruvian slaves and their descendants managed to introduce their music and dances into the Peruvian cultural identity.

Despite having played a crucial role in the Atlantic slave trade (Perú served as the center for supplying slaves to Ecuador and Chile), Perú is not known abroad for its black population. Instead, Perú is known for being the land of the Inca Empire and more recently, for its cuisine of fusion flavors. Even domestically during the first half of the 20th century, Perú’s black cultural heritage was erased from the collective memory. Feldman argues, “Perú’s black population was commonly thought to have “disappeared” into Peruvian criollo culture by the twentieth century, and only a few families preserved African-descended music in private gatherings” (Feldman, 143) But, during a period between the 1950s and the late 1970s, there was a revivalist current of African consciousness. “Afro-Peruvian revival artists excavated the previously ignored and forgotten rhythms of black Perú, seeking to revalorize blackness (and the African heritage) and separate it from criollo culture.” (Feldman, 210) Suddenly there was a clear understanding of what Afro-Peruvian music was and how the African contribution enriched the already established criollo music of the time. Guitarist/cajón player Porfirio Vásquez, poet Nicomedes Santa Cruz, singer Chabuca Granda and hoofer Amador Ballumbrosio among others, where behind the rediscovery and new appreciation of black Peruvian culture in the 1970s.

Afro-Peruvian music encompasses African rhythms that originated in the Pacific coast, like festejo, landó, panalivio, zamacueca, etc. These rhythms, rooted in tribal African grooves, eventually morphed into specific styles and dances unique to Perú. Just like most African music, Afro-Peruvian music revolves around the percussion and the main percussion instrument behind its sound is the cajón. The cajón is a wooden box assembled by the Afro-Peruvian slaves when the Catholic Church banned their traditional percussion instruments. “Beyond its rhythmic underpinnings, the Afro-Peruvian style is distinct for its melodicism. It fuses the folkloric strains of Andean music with a Spanish flamenco sensibility and African rhythms.” (Verna, 48) By the end of the 1970s and throughout the 1980s the study of these rhythms, dances and melodies established itself in Lima. Schools started teaching them as part of their cultural curricula and political leaders from both sides of the spectrum encouraged the dissemination of Afro-Peruvian music domestically. Despite the strong domestic push for cultural awareness and the repatriation of “lost traditions”, Afro-Peruvian music would not reach an international audience until later on.

It was in the 1980s, 1990s and 2000s that the renewed awareness of Afro-Peruvian identity reached an international audience. “In the 1980s and 1990s, photographer Lorry Salcedo captured Chinchca on film, presenting it to the world as the Black face of Perú in an internationally touring photograph exhibition titled ‘Africa’s legacy’.” (Feldman, 177) This exhibit introduced the existence of a Black Perú into the international discussion. Later in 1995, American musician and lead singer of the rock band Talking Heads, David Byrne, released the record The Soul of Black Perú under his record label Luaka Bop, exposing the sounds of Black Perú to the western world. The label describes the record as follows, “This is secret music—a collection of beautiful songs and infectious grooves that has been hidden for years in the coastal towns and barrios of Perú. It’s not the guys with flutes and drums in woolly hats—it’s music of the black Peruvian communities.” (Byrne, Luaka Bop website)

Once again, foreign exposure to Peruvian music was made possible thanks to a curious international audience that dug into Peruvian culture and not from the country’s international efforts to spread the music abroad. The Soul of Black Perú had such a great reception that the label decided to release solo records of Susana Baca, one of the Afro-Peruvian singers featured in the compilation. Her fame skyrocketed when she won a Latin American Grammy in 2002 and was nominated for the Grammy under the “Best World Album” category. “Despite Susana Baca’s success in the world music scene, both she and her New York benefactor David Byrne have publicly expressed their distaste for the confining labels ‘world music’... world music is a way of dismissing artists or their music as irrelevant to one’s own life. It’s a way of relegating this ‘thing’ into the realm of something exotic and therefore cute, weird but safe...” (Feldman, 147) This is a continuous obstacle that Peruvian and non-western musicians face. Once their work is classified as World Music, it is harder for their music to reach a
A more recent example of independent actors working towards Afro-Peruvian music exposure is a documentary by Red Bull Music Academy, an American institution that fosters creativity through music workshops and festivals around the world. The documentary, titled “Afro-Peruvian Beats”, was released in August 2017 and it documents musical collaborations with the Ballumbrosio family, an Afro-Peruvian family of hoofer and musicians that preserves the traditions of their ancestors in Chincha. The documentary is aimed at the younger, eclectic and globalized audience mentioned above and in it, the viewer can be introduced to Afro-Peruvian music through the lenses of electronic cumbia musicians like Perú’s own Dengue Dengue Dengue, Portuguese electronic artist DJ Branko and Chilean producer Matias Aguayo. The short film exemplifies a fresh music diplomacy approach that not only portrays and advocates for Afro-Peruvian music, but also shows the human interactions and relationships built through musical conversations with different music styles and foreign performers. At the same time, the film promotes a big project that the Ballumbrosio family is undertaking—the building of a huge cultural center in El Carmen solely dedicated to the teaching and dissemination of Afro-Peruvian music and dance.

Despite the honest efforts behind the amazing work by these labels, organizations and musical groups, “interest in Afro-Peruvian music has not returned to previous levels. Some musicians attribute this to a lack of current institutional support to subsidize the performance of
their music. Others argue that young people are not taught to value the richness and diversity of Peruvian folk and popular music traditions. Still others feel that the institutionalization of Afro-Peruvian music and its reduction to commercially successful formulaic arrangements have left the Afro Peruvian sound ‘stuck in the 1970s,’ irrelevant to younger generations of listeners.” (Leon, 219)

Furthermore, racism in Perú is still prevalent. In 2011, Harvard scholar Henry Louis Gates, Jr. worked in conjunction with the American public broadcaster PBS to explore the African influence in Latin America. In one of the episodes of his four-part series Black in Latin America, he explored the Afro-Peruvian legacy. The episode was titled The Black Grandma in the Closet, a fitting title that epitomized Perú’s lack of embrace of their African heritage, despite the fact that African blood runs through the veins of its population. Systemic racism seems to be one of the reasons why a lot of the attention comes from the outside and not the other way around. The diplomatic efforts have been led by the black minority in Perú, while the Peruvian elite and the government’s role in disseminating Afro-Peruvian music has been very limited. Even though Lima was considered at one point to be a “Black City”, the discrimination of black Peruvians is ubiquitous. Unlike Cumbia, Afro-Peruvian music has not been embraced by the elite youth in Lima (Afro-Peruvian music is played at discotheques to clear the dance floors before closing). A major push towards Afro-Peruvian music diplomacy as a cross-cultural bridge can serve as a strong counternarrative to the racist reality and the racist depictions of Perú’s marginalized black communities in television and media across the country.

“To understand the discrimination that exists in Perú was something very important for my career. I understood that Perú is a country that completely excludes indigenous, Afro-Peruvian and Amazonian peoples. All the political power is concentrated in Lima. It’s to Lima that all the benefits come, and Lima lives with its back turned away. To realize that, that that’s what my country is, was incredibly important for me, for my struggle, for my path as a singer, to say what I say in my songs.” – Susana Baca

Public Diplomacy Recommendations

Food and music have a symbiotic relationship within Peruvian culture. One is not more important than the other is— they complement each other. They provide the smells, textures, the sounds and the colors of Peruvian conviviality between family and friends. Peruvian music is the logical counterpart to Peruvian food. Peruvians living in the country and abroad easily understand this concept (it is engrained in their genetic codes of culture), but the current efforts of Perú’s national branding and the one-sided nature of “Marca Perú” do not reflect it. The Peruvian state has such an overwhelming fixation on promoting the country’s cuisine that it has not utilized the diplomatic tools available to expose the international community to Peruvian music.

Stronger and more focused music diplomacy strategies need to be implemented by the Public Diplomacy wing of the Peruvian Ministry of Foreign Relations and Culture. These efforts could take shape in cultural and educational exchanges with Cuba, Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Ecuador, the United States and/or Western Africa. All of these regions share a common past of struggle (they were all affected by the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade) and possess rich music rooted in African religious and tribal traditions that have evolved in different ways but that fit very well together. An example of such an exchange could be a musical collaboration/educational workshop between the Afro-Ecuadorian rhythms of Ecuador’s coastal city of Esmeraldas and the Afro-Peruvian rhythms of the coastal city of Chinchía. Such a strategy could emphasize a spirit of partnership and cultural collaboration between two countries that have had military disputes in the past. The same can be envisioned for Peruvian Chicha and the music of other fellow Amerindian countries like Colombia and Mexico with their unique variations on Cumbia. An example of this could be a cumbia music festival for peace in the Amazon basin, with Colombian cumbieros and Peruvian chicberos performing in the jungle of the Peruvian city of Iquitos or the Colombian Amazonian region of Putumayo, advocating for the protection of the rainforests from illegal mining, illegal logging and narco-trafficking activities. An interesting example of an educational approach (already in practice by independent actors in Western Africa) could be an intergovernmental collaboration in the development of a smartphone application that documents, breaks down and teaches the intricate rhythms of Afro-descendant communities in Perú and South American/Caribbean regions. An application like this could incentivize music educational
Music has a unique quality of identity empowerment. Music diplomacy, through the push of Chicha and Afro-Peruvian music, will empower the marginalized communities these sounds come from; sharing their talent, stories and humanity with the rest of the world. Countries like Cuba and Brazil already understand the cultural importance of their music and they treat their music and musicians as cultural relics. Black communities get subsidies in Brazil to promote Afro-Brazilian music and Cuba engages in musical exchanges both at home and abroad. Many consider Perú’s musical heritage as important and culturally relevant to that of these countries. It would be great to see the Peruvian government subsidizing the Amerindian and Afro-Peruvian musical communities so they can keep enriching and promoting their musical traditions in ways that enhance the cultural image of Perú abroad. Alex Acuna, one of Perú’s most famous percussionists living abroad asserted many years ago “one day our Peruvian music will be known just as Cuban and Brazilian music is known.” (Feldman, 153) He was onto something. The international community has compared the record Roots of Chicha to Cuba’s Buena Vista Social Club and musicians from around the world are interested in learning the intricate musical patterns of Perú’s African rhythms. The Peruvian state needs to tap into this international market and use it towards the growth and development of these same groups who live in poverty and are victims of the racism engrained in Perú’s colonial psyche. Perú can learn from the past mistakes of international and domestic actors involved in music diplomacy, like Perú Negro’s struggle to translate Afro-Peruvian traditions for an American audience or the promotion abroad of Susana Baca’s music as World Music and not Afro-Peruvian Music. The trial and error experience gained from these actors’ music diplomacy efforts, can pave the way for smarter strategies and programs.

Perú has acted symbolically in the past acknowledging its musical heritage at the OAS in 1987 and, following Brazil’s steps with Gilberto Gil, naming Susana Baca the Minister of Culture in 2011 (if only for a short period of time). However, much more remains to be done. The world does not realize African traditions and Amerindian migrations hybridized and shaped the Peruvian culture and society of today. These cultures remain hidden to a large part of the world, the country remains greatly unequal and racism is very much alive. As a cultural co-ambassador, in partnership with Peruvian Cuisine, Peruvian Music has the power to work towards uprooting these racial differences and to promote communication, compassion, cultural awareness and understanding.

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National stereotype effects on high- versus low-contact service expectations: Branding Indonesia

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Abstract

To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first to explore the impact of national stereotypes (perceived warmth and perceived competence) associated with a service-product’s nation-brand, as regards high versus low-contact service-type. Specifically, our first field experiment tests for the differential effect of perceived warmth and perceived competence on service-quality expectations by US consumers of high-contact versus low-contact telecommunication services originating from the emerging Asian nation of Indonesia versus that of the emerged Asian economy of Japan. A follow-up study tests the effects of priming competence and warmth via online-video advertisements on US consumer evaluations of low-contact Indonesian telecommunication services. Results of our Study 1 show that perceived competence effects more positive service expectations of both low and high-contact services, whereas perceived warmth has a significant effect only on evaluations of high-contact services. Furthermore, parallel results were found after subjects were primed with online video advertising manipulations of Indonesian competence and warmth in Study 2.

Overall, our findings provide empirical evidence that national stereotypes associated with COO influence consumers’ evaluations of services. Our study is the first to empirically demonstrate the relatively higher effect of perceptions of warmth associated with a country’s people (versus perceptions of competence) on services with a high level of customer contact.

Results of our follow-up study imply that NS perception could be repositioned by priming higher consumer knowledge, akin to nation-branding advertising or international communication programs. If the kind of service is low-contact (such as technology and knowhow exports), it will be more deliberate to provide information which improves competence perceptions. Conversely, if service type is high-contact (such as calling centers exports), it may be advisable to promote warmth perceptions. Nevertheless, results of our first study show that perceived competence effects positive service expectations of both low and high-contact services, whereas perceived...
Full paper

In this increasingly-globalized era, the impact of country of origin (COO) as an extrinsic cue on the consumer evaluation of products or services is an established area of international marketing research and practice (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Although past COO research has extensively explored the case of manufactured products, research concerning the COO effect on services is rather rare (Chattalas et al., 2008). The phenomenon of internationally-traded services is still relatively new, so that it requires development and testing of empirical knowledge (Javalgi et al., 2001). The emergence of trade in services among developed countries is expanding between developing economies as well (Gronroos, 1999; Ferguson et al., 2008). Although there has been a trend among countries to deliberately promote their country image and leverage their nation-brand to help exports (He and Wang, 2015), little research has focused on service exports beyond tourism and destination marketing. The opportunities for developing countries to enter the global market in services is quite high, but there are serious challenges, that among others, are related to the image, stereotype and market perception of the quality of products or services that originate from developing countries. For that reason, it is especially important for developing countries to determine what types of services and promotional strategies could be employed to gain a positive perception in the global market (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006; Chao et al., 2003).

Hypothesis Development

One of the factors influencing COO effects on consumer evaluation is a country or national stereotype (Chattalas et al., 2008) composed of consumer beliefs regarding the peoples specific to a certain country. Stereotyping is the result of a cognitive process in which people build abstract knowledge and perceptions that influence their behavior towards others (Fiske et al., 2002). Recent research proposed and tested the role of national stereotype contents related to particular COOs on consumer expectations of manufactured product properties, building on the Stereotype Contents Model of social cognition (Fiske et al. 2002). Furthermore, Chattalas et al., (2008) asserted research propositions relating to COO effects on consumer evaluations on the type of services (low versus high-contact), which have not been empirically-tested.

As such, in the present study, we hypothesize that both dimensions of NS, perceived competence (H1a) and perceived warmth (H1b), positively affect customer expectations of service quality.

Methodology

Regards our methodology, we selected the COOs of Indonesia (as a major developing Asian country) and Japan (as a major developed Asian country) and the research population of US consumers.

First, a pre-test among 200 US consumers accessed via an Amazon m-Turk online panel, we confirmed the perception of Indonesia as relatively more warm than competent (Mwarmth=5.18 versus Mcompetence=4.98) and Japan as relatively more competent than warm (Mcompetence= 6.16 versus Mwarmth=5.33).

To test our hypotheses, a field experiment of 143 US consumers was conducted via Amazon m-Turk. Our design tested the interaction of...
the independent variables of dominant national stereotype and service type: 2 (NS: competent vs. warm) x 2 (Service type: low vs. high contact) on the dependent variable of consumer expectations of service quality in the developed market of the US. We employed the Servqual measure (a multi-item scale) to operationalize our dependent measure (Parasuraman et al., 1988). In our experimental design, we measured respondent’s perceptions of warmth and competence of the COOs of Indonesia and Japan operationalized across a high and low contact scenario promoting the export of telecommunication services.

Results

Both H1a and H1b are supported. Through linear regression, the hypothesized effects of both perceived competence across both COOs (Indonesia COO: $\beta = 0.395$, p= 0.001; Japan COO: $\beta = 0.486$, p= 0.001) and perceived warmth (Indonesia COO: $\beta = 0.341$, p= 0.001; Japan COO: $\beta = 0.383$, p= 0.002) on overall service quality expectations of US consumers is significant.

Furthermore, in the case of high-contact services, our linear regression results found support for H2a, regards the higher positive effect of the dominantly-warm COO (Indonesia) on service quality expectations than the dominantly-competent COO (Japan) ($\beta = 0.496$, p= 0.001 versus $\beta = 0.371$, p= 0.013). Notably, although the dominant effect of perceived warmth was indeed found to be higher than the relative effect of perceived competence, both showed a statistically significant positive effect on perceived service quality of high-contact services. Conversely, in the low-contact services condition, results found a significant positive effect only for the dominantly-competent COO (Japan) on service quality expectations [$\beta = 0.556$, p= 0.019 versus $\beta = 0.187$, p= 0.17]. In summary, our findings show an asymmetrical (positive) effect of competence on both low and high-contact service quality expectations, whereas warmth was only found to have a significant effect on high-contact services.

Discussion and Follow-up Study

Overall, our findings provide empirical evidence that national stereotypes associated with COO influence consumers’ evaluations of services. Our study is the first to empirically demonstrate the relatively higher effect of perceptions of warmth associated with a country’s people (versus perceptions of competence) on services with a high level of customer contact. More research is needed however to investigate the asymmetrical effect of higher perceived competence across both low and high-contact services.

Subsequent research in a follow-up experimental study, focused on the context of Indonesia as a services COO with warmth-dominant national stereotypes. It is interesting to learn what needs to be done to better position a relatively unfamiliar, low customer-knowledge, country, such as Indonesia, when offering service exports of a high versus low-contact type, such as telecommunications exports of calling centers (high-contact) versus technical knowhow (low-contact). Could the perceptions of competence and warmth be both successfully primed so that in the end, consumers would provide a more positive assessment of quality of high versus low-contact services?

In the context of this follow-up study, consumer evaluations of Indonesian high versus low-contact service quality were collected following a priming manipulation designed to deliberately provide positive information regarding the competence or warmth of the Indonesian nation. National stereotypes are not only based on the experience of the actual product, but also on information gathered through other sources (such as advertising). Many developing nations are engaged in nation-branding promotional efforts to disseminate more positive information, and ultimately reposition consumer perceptions of a nation’s competence and warmth.

Study 2 was thus designed to test the direct effect of increased (primed) consumer knowledge of Indonesia on competence versus warmth consumer perceptions, and then indirectly on Indonesian high versus low-contact service quality evaluations.

As such, Hypothesis 3 is advanced: in the case of low-contact services, primed perceptions of competence have a stronger effect on service quality expectations than primed perceptions of warmth (H3a). Conversely, in the high-contact scenario primed perceptions of warmth are expected to be have a stronger effect on service quality expectations than primed perceptions of competence (H3b).

To test H3, a field experiment of 122 US consumers was conducted via Amazon m-Turk.

Respondents were split into two equal groups with each watching a one-minute online-video priming either Indonesian competence (video displayed the country’s wealth of resources and technological achievements) or warmth (video...
displayed the cultural diversity and natural beauty of Indonesia). The experiments were designed to measure respondents’ competence and warmth perceptions, as well as their expectations of (high versus low-contact) Indonesian service quality before and after exposure to the priming video.

Manipulation checks show that priming indeed led to more positive perceptions for each of the manipulated stereotype contents (Mcompetence=4.58 versus 5.85 after priming; Mwarmth=4.59 versus 5.72 after priming). In the low-contact service scenario, our linear regression results found support for H3a, regards the higher positive effect of primed perceived competence on service quality expectations than primed perceived warmth [ß = 0.629, p= 0.005 versus ß = 0.377, p= 0.031]. But contrary to expectations in H3b, in the high-contact service scenario only primed competence showed a significant and positive effect on service quality expectations, but not primed warmth [ß = 0.333, p= 0.038 versus ß = 0.252, p= 0.161]. Although, our experiment successfully primed warmth, these higher perceptions did not significantly impact service quality expectations.

An alternative explanation, is that given the highly-experiential nature of high-contact services, priming of affective country image cues (akin to warmth) is not as meaningful to consumer evaluations as the priming of cognitive country image cues (akin to competence). Such explanation is consistent with our results of Study 1 as well as previous findings of the asymmetrical influence of competence over warmth perceptions on purchase intention (Li et al., 2014).

**Practical & Research Implications**

In conclusion, our results hold practical implications for both international marketers as well as public policy-makers who wish to foster a stronger perception of a nation’s service brand through marketing strategies or public policy initiatives. As high-contact services involve a higher experiential component, the stronger impact of a warmly-perceived COO implies that export service providers in industries such as tourism and hospitality must be trained to project a higher level of emotional and cultural intelligence in their interactions of customers. And more so, given that our studies demonstrate such effect operates even in a more technologically-based industry as telecommunication, in contrast to traditional place branding research that typically focuses on tourism and destination marketing.

National stereotypes are not only based on the experience of the actual product, but also on information gathered through other sources (such as advertising). Many nations are engaged in nation-branding promotional efforts to disseminate more positive information, and ultimately reposition consumer perceptions of a nation’s competence and warmth. Our experimental studies’ results hold practical implications for both international marketers as well as public policy-makers who wish to foster a stronger perception of a nation’s service brand through marketing strategies or public policy initiatives. Our follow-up study implied that NS perception could be repositioned by priming higher consumer knowledge, akin to nation-branding or export-promotion efforts program.

Results provide insight on how consumer perceptions of national stereotype contents could be repositioned by providing knowledge about the country of origin of the service provider, in accordance with the type of services to be offered. If the kind of service is low-contact (such as technology and knowhow exports), it will be more deliberate to provide information which improves competence perceptions. Conversely, if service type is high-contact (such as calling centers exports), it may be advisable to promote warmth perceptions as well.

Nevertheless, results of our first study show that perceived competence effects more positive service expectations of both low and high-contact services, whereas perceived warmth impacts only high-contact services. This more robust effect of competence versus warmth perceptions was confirmed even after both were primed in Study 2. Such lopsided effects of competence over warmth confirm similar findings in country of origin studies of physical products (Chattalas, 2015; Chattalas and Takada, 2013).

Further research is needed to investigate this asymmetrical effect of stereotype contents, showing converging evidence of the primacy of competence over warmth across difference other service types; such as hedonic (i.e. tourism), to complement this paper’s focus on the utilitarian telecommunications industry. Future research should also explore the effect of the four types of intergroup affect (admiration, envy, pity and contempt) predicted by the Stereotypes Content Model on international service encounters (Anaya et al., 2016; Cuddy et al., 2007).

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Cognitive appraisal of city image and its effect on visit intent: An analysis built on the stereotype content model

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is two-fold. First, it is aimed to test how tourists perceive the images of the top 50 tourist cities in China as warmth and/or competence. Second, it investigates how the cognitive appraisal of city image affects tourists’ intention of visiting and to what extent their attitude towards a city mediates this effect.

The Stereotype Content Model, which suggests that warmth and competence describe the core of cognition, has been well established to analyze how people perceive others or entities (Fiske et al., 2007; Aaker et al., 2010). However, the same cognition framework that tourists use to perceive cities is still to be uncovered. Drawing from the social psychology literature of the Stereotype Content Model, the author first conducts a survey about tourists’ perception of the images of China’s top 50 tourist cities as warmth and/or competence. Then, the author hypothesizes and tests the relationships among tourists’ cognitive appraisal of city images, their attitude towards cities and visit intent by a second survey.

The empirical results suggest that over half of the 50 cities are perceived as an image of warmth rather than competence, while the perception of competence is more associated with tourists’ visit intent than warmth. Furthermore, the combination of warmth and competence also impacts tourists’ intention of visiting a city. The attitude towards a city partially mediates the effect of cognitive appraisal of city image on visit intent.

The paper contributes to understand the sequence from cognitive appraisal of a city image to tourists’ attitude and their visit intent to a city. It fills the gap of applying the Stereotype Content Model to research about how people make sense of city. It also contributes to give practical suggestions to China’s tourist cities, which maybe should show more competence in addition to their warmth if they want to attract more tourist visiting.

Reference


How do residents and tourists think each other? Construal, projection, and perception in destination image of Macao

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Abstract

Although the concept of destination image has been well established in tourism literature, this study attempts to fill in the research gap by understanding the differences between the estimation of hosts’ and guests’ perception of each other and actual perceptions by using Macao as an example. More specifically, this study has three research questions: 1) what residents think about how tourists would think vs. how tourists actually perceive about the destination (i.e., residents’ construed image vs. tourists’ perceived image); 2) how residents actually perceive vs. what tourists think how residents perceive about the destination (i.e., resident’s identity vs. tourists’ perceived construed image); and 3) what residents intend to project to residents vs. what tourists think the destination would desire to project (i.e., intended image vs. perceived intended image).

This study conducted two rounds of self-administered surveys of Macao residents and tourists. A survey questionnaire was developed based on earlier studies (Choi, & Cai, 2015; McCartney, 2008; Russell, 1980; Kong, du Cros, and Ong, 2015), pilot tests, and panel discussions. A total of 24 destination image attributes were asked in three different aspects to residents (construed image, identity, and intended image) and tourists (perceived image, perceived construed image, and perceived intended image), respectively. Out of 866 initial attempted, a total of 380 residents provided completed responses. For the tourist sample, this study collected 500 completed responses for further analyses.

To answer research questions, descriptive analysis and independent samples t-tests were used. The results show that residents’ perceived identity is mostly significantly lower than tourists’ construed image (i.e., how tourists think Macao residents think about their living space); Residents’ intended image was mostly significant higher than tourist perceived intended image other than gambling; On the other hand, other than gambling, the differences in the level of residents’ construed image and tourists’ actual perceived image were insignificant.

The results imply the differences and similarities between the hosts and the
guests in the expected perception of each other. Besides, the additional graphical analysis identified which types of destination image attribute are expected better (or worse) than the actual perception. These findings provide implications for destination management entities in understanding further both the residents and tourists, especially in terms of understanding how the two parties would perceive during the encounters. In doing so, destination managers could develop new marketing and promotional strategies based on a better understanding of hosts’ and guests’ perceptions so as to enhance tourist experience while visiting a

destination. Lastly, the findings would show the important role of education for sustainable tourism destination management by showing the possible indirect way of communicating destination characteristics to tourists.

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Political animosity effect on cognitive and affective perception of Europe and on attitudes towards the Made in EU label—a comparative study between Italy and Poland

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Abstract

Along with the principal objective of contributing to the academic literature on animosity, country image and ethnocentrism, the aim of the study is to provide a comparative point of view on the attitudes towards Made in EU label between Polish and Italian consumers.

This study uses recent tensions occurring in the Euro area as the research setting and it develops and tests a comprehensive research model that investigates the effect of political animosity towards Europe on cognitive and affective image of Europe, on consumer ethnocentrism, and, importantly, on attitudes toward the “Made in Europe” label. The proposed model will be tested on a sample of Italian and Polish respondents using a PAPI survey based on a structured questionnaire.

The current global environment is characterized by, among others, major financial crises, such as the global recession at the end of the previous decade and the more recent crisis of the Eurozone, which has engendered political and economic disputes that in turn affected the relationships between European nations and the spread of eurosceptic sentiments. The rise of nationalism seems to be one of the most visible consequences of the disputes across the Europe. In the last few years, many European countries have witnessed electoral gains for far-right and nationalist parties (e.g., the Front National in France, the Finns Party in Finland, the Lega Nord in Italy, the Prawo i Sprawiedliwość in Poland) that leverage the strong anti-European view of the populace.

Moreover, the British referendum that has delivered a vote for leaving the EU has provided the most recent, clamorous indication that nationalism has brewed largely in reaction to the negative feeling that an increasing portion of European people have about the EU, and consequently Europe. Effects of tensions among countries are expressed not only in the political scene, but also in trade relationships, e.g. evaluation of Made in Europe products. The academic literature in international marketing provides reliable support to the notion that foreign consumers’ anger toward a country that they perceive as hostile may affect perceptions and intention to buy products associated with it (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007).

Findings from this study are of relevant practical interest both from an international marketing perspective – since they might affect the strategies employed.
for the promotion of the brand Europe – and from the point of view of public policy – since European and national governments need to understand the potential damage stemming from political or economic practices.
From creative industries to the creative place brand - some reflections on city and regional branding in Poland

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Abstract

Poland has been experiencing a profound economic transformation for over a dozen years. Regions change their faces, some in a dramatic way. In regions where metropolitan cities play a key role as engines for development, the transformation was less dramatic. Part of the process of economic transformation is the internationalization of the Polish economy and the necessity of opening up to the world. In the era of globalization local, regional and national economies must use different incentives to become and stay competitive. The creative sector is a source of such incentives and plays a key role in stimulating economic development processes. This sector can be also used in the place branding process. The creative ambiance of a place can become an unique asset for the strategic planning of its brand. These practices were recently developed in many cities and regions, trying to adopt the creative place image.

The number of research directions might be identified in the international studies on place branding. Studies on American and Western Europe city brands might be found in the literature, much less interest is paid to research on cities from Central and Eastern Europe. This gap in research should be undoubtedly filled in order to broaden the knowledge of mechanisms determining place brands, as units from Central and Eastern Europe differ from those in Northern America or Western Europe – not only when it comes to their identity, but also in terms of their marketing instruments and capabilities.

There is an increasing interest in the creative sector in Poland, but research on its impact on the brand of the place is still lacking. The paper presents the newest trends in development of the creative sector in different regions of Poland. A typology of cities and regions as locations of specific branches of the creative sector is proposed to point out how their use creativity as asset for the place branding. The study showed examples of cities and regions that create the place brand based on the creative sector as well as cases of units which completely overlook this asset. The cases of cities where there is no concentration of creative entities and yet try to create a creative image will also be discussed.
The complexity in place branding research and practice

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China

Abstract

This paper aims to explore the complexity in place branding research and practice by analyzing the notions of places and distinguishing place branding from place marketing and place promotion. The authors argue that, first of all, since the word ‘place’ embodies rich meanings and it includes country, region, city, town, village, etc., it seems impossible to conduct the research and practice of place branding by using a uniformed theory or a theoretical model. Nation/Country branding differs from the branding of other ‘places’ as the former is affected by ideology and political system of the ‘place’. Village branding differs from that of city and town, as it is comparatively smaller and its branding attributes are more focused.

Secondly, branding is different from marketing. Places are dwelled with people, and they are mostly rooted with history and culture. They cannot be marketed as pure commodities. However, the uniqueness and attractiveness can be communicated to the internal and external audiences.

Thirdly, the practice of place branding, in which who handles the branding process, who are the main participants, and whether the local residents are engaged in, seem to be sophisticated. The authors maintain that local residents’ voices must be heard and the branding practice will win their hearts. The authors explore how in this globalized world what dictates the practice of place branding in order to reach that final image communication to the target market.

Fourthly, place branding is inseparable with communication. The selection of media and social media, events, festivals, celebrities, etc., is also complicated. This is an important area that the authors exploited in bridging the gaps of the place branding construction and cooperation (place making). In distinguishing place branding to place marketing and place promotion, the study explores the tone and intent of the message conveyed.

As repeatedly noted in the literature (e.g. Skinner 2008; Warnaby 2009; Hankinson 2010), “partly as a consequence of its inherent interdisciplinary nature, place branding still lacks a clear and commonly accepted theoretical framework that would structure and guide its practical application and fill the evident gap between existing theory and practice.”

This research is based on the interviews of 26 people and a questionnaire survey of 135 people. The paper will present the major findings of the research.

References


Towards structured city brand experience

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Abstract

Smilansky (2009) argues that experiential marketing can be implemented across all sectors, from financial services to fast moving consumer goods (FMCG), from drinks to music, from technology to leisure. Also place brand experience attracts more and more academics’ and practitioners’ interest but still, it needs more elaboration and structuring. The purpose of this paper is to present the importance of the city brand experience in city branding and to propose a structured theoretical approach to designing and managing the experiences.

Based on the literature review the Author defines the structure of city brand experience that allows to design and manage thereof. Structured experiences describe both the objective, interactive encounters between participants and provider manipulated frameworks, and the resulting subjective participant outcomes of experiences (e.g. Duerden, Ward & Freeman, 2015). “According to this conceptualization, any time a provider intentionally manipulates some aspect of an experience (e.g., setting, rules, equipment), it would be considered a structured experience” (Duerden, Ward & Freeman, 2015, 603). What is important for cities in this context is that structured experiences are never an individual affair but rather co-created (Rossman & Schlatter, 2015).

Although much of the discussion in the literature focus on extraordinary experiences that produce powerful emotional responses and long-lasting memories which all brands want to create and achieve (Arnould & Price, 1993; LaSalle & Britton, 2003), it is also important to strengthen and intensify the everyday experiences people have with a city as residents or tourists, which Carù & Cova (2003) find also important as they occur as part of everyday life. Therefore it is crucial to structure and manage the city so-called brand touchpoints. Based on literature review and the modification of the approach proposed by Rossman & Schlatter, (2015) the Author suggests that People, Physical Setting, Objects and Relationships are crucial elements for creating city brand experience that should be consequently developed into single touchpoints or the groups of those. The approach of Aaker (2013) to enhancing brand experience is also discussed to present the managerial aspect of city brand experience.

Experiences are the take-away impressions that customers glean from the various clues (Carbone & Haeckel 1994). Since brand experiences arise in a wide variety of settings, it is key for a city brand to intentionally design and manage some aspects of an experience. This involves management of brand touchpoints that should be identified (the existed and potential ones), evaluated, prioritized and balanced, and finally implemented in the coherent and consistent way.
The practices of city brand performance evaluation - implications for the city brand effectiveness measurement system

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Abstract

The empirical objective of the paper is the diagnosis of the level of advancement of all the 66 Polish district cities in the area of brand strategy effectiveness measurement whereas its exploratory objective is to develop an universal framework for the effectiveness measurement system for the city brand strategy.

The research process was divided into four phases. The first phase comprised the analysis of available brand strategies of Polish cities. In the second phase the authors conducted 12 interviews with international experts to verify the theoretical assumptions based on literature review regarding the potential and universal measurement framework. In the third phase the authors carried out 34 face-to-face interviews and 31 telephone interviews (depending on the presence or the lack of city brand strategy) with the representatives of Polish municipalities. In the final phase (currently in progress), a framework of the effectiveness measurement system for the city brand strategy will be developed. The paper focus is on the research results obtained in the third phase of this study that provides solid foundations for the proposed measurement system.

The research conducted in Polish district cities demonstrate a genuine interest and urgent need among the representatives of district cities to appropriately measure city brand performance. Although the respondents perceive the brand as important in city management, oftentimes the lack of expertise, low awareness of measurement methods and techniques as well as major issues with intra-organizational coordination necessary to create a comprehensive measurement system are visible. The research showcased difficulties in the articulation of both strategic and operational brand objectives (or absence thereof) and in translating them into performance indicators. For the vast majority of cities, the measurement of the city brand performance occurs ad hoc and does not have a systemic nature. Moreover, city representatives appear to overlook the 'internal' aspect of the brand performance, and thus they tend to rely predominantly on external data sources, ignoring the ones that are
readily available within public administration units or among the key stakeholders. Despite the growing willingness to measure brand performance and the pressure from diverse stakeholders to do so, the respondents (with few exceptions) are in the dark when it comes to the organization of the measurement process. An interesting observation is that the respondents’ relatively high awareness of the brand-related issues and its influence on the city’s reality does not translate into their understanding of what should be measured to evaluate brand performance reliably. In practice, the process is often limited to the simplest perception indexes that are not linked to the specificity of the city and its brand strategy. Considerable barriers to the development of a well-functioning measurement system were also identified and include in particular: the lack of knowledge or culture of measurement, conflicting political interest, reluctance to involve internal stakeholders, insufficiency of funding, the complexity of the brand itself or the unwillingness to show the (lack of) effectiveness of brand-related activities by local authorities.

Drawing from the interviews conducted with city representatives, it becomes evident that there is a pressing need to develop guidelines and foundations of the brand performance evaluation system that diverse cities could benefit from. The dilemmas, limitations and challenges of effectiveness measurement identified during both, theoretical analyses and empirical studies have proven relevant to the problems that cities face. This applies in particular to the absence of a comprehensive structure of indicators that comprises short-, medium- and long-time perspectives on brand performance, as well as to the matter of stakeholder involvement in designing and implementing the measurement system.

To address these and other issues, the proposed measurement system should include a thorough review and a structure of indicators, categorized around themes and time-frames. It also should present the list of possible data sources and stakeholder categories that could be relevant to the measurement of particular aspects of brand performance. Furthermore, a variety of measurement methods and techniques needs to be proposed for particular groups of indicators.

More attention should also be drawn within the framework to the internal perspective of brand performance as these are the citizens and other internal stakeholders that are impacted by the city reputation in the first place.

The proposed system should offer some organizational solutions concerning the coordination and management of data collection and intra-organizational communication. Moreover, due to the financial limitations, the proposed solutions should be budget-sensitive and show how certain propositions can be adapted to suit particular city brand strategies. Such an approach to the measurement of the city brand strategy effectiveness is likely to reflect the brand’s strategic importance while being politically realistic at the same time.

This research was financed by the National Science Centre, Poland, research project no.2015/19/B/HS4/00380 "Towards the conceptual framework for the measurement of city brand strategy effectiveness. Theoretical developments and empirical insights from Polish district cities".
Branding, misbranding, and rebranding Thailand, past and present: International, interdisciplinary perspectives

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Abstract

In 2017, Bangkok passed London and Paris as the world’s most popular city destination (Talty, 2017). Tourist arrivals have dramatically increased in recent years and decades, contributing to Thailand having the world’s lowest unemployment rate among major countries (Economist, 2018, p. 80). To develop a deeper understanding of Thailand’s growing international popularity, it is important to examine thoroughly how Thailand has been branded as a place (de Blij, 2008). That is the aim of this study, to examine the evolution of Thailand’s branding looking at this phenomenon from international/interdisciplinary perspectives. Key research questions are: 1) What are the major sources for the external branding of Thailand? 2) How is Thailand being branded? 3) How does this external branding contrast with Thailand’s own branding of itself?

The key conceptual framework guiding this study is the “crisis of representation”. Leading scholars who have articulated this perspective are: Alatas and Hassan (2005), Said (1978, 2012), and Smith (2012). Scholars and journalists from the West have often misrepresented the non-Western world. Thus, relevant to this paper is the question: how accurate is the external branding of Thailand? The two research methods of this study are 1) case study research (Yin and Campbell, 2018) and 2) content analysis (Correai, et al., 2015; Krippendorf, 2018). This is basically a case study of Thailand and its branding over time. Diverse sources will be mined to see the different ways Thailand has been branded over time including films/movies, novels and literature, journalistic accounts, and scholarly works.

While this research is ongoing, diverse brandings of Thailand have been identified, many positive but some negative, and there are important differences between the Thai and external brandings. Among key branding discovered thus far:

- “Absurd Thailand” (Germany, 2018)
- “Land of smiles” (Thailand, 2010)
- “Amazing Thailand” (Kim and Morgan, 2003)
- “Kitchen of the world” (Sasinand, 2004)
- “Unequal Thailand” (Pasuk and Baker, 2017)
- "Gateway to ASEAN"
- "Exceptional Thailand" (internal Thai branding of itself)

This research shows how Thailand is being branded in many diverse ways, but basically being presented as a truly amazing and exceptional place which helps explains its dramatic growth as a popular tourist destination.

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Stokes Co Pub.


Foreign Office Government Public Relations Department.


The wine sector in marketing communication of Polish regions

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present and analyze the new way of the communication of local brands for the Polish regions; through wine products and wine culture. The production and popularity of wine in Poland have been growing dynamically in the last years; they are used now for marketing purposes by the regions where the wine production is located.

Discussion is based on the content analysis of available marketing and branding strategies (official documents prepared by Marshal Offices and regional DMOs) along with the actual communication tools (e.g. websites, commercials, events etc) being used in relations to regional wine sector. The analysis will be prepared for selected Polish regions which refer to wine as regional product. Available data will be presented to describe the wine sector in Poland and its development potential.

Findings and key arguments

The change of alcohol consumption in Poland has led to an increase of the wine share in general alcohol consumption in Poland. It resulted not only in a significant increase in import, but also in the organic development of local producers. At this moment in Poland there are around 200 vineyards in operation which deliver wine to the market. They are also pioneers in wine culture, which became the center of attention of regional marketers. The regions which produce wine started to invest in the development of this industry seeking out the crucial element which could distinguish their regional brands from the rest. Some of them consciously started to include wine products in their regions’ marketing communication enhancing the image of particular region.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that the wine production in Poland finds itself in the experimental phase. However, these regions that quickly noticed the dormant potential of wine culture, are already associated with this sector (e.g. Lubuskie region) and they use these associations to strengthen the identity of their regional brands.

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Negative MWOM and value co-destruction for destinations

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Abstract

This paper examines the impact of microblogging word of mouth (MWOM) through Twitter on value co-destruction for destinations facing sustained crises. The paper’s main aim is to explore the role of online communities in value co-destruction – as both an individual and interactive concept – in order to contribute to current literature, which has mostly focused on how social media enable value co-creation in tourism. Using the case of the Greek capital, Athens, we explore the extent to which Twitter influencers, such as travel bloggers and news broadcasters, can, accidentally or intentionally, act as value co-destroyers (Ple & Chumpitaz Caceres, 2010) for the destination under study. We aim to identify how lifestyle accounts and news broadcasters on Twitter contribute to value co-destruction for destinations in sustained crises as a result of the crisis they are communicating and, that way, amplifying the crisis itself and contributing to the decline of the destination well-being.

We explore the case of Athens as a city destination facing a sustained financial crisis. Our analysis focuses on three years from 2013 to 2015, which have been the most eventful years of the Greek financial crisis so far (Gkritzali et al., 2017; Gkritzali, 2017). During this period, we look at the top five Twitter influencers, according to their klout scores, that are sharing stories about Athens (using the hashtag #Athens) and are a mix of news broadcasters and lifestyle accounts. We use the method of sentiment analysis to capture the attitude and prevailing emotion of the influencers (Dickinger, Köllringer, & Körlitz, 2011; Godnov & Redek, 2016; Gkritzali, 2017) throughout the years after study. In addition, we map the journey of the online narratives about Athens that are produced and disseminated by the Twitter influencers, through various retweets and retweeting accounts. This way, we capture the shared online value formation process between Twitter users, who are a
mix of stakeholders, such as influencers, residents and visitors. Viewing online value formation as a collective process, we do not focus on individual differences, but rather explore the direction of value formation (co-creation or co-destruction) as well as the volume of online sharing throughout the three years that lie in the heart of the Greek financial crisis.

References


Marketing the city: An examination of precinct marketing programs and retail resilience

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Abstract

Retailing is an essential social, economic and cultural activity, and a strong retail sector makes a significant contribution to local communities and to local, state and national economies. Small, independent retailers contribute to their local communities by providing a variety of goods and services, employment opportunities, and an alternative to the offerings from multinational corporations. However, increases in the array and availability of products, with accompanying price transparency, the globalisation and expanding dominance of large retail chains, tremendous growth in online sales, rapid advances in communication and distribution technologies and turbulent economies all contribute to a volatile and competitive environment for ‘traditional’ bricks and mortar retailers, particularly small retailers.

This study answers the call by Rao and Summers (2016) for further research on resilience theory in the context of retailing. Retail resilience has been defined as ‘the ability of different types of retailing at different scales to adapt to changes, crises or shocks, that challenge the system’s equilibrium, without failing to perform its functions in a sustainable way’ (Fernandes & Chamusca, 2014, p. 2). The concept of ‘retail resilience’ has been applied in recent years in town planning, spatial and geographical studies of retail high streets, main streets and town centre developments (e.g. Dobson, 2015; Barata-Salgueiro & Erkip, 2014; Fernandes & Chamusca, 2014; Karrholm, Nylund & Prieto de la Fuente, 2014). This study aims to extend the notion of retail resilience by examining the role of precinct marketing programs in fostering resilience for retailers operating within the geographical boundaries of such marketing programs.

The ability for individual retailers and for retail precincts (such as central business districts) to leverage resilience is particularly important, as ‘traditional’ bricks and mortar retailers operate in an increasingly challenging landscape as mentioned earlier. Indeed, in many countries, large and small retail firms are exiting the industry as high streets, town centres and suburban shopping districts report declining visitor numbers. In response, local councils with responsibility for economic development, continue to manage and refine marketing programs designed to promote shopping precincts as destinations offering an array of retail, service and hospitality options for shoppers and visitors.

Given the importance of small, independent retail firms an understanding of the factors contributing to firm performance and to the notion of ‘resilience’ is critical. Marketing can be considered one such factor, and this research focuses on the objectives and impact of retail precinct marketing programs in four city sites across the island state of Tasmania in Australia. The main objective of these marketing programs is essentially to provide retailers ‘free’ marketing through various promotional campaigns, activation activities and other initiatives promoting the city centre. To date there has been little research conducted examining the rationale, design and objectives of such programs and their impact on retailers. This study is therefore being conducted in two stages; this paper focuses on the findings from stage one which involves interviews...
with representatives from local councils and affiliated organisations responsible for marketing and/or economic development for the CBD in each site.

References


Perceptions of intra-national exotic destinations in the Greater Bay Area

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Abstract

A close examination at the tourist destinations recommended by TripAdvisor and official tourist websites reveals many of the 11 Greater Bay Area (GBA) cities have been left with historical western architectures, whereas artificial foreign landmarks are found in the rest of the cities. The appeal of exotic places has been explained by the novelty-seeking theory (Crompton, 1979; Feng & Jang, 2004), such that tourists can gain unfamiliar experiences from those they have in their daily life. In the cases of Macao and Hong Kong, the colonial traces have been seen as a major attraction for Chinese tourists (Arlt, 2006). However, other GBA cities are less known to exploit their exotic landmarks; even less is the knowledge of the effect of intra-national exotic attractions, which are more convenient and less expensive to visit than those in foreign countries.

The current study collected survey data from 396 participants from mainland China and Macao in an attempt to understand their perceptions and preferences towards Chinese and western attractions in the 11 GBA cities. A subsequent eye-tracking experiment was conducted with 40 of the participants to examine if...
their verbalized preferences align with their visual patterns of the destinations. Preliminary analyses of both the survey and the experiment suggest a much stronger preference towards exotic destinations than Chinese ones among both the mainland Chinese and Macao Chinese populations. Many respondents who preferred exotic landmarks mentioned “unfamiliarity” as a decisive factor for destination choices.

Governments of the GBA cities are therefore advised to further promote their existing exotic landmarks and develop them so that a natural “circle” of exotic attractions can be developed in the GBA to attract and retain intra-national tourists. Theoretically, the current investigation can add to the knowledge of novelty-seeking and novelty-avoiding behaviours, which hold that the right amount of unfamiliarity is the key to travel motivation (Lee & Crompton, 1992).

References


Not just the icing on the cake: Examining the role of creativity and innovation in place branding strategies

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Abstract

In today’s competitive climate, creativity and innovation are crucial ingredients for communities, precincts, suburbs, cities and countries to attract and retain talent. Creative industries, including the arts, media, architecture and design, are an economic powerhouse far greater than people imagine. Nations that score better on the Global Creative Index have proven higher levels of economic output as well as equality, human development, happiness and wellbeing. As a result, the role of place branding and its ability to both inspire and reflect creativity and innovation, has become more vital than ever before.

This insightful and inspiring presentation will explain how business typically looks at creativity as an afterthought rather than a driver of growth and understanding. It’s seen as the icing on the cake.

But what if it was the cake too? Using a series of local and international case studies, showcasing place brands that have championed creativity and innovation, this talk will illustrate how these industries can become the engine rooms of urban regeneration and economic vitality.

The talk will look at Australia’s cultural capital of Melbourne and how it supports its creative industries. It will also examine key Melbourne initiatives such as the Innovation District, an alliance between the local government, RMIT and the University of Melbourne, to create more opportunities for knowledge workers, students and innovative businesses. Melbourne is now ranked 25th among 500 in the Innovation Cities index (2016-2017), making it one of the most innovative cities in the world.

From a global perspective, we look at Berlin. The city’s focus is split between creative and innovation-focused economic activities. Berlin is already known for its thriving arts community but the city now also attracts innovators in tech, IT and design fields, all keen to set up shop. The talk will provide unique insights gleaned from professional study tours to the city coupled with ongoing dealings with Berlin Partner, Berlin’s official business development agency and the body responsible for the city’s marketing and image campaigns. It will explain how Berlin is creating networks, hubs and business forums that encourage businesses to get together and explore collaborations and increase prosperity. It will also reveal how the city strategically provides opportunities for creative businesses to test the waters via funding co-working environments.
Understanding travel characteristics of Mainland Chinese casino tourists to Macao: Who are they?

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Abstract

Macao has experienced significant changes in economy and tourism development (e.g. visitor arrivals, types of visitors) as a result of the liberalization of its gaming industry, the ease of travel restrictions for Mainland Chinese travellers via the introduction of the Individual Visit Scheme policy, and the new position as the World Centre of Tourism and Leisure by integrating the newly established attractions and resorts. These incidents and factors may eventually lead to the evolvement in the types and characteristics of visitors, the emergence of new segments and changes in the pattern of visitor attitudes and behaviours on the trip to Macao.

This article presents the preliminary findings of a survey of 600 Mainland Chinese casino tourists and gamblers, with the purpose of identifying the profile of these Mainland visitors to Macao, and providing a better understanding about this segment on their socio-demographic and trip-related characteristics, through analysis of their travel purposes and place of residence. It was long believed that casino gambling in Macao is a prominent activity for Mainland Chinese tourists. The results, however, revealed that majority of them were leisure focused on the trip to Macao. They spent a fairly short time on casino gambling; they undertook many other non-gaming tourism activities like shopping and dining; they have also been sightseeing outdoors and visited World Heritage sites. Casinos, being a landmark of Macao, are just one stop on their itinerary in Macao. Gambling is an activity that forms part of their wider visit to casinos. The result attempts to show that not every Mainland visitor who gambles in casinos produces the same travel and gambling behaviour. The leisure group of Mainland casino tourists are important to the travel market of Macao.

This information might provide a starting point for an evolutionary analysis of Mainland Chinese casino tourists' profile, and offer some insights to destination marketers and casino marketers when devising marketing strategies, designing products, services and activities that meet the needs of the clientele segments.

Full paper

Contemporary casino gambling is developed into a commercial product and exploited as a leisure and tourism strategy in attracting visitors to a destination. Casino tourism has become a growing tourism market, particularly in places such as Macao. Macao became a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of the People's Republic of China (PRC) on December 20, 1999. Under the
In 2003 allows residents in major cities of China easier travel to Macao on an individual and independent basis as opposed to travelling only on a business visa or on group tours, which was the case prior to the policy relaxation (Macao Travel Talk, 2009; The Research Office of the Legislative Council Secretariat, 2014). In 1999, the number of visitors totalled approximately 7.5 million. Total visitor arrivals reached over 30 million between 2014 and 2017 (Table 2) (Statistics and Census Service of Macau, 2018), of which more than 66% were from Mainland China. In addition, the number of Mainland visitors travelling to Macau under the IVS increased from 608,400 in 2003 to 10,615,471 in 2017 (47.8% of the total Mainland visitors) (Statistics and Census Service of Macau, 2018).

With the expansion of Macao's gaming industry over the past decades, casino gambling is believed to be a prominent activity for most tourists in Macao, especially Mainland Chinese tourists, who are claimed betting large sums of money inside a casino, being a high risk-taker and a high roller, and having a fantasy of winning quick wealth (Biers, 2001; University of Macau, 2008; Cullen, 2000; Ye, 2009; Zeng and Forrest, 2009; Access Asia Limited, 2002; Ozorio and Fong, 2004; Vong, 2007). Despite the lack of official statistics that describe casino gamblers in Macao, their profiles have been the core of several research studies (Moreira, 2006; Vong, 2006; Wan, 2011) conducted across a number of years (2003, 2004, 2005 & 2010). Based on their results, visitors who are male, relatively young, from Mainland China, earn a monthly salary of MOP1,000 to MOP15,000 and have a high school education, are the dominant segment participating in casino games in Macao. There has been an increasing proportion of casino gamblers who are married. They favour table games and their primary motivation is monetary win, followed by excitement, which is a recently recognized benefit.

Nevertheleys, according to Visitor Expenditure Surveys (2003-2017), only about 3% to 6% of the interviewed Mainland Chinese visitors stated gambling as their main purpose for visiting Macao (Statistics and Census Service of Macau, 2018). One possible explanation is that respondents attempted to provide social desirable responses and avoid stating their gambling purpose publicly. However, it is also likely that they were revealing the truth, which implies a high proportion of Mainlanders were travelling to Macao for tourism activities other than gambling.

Macao, positioned as a World Tourism and Leisure Centre to foster economic diversification and sustainable tourism development (Policy Address, 2011, 2012) and to strengthen the steady development of the gaming industry, has built up a world class tourism industry and diversified its tourism products with a wide selection of hotels, resorts, restaurants, MICE facilities, entertainment establishments and casinos. The city continues to attract gamblers and tourists from all over the world to enjoy the exotic excitement in casinos and to experience the quality tourism facilities and services during their leisure vacation in Macao.

Macao has experienced significant changes in economy and tourism development as a result of government policies alteration and new casinos, hotels and resorts establishment.
Table 1
Gaming statistics in Macao (2004-2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Gross Gaming Receipts(^{(a)})</th>
<th>Direct Gaming Taxes(^{(b)})</th>
<th>Gross Revenues of Games of Fortune(^{(a)})</th>
<th>Share of Direct Gaming Taxes in Total Tax Revenues(^{(b)})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>84.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>85.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>83.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>109.8</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>108.8</td>
<td>88.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>120.4</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>119.4</td>
<td>89.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>189.6</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>188.3</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>269.1</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>267.9</td>
<td>92.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>305.2</td>
<td>107.0</td>
<td>304.1</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>361.9</td>
<td>126.7</td>
<td>360.8</td>
<td>91.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>352.7</td>
<td>128.9</td>
<td>351.5</td>
<td>91.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>231.8</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>230.8</td>
<td>86.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>224.1</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>223.2</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures are represented in MOP billion (1.03MOP=1HKD=7.8USD).
Source (a): Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau, Gaming Statistics (2018); Source (b): Monetary Authority of Macao, Annual Reports (2016).

Table 2
Top three visitor arrivals to Macao (1999-2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total number of visitors</th>
<th>Visitors from Mainland China</th>
<th>Visitors from Mainland China Under the IVS</th>
<th>Visitors from Hong Kong</th>
<th>Visitors from Taiwan, China</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>7,443.9</td>
<td>1,645.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,229.8</td>
<td>984.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>11,887.9</td>
<td>5,742.0</td>
<td>608.4</td>
<td>4,623.2</td>
<td>1,022.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>16,672.6</td>
<td>9,529.7</td>
<td>3,518.8</td>
<td>5,051.1</td>
<td>1,286.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>18,711.2</td>
<td>10,463.0</td>
<td>5,331.4</td>
<td>5,614.9</td>
<td>1,482.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>21,998.1</td>
<td>11,985.6</td>
<td>5,905.5</td>
<td>6,940.7</td>
<td>1,437.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>26,993.0</td>
<td>14,866.4</td>
<td>7,165.2</td>
<td>8,174.1</td>
<td>1,444.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>22,907.7</td>
<td>11,595.1</td>
<td>6,586.4</td>
<td>7,009.2</td>
<td>1,315.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>21,752.8</td>
<td>10,989.5</td>
<td>4,809.9</td>
<td>6,727.8</td>
<td>1,292.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>24,965.4</td>
<td>13,229.1</td>
<td>5,486.2</td>
<td>7,466.1</td>
<td>1,292.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>28,002.3</td>
<td>16,162.7</td>
<td>6,588.7</td>
<td>7,582.9</td>
<td>1,215.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>28,082.3</td>
<td>16,902.5</td>
<td>7,131.9</td>
<td>7,081.2</td>
<td>1,072.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>29,324.8</td>
<td>18,632.2</td>
<td>8,059.6</td>
<td>6,766.0</td>
<td>1,001.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>31,525.6</td>
<td>21,252.4</td>
<td>9,566.4</td>
<td>6,426.6</td>
<td>953.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>30,714.6</td>
<td>20,410.6</td>
<td>9,519.3</td>
<td>6,354.5</td>
<td>988.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>30,950.3</td>
<td>20,454.1</td>
<td>9,579.4</td>
<td>6,419.8</td>
<td>1,074.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>32,610.5</td>
<td>22,196.2</td>
<td>10,615.5</td>
<td>6,165.1</td>
<td>1,060.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures are represented in '000.
Table 3
Survey sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area Where Survey Took Place</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macao-China Border Gate</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macao-HK Ferry Terminal</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macao Airport (Landside)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casinos and Hotels</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction sites near city centre of Macao</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These incidents and factors may eventually lead to the evolvement in the types and characteristics of visitors, the emergence of new segments and changes in the pattern of visitor attitudes and behaviours on the trip to Macao. The characteristics of casino gamblers also seem to have changed across different points in time. Differences between gamblers and non-gamblers are usually examined. Yet, it is believed that there might be substantial diversity and contrast distinct features among the visitors who gamble. Therefore, this study adds some knowledge by identifying the profile of Mainland casino players, and provides a better understanding about this segment on their socio-demographic and trip-related and gambling characteristics, which offers some insights to destination marketers and casino marketers when devising marketing strategies, designing products, services and activities that meet the needs of the clientele segments to improve the competitiveness and success of the tourism destination.

METHODOLOGY

Mainland visitors who met the legal age requirement of entering casinos and had participated in casino games on the current trip to Macao were target respondents of the study. A street-intercept survey approach was adopted and structured interviewer-administered questionnaire was used in data collection. Every fifth of potential respondents were chosen and approached to minimize the biases of selecting respondents based on interviewer’s own preferences. The survey questionnaire consisted of sections that asked about the respondents’ travel characteristics, gambling motivations and behaviours, and their demographics. The questionnaire was pilot tested on a sample of 30 respondents between May 1 and May 6, 2012. Data collection schedule was spread across nine months (between June 2012 and February 2013), including both weekdays and weekends as well as non-holidays and holiday seasons to avoid data being heavily skewed towards particular days.

The survey locations included: exit points of the Macao-China Border Gate, Macao-Hong Kong Ferry Terminal and Macao International Airport; casinos and hotels; and major tourist attraction sites in Macao (the Ruins of St. Paul’s and the Leal Senado Square). Casino hotels selected for the survey included: (i) Lisboa, Grand Lisboa; (ii) Starworld, Royal Arc, MGM Grand, Wynn; (iii) President, Grand Emperor, Sintra; (iv) Venetian, City of Dreams, Galaxy; (v) Beijing Wangfu, formerly known as New Century, Altira; (vi) Ponte 16. The selected casinos and hotels were indicated representatives in geographical locations and gambling concessionaires. Moreover, they were comparatively more famous in Macao and with a high traffic of people. A fair distribution of respondent quota was maintained for each spot. Distribution of survey locations is shown in Table 3. 2966 attempts have been made to collect 600 responses from target subjects (1/5 response rate) who were deemed qualified and included in the study for data analysis.

To comply with ethical considerations, surveyors were recruited, trained and supervised. During the fieldwork, interviewers presented the respondents with an introductory letter clarifying the nature of the research, the purpose of the study, and the principle of voluntary participation. The survey would start only after obtaining consent from respondents. They were made aware that there are no right or wrong answers to any questions, they may withdraw from the interview at any point of time, and that all answers would remain anonymous and confidential.
Table 4
Demographic profile of sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>Residence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63.2% (379)</td>
<td>Guangdong p</td>
<td>42.7% (256)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36.8% (221)</td>
<td>Shanghai m</td>
<td>11.8% (71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Fujian p</td>
<td>9.2% (55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>28.0% (168)</td>
<td>Beijing m</td>
<td>5.5% (33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>42.7% (256)</td>
<td>Hunan p</td>
<td>4.2% (25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>24.2% (145)</td>
<td>Sichuan p</td>
<td>3.8% (23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>4.8% (29)</td>
<td>Zhejiang p</td>
<td>3.8% (23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 or above</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
<td>Guangxi Zhuang AR</td>
<td>2.5% (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
<td>Hubei p</td>
<td>2.2% (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Shandong p</td>
<td>1.5% (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>37.5% (225)</td>
<td>Chongqing m</td>
<td>1.3% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>60.8% (365)</td>
<td>Jiangsu p</td>
<td>1.3% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/ separated</td>
<td>1.7% (10)</td>
<td>Henan p</td>
<td>1.2% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Yunnan p</td>
<td>1.2% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary or below</td>
<td>6.5% (39)</td>
<td>Jilin p</td>
<td>1.2% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 3 graduate</td>
<td>22.5% (135)</td>
<td>Tianjin m</td>
<td>1.0% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>33.0% (198)</td>
<td>Hebei p</td>
<td>1.0% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>17.2% (103)</td>
<td>Hainan p</td>
<td>1.0% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University or above</td>
<td>20.8% (125)</td>
<td>Shanxi p</td>
<td>0.8% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Liaoning p</td>
<td>0.8% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>17.3% (104)</td>
<td>Guizhou p</td>
<td>0.7% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service/ Sales worker</td>
<td>16.7% (100)</td>
<td>Jiangxi p</td>
<td>0.5% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>14.7% (88)</td>
<td>Xinjiang Uighur AR</td>
<td>0.3% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>11.7% (70)</td>
<td>Inner Mongolia AR</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior manager/ Executive</td>
<td>9.5% (57)</td>
<td>Heilongjiang p</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>5.5% (33)</td>
<td>Anhui p</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craftsmen/ Factory worker</td>
<td>5.0% (30)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical workers/ Driver</td>
<td>4.0% (24)</td>
<td>Monthly income (RMB)</td>
<td>&lt;1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>4.0% (24)</td>
<td>1,001-3,000</td>
<td>16.7% (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government/Military/ Civil service</td>
<td>3.8% (23)</td>
<td>3,001-5,000</td>
<td>16.8% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>2.3% (14)</td>
<td>5,001-8,000</td>
<td>15.2% (91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisherman/ Farmer</td>
<td>0.8% (5)</td>
<td>8,001-12,000</td>
<td>16.5% (99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>0.3% (2)</td>
<td>12,001-16,000</td>
<td>10.5% (63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4.2% (25)</td>
<td>16,001-20,000</td>
<td>4.7% (28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
<td>&gt;20,000</td>
<td>13.7% (82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>4.0% (24)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (1) Age: the minimum age of casino entrance raised to 21 years old since Nov 1, 2012, the first age range then became 21-29; (2) Residence: p=province, m=municipality, AR=autonomous region.
Table 5
Travel characteristics of sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel characteristics</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
<th>Travel characteristics</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Times of visitation</td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of travel partners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-timers</td>
<td>43.3% (260)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.0% (90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeateders</td>
<td>56.7% (340)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.0% (240)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19.0% (114)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of stay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£1 day</td>
<td>30.5% (183)</td>
<td>£4</td>
<td>12.7% (76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 days</td>
<td>38.5% (231)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>15.6% (94)</td>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>59.7% (358)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 days</td>
<td>6.3% (38)</td>
<td>M=2.25days SD=1.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 days</td>
<td>5.5% (33)</td>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>15.2% (91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>³6 days</td>
<td>3.5% (21)</td>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td>11.0% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>6.5% (39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip arrangement</td>
<td></td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>4.3% (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Package tour</td>
<td>14.0% (84)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IVS</td>
<td>86.0% (516)</td>
<td>Others(4)</td>
<td>2.5% (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (600)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino games (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>72.1% (227)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27.9% (88)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (315)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (3) % is based on responses from 315 repeat visitors who travelled to Macao in the past 12 months at the time of the survey. (4) ‘Other travel purpose’ category includes shows, concerts or events; wedding photography; training course; transit/stopover etc.

The majority of respondents were male (63.2%), young adults aged 18-39 (70.7%), married (60.8%), earned a monthly income between RMB1,001 and RMB16,000 (75.7%) and from Guangdong province (42.7%). A close to fair distribution was seen in the education level of respondents who were high school graduates (33.0%), form 3 graduates (22.5%), holding a university degree or above (20.8%) and holding a diploma (17.2%). Respondents who were senior managers/executives (9.5%), professionals (11.7%), clerical workers (14.7%), services/sales workers (16.7%) and self-employed (17.3%) shared a fair proportion. The socio-demographic information is shown in Table 4.

Travel Characteristics of Sample

Slightly more than half of the 600 respondents (56.7%) were repeat visitors, among whom 315 visited Macao for an average of 2.77 times in the last 12 months at the time of the survey and almost three-quarters (72.1%) had gambled in casinos in Macao on their previous trip(s). 69.5% of respondents were overnight visitors in which 38.5% stayed for a maximum of two days, implying one night was spent in Macao, while 21.9% spent 3 to 4 days in Macao. On average, the respondents spent 2.25 days visiting Macao. 40% were accompanied with one partner while 15% visited Macao alone. Almost two-thirds (59.7%) visited Macao for leisure vacation and 11.0% for gambling though all respondents gambled on the current
Table 6

Travel characteristics of respondents by gaming and non-gaming purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel characteristics</th>
<th>Non-gaming (n=534)</th>
<th>Gaming (n=66)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (Frequency)</td>
<td>% (Frequency)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Times of visitation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-timers</td>
<td>47.0% (251)</td>
<td>13.6% (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters</td>
<td>53.0% (283)</td>
<td>86.4% (57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of stay</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same-day (≤1 day)</td>
<td>29.0% (155)</td>
<td>42.4% (28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overnight (&gt;1 day)</td>
<td>71.0% (379)</td>
<td>57.6% (38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No. of travel partners</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.5% (56)</td>
<td>51.5% (34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>41.6% (222)</td>
<td>27.3% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0% (107)</td>
<td>10.6% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.6% (78)</td>
<td>3.0% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥4</td>
<td>13.3% (71)</td>
<td>7.6% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trip arrangement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Package tour</td>
<td>15.7% (84)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IVS</td>
<td>84.3% (450)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total travel budget</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M=HK$13,562</td>
<td>$M=HK$72,339</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SD=19,504$</td>
<td>$SD=126,848$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median=HK$7,453</td>
<td>Median=HK$20,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode=HK$3,000</td>
<td>Mode=HK$10,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time spent on gambling</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M=2.33$ hours</td>
<td>$M=8.05$ hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SD=1.43$</td>
<td>$SD=6.42$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total bet amount</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M=HK$5,954</td>
<td>$M=HK$49,677</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SD=30,391$</td>
<td>$SD=88,961$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median=HK$1,236</td>
<td>Median=HK$10,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode=HK$1,000</td>
<td>Mode=HK$3,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong</td>
<td>43.1% (230)</td>
<td>39.4% (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Guangdong</td>
<td>56.9% (304)</td>
<td>60.6% (40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100% (66)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority (86.0%) of Mainland visitors travelled to Macao via the IVS, the number was a lot higher than the official figures published by the Statistics and Census Service of Macau (2014) with around 42-43% of Mainland travellers to Macao under the Scheme in 2012 and 2013. This could possibly be explained by the survey methodology. Subject respondents were randomly chosen at various selected spots using a street-intercept interview approach. Tour groups usually travel directly by coach from spot to spot; it is more difficult to stop them on the street and conduct interviews with them. In addition, they usually travel in a group and their time spent on sightseeing is limited and scheduled, unlike the independent travellers who are more free and flexible on their trip. In this case, independent travellers were more likely to be picked in the survey. The travel characteristics of the sample are displayed in Table 5.
Table 7
Activities undertaken by respondents based on gaming and non-gaming purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Non-gaming (n=534)</th>
<th>Gaming (n=66)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>87.5%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining at restaurants/ sampling local cuisine</td>
<td>81.5%</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting World Heritage attractions</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploring around international branded hotels</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sightseeing (visiting beaches, famous attractions)</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting friends/ relatives</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting museums</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to a bar/ nightclub or experience local nightlife</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spa, sauna or massage</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching a concert/ show/ musical performance</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business (participating in conference, meeting)</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in physically challenging activities e.g. sky jump</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting/Watching art, cultural, historical festival/ fair/ exhibition</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (5) ‘Gambling’ was excluded from the list since all respondents had gambled on the current trip to Macao. (6) Survey respondents could multiselect alternatives for this question, hence, the total responses (2,265) collected is higher than the total number of respondents (534). Therefore, the percentages add up in this case is more than 100% due to multiple responses. To be read: 87.5% of non-gambling purpose visitors have done shopping on this trip. (7) Survey respondents could multiselect alternatives for this question, hence, the total responses (178) collected is higher than the total number of respondents (66). Therefore, the percentages add up in this case is more than 100% due to multiple responses. To be read: 53% of gaming purpose visitors selected dining at restaurants as an activity undertaken on this trip.

Travel purpose plays an important role in market segmentation. Prior research (Oh and Jeong, 2004; Howell, Moreo and DeMicco, 1993; McCleary, Weaver and Lan, 1994; Cai, Lehto and O’Leary, 2001; Hsu and Kang, 2007) suggested and supported that differences in travel activities, behaviour and involvement are displayed based on trip purpose. It was revealed in the current study that only 11% of respondents travelled to Macao for gaming purpose, that is, 89% visited Macao for non-gambling purposes such as vacation (59.7%), shopping (15.2%), and VFR (6.5%) (Table 5) despite the fact that all respondents had gambled on the current trip. It implies that there might be substantial diversity even within all the gambling visitors. In addition, Macao has developed into a quality international tourist destination with a wide selection of hotels, resorts, restaurants, MICE facilities and casinos. Hence, it is meaningful to segment respondents based on primary purpose for travelling to Macao in order to analyze their travel behaviour and to grasp a better understanding and clarification of the types of Mainland leisure gambling visitors.

When analyzing the non-gaming purpose visitors as one group, a similar proportion of them were first-time (47.0%) and repeat visitors (53.0%). Nevertheless, most of the visitors (86.4%) who travelled to Macao primarily for gaming have been to Macao on past trips; only 13.6% of them stated it was the first time they visited Macao. A majority of the non-gaming group (71%) stayed overnight (length of stay was marked as more than one day) for an in-depth exploration and experience of Macao while less than one-third (29%) were same-day visitors (length of stay was shown as one day or shorter). When analyzing the group of visitors (n=66) who primarily aimed for gaming on their trip to Macao, almost an equal number chose to stay overnight (57.6%) or paid only a same day visit to Macao (42.4%) (Table 6). Moreover, all of them travelled to Macao via the IVS scheme and slightly more than half of them (51.5%) travelled alone. The median amount budgeted for the trip among the non-gaming purpose visitors was about HK$7,450 while that for the gaming purpose group was HK$20,000 who actually spent the most time in casinos with a
Table 8
Reasons of playing casino games by gaming and non-gaming purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Non-gaming</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Gaming</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seek exposure/ experience/ widen horizon</td>
<td>22.5% (120)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must-visit site</td>
<td>16.1% (86)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social influence</td>
<td>15.5% (83)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>15.4% (82)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass by casinos</td>
<td>5.8% (31)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial gain</td>
<td>4.3% (23)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test luck</td>
<td>4.3% (23)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like gambling</td>
<td>3.6% (19)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass time</td>
<td>3.4% (18)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel group arrangement</td>
<td>3.0% (16)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>3.0% (16)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>0.9% (5)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegalization on Mainland</td>
<td>0.9% (5)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortune starts in CNY</td>
<td>0.6% (3)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of other tourism activities</td>
<td>0.6% (3)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad hoc decision</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (534)</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(mean value of 8 hours and a median bet amount of HK$10,000. Respondents travelling for non-gaming purpose spent an average of about 2 hours on gambling, with a median bet amount of HK$1,236.

Referring to Table 7, it is observed that the activities undertaken by gaming visitors were mainly concentrated around casino hotels which provided a one-stop service and experience for their guests. For example, shopping, dining, gambling, going to a bar and spa are available and conveniently accessible indoors when casinos are situated in integrated entertainment resorts. It is not deemed necessary for casino gamblers to spend much time exploring Macao if they are able to accomplish their travel purpose at one stop in a casino hotel. However, non-gaming visitors were more likely to select outdoor sightseeing activities like attraction sites and world heritage sites and museums to explore and enhance their knowledge about Macao from cultural perspectives. This group was spending a relatively longer holiday in Macao.

Table 8 shows that the four most commonly mentioned reasons for gambling (by more than two-thirds of non-gaming respondents) were: (1) to widen their horizons, seek exposure through visiting casinos and playing the games and enhance their knowledge and experience (22.5%); (2) casinos are a must-visit attraction site when they travel to Macao (16.1%); (3) participation in casino games is recommended by friends, relatives or other people (15.5%); and (4) playing casino games is considered an entertaining activity (15.4%). They visited casinos as a well-known attraction and to experience the activity for themselves through participation. Nevertheless, among respondents who travelled to Macao primarily for gaming purpose, nearly half of them (44.0%) cited "they personally like gambling activity" and "they aim for financial rewards" as the two most important reasons. Interestingly, they also expressed similar reasons as the non-gaming group, which were "casino gambling is considered an entertainment" and "casinos are a must-visit site in the trip to Macao", in the third and fourth place respectively. This group of respondents personally like and show intense interest in gambling, therefore, they regularly visit Macao and its casinos, as reflected in the high repeat visitation.)
Table 9

Demographic profile of Guangdong and non-Guangdong respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Guangdong (n=256)</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
<th>Non-Guangdong (n=344)</th>
<th>% (Frequency)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>64.5% (165)</td>
<td>62.2% (214)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35.5% (91)</td>
<td>37.8% (130)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (8)</td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>34.8% (89)</td>
<td>23.0% (29)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>44.1% (113)</td>
<td>41.6% (143)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>18.8% (48)</td>
<td>28.2% (97)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>2.3% (6)</td>
<td>6.7% (23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65 or above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.3% (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.2% (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial status</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>44.5% (114)</td>
<td>32.3% (111)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>54.3% (139)</td>
<td>65.7% (226)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/ separated</td>
<td>1.2% (3)</td>
<td>2.0% (7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td>Primary or below</td>
<td>4.7% (12)</td>
<td>7.8% (27)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form 3 graduate</td>
<td>27.0% (69)</td>
<td>19.2% (66)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>38.7% (99)</td>
<td>28.8% (99)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>17.2% (44)</td>
<td>17.2% (59)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University or above</td>
<td>12.5% (32)</td>
<td>27.0% (93)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly income (RMB)</td>
<td>&lt;1,000</td>
<td>2.7% (7)</td>
<td>1.5% (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,001-3,000</td>
<td>24.2% (62)</td>
<td>11.0% (38)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,001-5,000</td>
<td>21.5% (55)</td>
<td>13.4% (46)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,001-8,000</td>
<td>15.2% (39)</td>
<td>15.1% (52)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8,001-12,000</td>
<td>13.3% (34)</td>
<td>18.9% (65)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12,001-16,000</td>
<td>6.6% (17)</td>
<td>13.4% (46)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16,001-20,000</td>
<td>3.9% (10)</td>
<td>5.2% (18)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;20,000</td>
<td>10.9% (28)</td>
<td>15.7% (54)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing value</td>
<td>1.6% (4)</td>
<td>5.8% (20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (8) Age: the minimum age of casino entrance raised to 21 years old since Nov 1, 2012, the first age range then became 21-29.

Travel Behaviour of Respondents from Guangdong and Non-Guangdong Provinces

Guangdong is a province on the South China Sea coast of the PRC. It borders Hong Kong and Macao SARs to the south. The short distance promotes convenient travel from cities in Guangdong to Macao while travellers from other provinces/cities in Mainland China such as Shanghai, Beijing, Fujian may travel by air to Macao. In the study, a fair proportion of the sample were from Guangdong province (42.7%) and other provinces/cities (57.3%). Due to differences in travel distance, ease of travel arrangements and frequency of travel to Macao, it is worth to describe the travel and gambling behaviour between these two groups of Mainland visitors.

Visitors from Guangdong province were of a younger age composition, almost 80% of them aged 18-39, while only about 65% of non-
Table 10
Travel characteristics between Guangdong and Non-Guangdong respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel characteristics</th>
<th>Guangdong (n=256)</th>
<th>Non-Guangdong (n=344)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (Frequency)</td>
<td>% (Frequency)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Times of visitation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-timers</td>
<td>32.4% (83)</td>
<td>51.5% (177)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters</td>
<td>67.6% (173)</td>
<td>48.5% (167)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel purpose</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>51.2% (131)</td>
<td>66.0% (227)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>21.1% (54)</td>
<td>10.8% (37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td>10.2% (26)</td>
<td>11.6% (40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>7.8% (20)</td>
<td>5.5% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>5.9% (15)</td>
<td>3.2% (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuisine</td>
<td>0.8% (2)</td>
<td>0.9% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others&lt;sup&gt;10&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.1% (8)</td>
<td>2.0% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of stay</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same-day (≤1 day)</td>
<td>48.4% (124)</td>
<td>17.2% (59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overnight (&gt;1 day)</td>
<td>51.6% (132)</td>
<td>82.8% (285)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M=1.72 days</td>
<td>M=2.65 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD=1.36</td>
<td>SD=1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No. of travel partners</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>19.5% (50)</td>
<td>11.6% (40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>37.5% (96)</td>
<td>41.9% (144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19.1% (49)</td>
<td>18.9% (65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.9% (28)</td>
<td>15.1% (52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥4</td>
<td>12.9% (33)</td>
<td>12.5% (43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism activities</strong>&lt;sup&gt;10&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td>83.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining at restaurants/sampling local cuisine</td>
<td>75.80%</td>
<td>80.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting World Heritage attractions</td>
<td>39.80%</td>
<td>45.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploring around international branded hotels</td>
<td>19.50%</td>
<td>36.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sightseeing</td>
<td>20.30%</td>
<td>29.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting friends/ relatives</td>
<td>17.60%</td>
<td>11.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting museums</td>
<td>4.30%</td>
<td>11.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiencing local nightlife</td>
<td>2.70%</td>
<td>11.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spa, sauna or massage</td>
<td>1.60%</td>
<td>9.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching a concert or show</td>
<td>2.70%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in physically challenging activities e.g. sky jump</td>
<td>2.30%</td>
<td>2.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting/Watching art, cultural, historical festival/fair/exhibition</td>
<td>1.20%</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trip arrangement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Package tour</td>
<td>9.8% (25)</td>
<td>17.2% (59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IVS</td>
<td>90.2% (231)</td>
<td>82.8% (285)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100% (256)</td>
<td>100% (344)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M=2.58 hours</td>
<td>M=3.25 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD=1.73</td>
<td>SD=3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel budget</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M=HK$10,447</td>
<td>M=HK$27,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD=16,629</td>
<td>SD=62,406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Median=HK$5,000</td>
<td>Median=HK$10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mode=HK$3,000</td>
<td>Mode=HK$10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total bet amount</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M=HK$3,623</td>
<td>M=HK$15,783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD=10,036</td>
<td>SD=55,396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Median=HK$1,227</td>
<td>Median=HK$2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mode=HK$500</td>
<td>Mode=HK$1,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (9) 'Other travel purpose' category includes shows, concerts or events; wedding photography; training course; transit/stopover etc. (10) 'Gambling' is excluded from the list since all respondents had gambled on the current trip to Macao; and survey respondents can multi-select alternatives for this question.
Guangdong visitors belonged to the same age cohort. In terms of marital status, a majority of non-Guangdong visitors were married (1N:65.7% Vs. G:54.3%). More Guangdong visitors attained high school or form three education level (G:65.7% Vs. N:48%) whereas a relatively higher percentage of non-Guangdong visitors received a bachelor degree or an even higher education level (N:27% Vs. G:12.5%). Comparatively more Guangdong visitors were earning RMB 1,001-5,000 (G:45.7% Vs. N:24.4%) while more non-Guangdong visitors were making a monthly personal income of RMB 8,001 or above (N:53.2% Vs. G:34.7%) (Table 9).

Referring to Table 10, more than two-thirds (67.6%) of visitors from Guangdong province, with a close proximity to Macao, were repeat visitors while slightly over half of visitors (51.5%) from provinces/cities other than Guangdong were visiting Macao for the first time. Almost all (90.2%) of Guangdong visitors travelled to Macao via the IVS but about 20% of non-Guangdong visitors travelled on a package tour to Macao. A higher proportion of visitors from other parts of Mainland China were found travelling to Macao for leisure vacation (N:66% Vs. G:51.2%) while more Guangdong visitors (G:21.1% Vs. N:10.8%) aimed to go shopping on their trip. Similar percentages were shown between the two groups for gambling, business, VFR, and cuisine travel purposes. A higher number of non-Guangdong visitors stayed overnight (N:82.8% Vs. G:51.6%) and they usually stayed in or explored around international branded hotels (N:36.6% Vs. G:19.5%), went sightseeing (N:29.9% Vs. G:20.3%), visited museums (N:11.0% Vs. G:4.3%), went for a spa/sauna/massage (N:9.6% Vs. G:1.6%) and experienced nightlife at a bar (N:11.0% Vs. G:2.7%). Visitors from Guangdong prepared an average travel budget of HK$10,447 but those from other provinces/cities prepared a relatively higher trip budget (HK$27,145 on average). Guangdong casino players spent 2.6 hours on gambling and bet on average HK$3,623 while non-Guangdong respondents spent 3.3 hours on average on gambling and their total bet value was almost 4 times (HK$15,782) that of their Guangdong counterparts.

**DISCUSSION**

Contemporary casino gambling is developed into a commercial product and exploited as a leisure and tourism strategy in attracting visitors to a destination. It has been the dominant activity that attracts gamblers and tourists to Macao. However, the study revealed that all respondents had gambled on the current trip though, gaming was not the primary travel purpose to Macao for most respondents. In fact, 89% of them visited Macao for non-gaming purposes such as vacation, shopping and VFR. The result is similar to the Visitor Expenditure Surveys (2010-2017) conducted by Statistics and Census Service of Macau (2018), vacation has always been the first travel purpose mentioned by Mainland respondents (49.1% to 72%). Macao government positioned the city as a World Tourism and Leisure Centre since 2011 to foster and drive economic diversification and sustainable tourism development. The result offers implications that Macao has developed into a quality international tourist destination with a wide selection of hotels, resorts, restaurants, MICE and entertainment/shopping facilities and casinos. Tourists can shop, dine, watch shows/concerts/movies, or undertake spa treatment that cultivate a leisure travel experience during their stay in Macao.

It should be noted that though all Mainland respondents had gambled on the current trip, a relatively high proportion claimed a non-gaming trip purpose. This could possibly be explained by the survey methodology that subject respondents were randomly chosen at various selected sites, including exit points, attraction sites, or nearby casinos using a street-intercept interview approach, the chance of picking particularly VIP gamblers would be largely reduced. Another reason could be that respondents may feel shame or avoid socially undesirable responses by not publicly stated gaming as their travel purpose. Other possibility could be attributed to suspicion held by the respondents who may doubt and worry that it was the governing authorities who were scrutinising their gambling behaviour, therefore, they attempted to provide quite positive responses. There might be biases when respondents were asked to tell and report their own stories, particularly issues about casino gambling, which is, by itself, a naturally sensitive topic. There is a possibility that what people said is not the same as what they did. Nevertheless, it is assumed that the respondents are trustworthy and that their responses reflected in the surveys are true.

Noticeable differences are apparent between Mainland casino tourists travelling to Macao primarily for gaming and non-gaming purposes.
The segment travelled to Macao for vacation, business, VFR, shopping or cuisine: reasons other than gambling, are seeking a more leisure-oriented experience on their trip to Macao. The result is similar to the conclusion made by Wong and Rosenbaum (2012) that Chinese tourists are searching for a travel experience that goes beyond hardcore gambling. Evidence is shown in the respondents’ travel characteristics and activities. Firstly, they mainly go shopping, dining and sightseeing besides casino gambling, one among many tourist activities they undertake in Macao. They explore and enhance their knowledge about Macao from cultural perspectives.

Secondly, the amount of time spent in casinos varies significantly between respondents with gaming and non-gaming purposes. Visitors with gaming purpose spent a lot of time (around 8 hours in casinos out of 2 days stay) concentrated in casino gambling during their visit to Macao while other types of visitors spent a fairly shorter duration (about 2 hours gambling out of 2 days stay). In other words, assuming they visited casinos only once during the entire trip to Macao, visitors with gaming purpose spent approximately 16.7% of their time in a casino, while other groups of visitors spent about only 4.3% of their time gambling during a 48-hour stay in Macao. The result implies and supports that among the visitors with non-gaming purposes, casino gambling is not their sole activity in the entire trip, much of the time could be and is spent on other non-gaming tourism activities to enrich their travel experience in a 2 days stay in Macao.

Thirdly, almost half of the visitor segment with non-gaming purposes were travelling to Macao for the first time, it is expected that they would undertake some tourist-oriented activities such as sightseeing of attraction spots. Casinos in Macao are world-famous and are regarded as a special tourism feature of Macao with the splendid and luxurious design of the resorts, therefore, being considered a landmark of Macao casinos attract these visitors, a place that they should not miss. The trip becomes meaningless or is not complete if a traveller does not visit casinos and gamble in Macao. They gamble not because they are personally interested in the activity; rather, they want to try, to experience, to fulfil their curiosity. They perceive gambling as an activity that forms part of their wider visit to casinos. Casino gambling, to them, is a form of play, a kind of entertainment, a provision of fun, and a sort of new activity. There is a possibility that by saying so, they are attempting to make participation in the activity more convincing. Alternatively, such a perception may be built and influenced by media coverage; for example, the advertisements and official webpage of an integrated resort hotel that features hotel accommodation, shopping, entertainment, dining and MICE, is selling and marketing an overall leisure package. Or in fact, there may be changing social and cultural values among Mainland Chinese.

There are also some valuable insights from the travel characteristics of Mainland casino players from Guangdong and non-Guangdong provinces. Although Guangdong visitors spent a short holiday in Macao, with a shorter distance to travel, easier travel arrangements, and familial connections in Macao, they are prompted to travel more frequently to Macao, with multiple short stays each year, hence, repeat visitations are highly expected. Besides, shopping ranks second in their trip purpose, it is suggested for retail businesses to add more brands and product mix variety that meet the trend and shopping preferences of this group of respondents. Conversely, more than half of the respondents from non-Guangdong provinces were travelling to Macao for the first time, due to the comparatively long travel distance, it is therefore logical to expect that they might visit Macao less frequently; spend a longer holiday in Macao during the trip; explore around the city and conduct a variety of activities that offer them eating, playing, sightseeing and local experiences; and have prepared a higher travel budget. It is probably their first time in Macao and in casinos, and being curious at casino games, they would put in higher wager in casino betting as it is less likely that they will soon return to Macao. Therefore, non-Guangdong visitors to Macao is a potential and an attractive segment considering their longer stay, the relatively higher trip budget and the opportunities to spend on a wider set of tourism activities.

The result attempts to show that not every Mainland visitor who gambles in casinos produces the same travel and gambling behaviour. The majority of Mainland Chinese visitors are casual gamblers who bet for fun, tend to seek novelty and derive enjoyment from the playing process, as opposed to the accusation of being hardcore gambling customers (Kale and Spence, 2008) who may refer to the gaming purpose respondents who endeavour to seek a gambling-
dominated experience on their trip to Macao.

**IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

There are implications for policy strategists, casino marketers and developers of tourist destination. Macao is perceived as a world-class gambling city, it is the fame of the destination that encourages visitors to come to Macao and play casino games. Macao still retains its solid image as a casino city for most people, it is not necessary to shake off such image. Casino games can be supplemented with shopping opportunities, heritage sightseeing, culinary and other tourism offerings to form a multi-dimensional image for Macao. Results of the study conclude that Mainland casino visitors primarily travel to Macao for vacation and shopping; they seek novelty and express curiosity in the trip; they undertake a variety of tourist activities along with casino games during their visit to Macao. Shopping, eating local snacks and tasting cuisine are common activities conducted by these leisure Mainland gambling visitors. Although the data were collected years back, it has showed signs that casino gambling is not the only tourism product offering to visitors, other tourism products especially local cuisine in fact have been attracting and pulling visitors to Macao, though culinary did not form the primary travel purpose for most respondents. With the accreditation of Macao as a UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy in 2017 (Macao Daily Times, 2017), it is confident that cuisine and gastronomy can be another steer that drives Macao’s tourism.

Focusing on the leisure group of Mainland casino tourists and gamblers aligns with Macao government policy on leisure tourism development and tourist segment diversification, and thus reduces economic reliance on VIP gaming. This segment of respondents, including Guangdong visitors, spend most of their time on non-gaming activities - shopping, local culinary and sightseeing that are centred downtown. It is not uncommon to see them carrying many shopping bags of pharmaceutical, medical and baby products as they have high confidence in the quality of these goods sold in Macao. Therefore, it is important for retail businesses to uphold the quality standard. Moreover, improving shopping facilities and expanding shopping varieties that cater to the preferences of this segment is suggested in order to broaden their spending opportunities, and hence increase the economic benefit for the destination.

The intention of boosting spending opportunities can be extended to Mainland gambling-oriented visitors as they are also involved in non-gaming activities. As shown in the results, they are not playing for days nonstop as proclaimed by Kale and Spence (2008); they would take a break and pursue other activities (e.g. shopping, dining) that are housed inside the resort. Even though they may shop for a very short time, they are potential big spenders in high-end retail shops and fine-dining restaurants especially when they have won in casino games. The provision and quality of tourism facilities including mega retail centres and Michelin-starred restaurants are important to casino gamblers who seek for high convenience and accessibility of one-stop service and experience indoor. This inherent value should be emphasized and communicated in marketing campaigns directed to this segment. The development and presence of a diversified retail system is thus a focal tourism element for Macao.

To casinos, leisure gamblers, in terms of participation frequency and amount of bets made, are not as impressive as the VIP gamblers. However, they are less vulnerable to economics or policy change. Seizing a large share of these casual gamblers could be substantial and valuable by shifting and focusing resources to attract the low-end Mainland gambling visitors.

The findings, although not the most up-to-date, are a positive indicator that Mainland casino players to Macao would definitely look for activities other than casino gambling. Macao continues to attract gamblers to enjoy the excitement in casinos and at the same time to promote the city with its distinctive east-meet-west cultures and its prolific assortment of tourism facilities that offer visitors a memorable trip.

The results are subject to several limitations which can be addressed in future research. First, the findings apply and are specific only to the context of Macao, and therefore may not be generalized. Conducting similar studies in other tourist destinations where casino gambling is legalized, for instance in Singapore or South Korea could be a suggestion for increasing the generalizability of the findings and viability of a comparison study that incorporates general Mainland Chinese travel and casino gambling characteristics. Second, convenience sampling at various survey locations was adopted during data collection, which may cause one respondent group to be over represented while other groups are underestimated. Another limitation is participants’
potential reluctance to provide truthful responses because issue about casino gambling is, by itself, a naturally sensitive topic. Since the study relies on self-report data, findings are vulnerable to over-reporting and under-reporting biases. Besides, social desirability could affect their disclosures about participation in casino games. It would be of value to update the data; to have the study conducted on a continuing basis to analyze if Mainland visitors’ attitudes and behaviours to casino gambling in Macao change over time, especially considering the impact of the anti-corruption campaign by the Chinese government and not up-to-date collection of data borne by the study. It is also recommended to study the affluent VIP gambling segment in a comparative study. A more thorough picture of Mainland Chinese visitors and gamblers can then be produced.

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Made in Japan or Made in Kyoto? Branding with place in Kyoto’s traditional crafts

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Abstract

Despite often having been ignored in place branding and country of origin studies (Dinnie, 2004), cultural products are both contributors and beneficiaries of a city’s, region’s, or nation’s place brand. Thus, traditional or heritage craft industries provide an ideal opportunity to examine the interplay of place branding efforts and the use of place brands by local firms in their marketing activities. Yet as craft producers seek to develop contemporary products for global markets to ensure their survival, to what extent do producers in different regions exploit cultural heritage and corresponding place brands in order to develop and communicate a coherent value proposition?

This paper is part of a comparative study of regional place brands in Japan that examines how local producers utilise corporate, region, or nation brand in their marketing efforts. Focusing on one of the strongest regional brands of Kyoto (Brand Research Institute, 2017), it seeks to examine how firms that benefit from a strong regional brand make use of the brand. The distinction between identity and image (cf. Pike 2002, Roll 2006) of both producer and place brand is likely to grow (in line with the 3-gap model presented in Govers and Go, 2009) as these products are extended, adapted or reinvented (Keegan, 1993) for overseas markets.

To address this issue a series of questions are proposed. First, what is the Kyoto brand, its place identity and projected image? Secondly, what are the different product and branding elements that producers use in their ‘traditional’ product offerings? These elements include product attributes, sourcing and production location elements based on a partitioned [place] of origin framework (cf. Chao 1993, 1998, Thakor 1996), and communication elements. Thirdly, given the deeply culturally embedded nature of these products (cf. Douglas, Craig, and Nijsse, 2001), do producers adapt the above elements to either minimise or accentuate aspects of the regional identity, and/or adapt branding efforts to exploit regional or national brand?

This paper examines multiple cases of iconic Japanese and Kyoto crafts of Kyoyaki (Kyoto-ware) ceramics and Kyoshikki (Kyoto lacquerware). Semi-structured interviews with owner/managers are complemented with secondary data, analysis of corporate communications, and observations of trade shows. A comparison with other regional brand highlights different strategies for use of corporate, regional, and nation brand.

Findings indicate that place incongruence on the production side actually coheres with traditional practices and that use of the local brand becomes more nuanced in international markets.

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The significance of respondent’s age in city branding

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Abstract

Place and city branding has not yet reached the level of insight into segmentation found in traditional marketing where there is a long tradition for demographic, geographic, geodemographic, psychographic, behavioral, contextual and situational segmentation. These variables and their influence on the attitude of target groups have hardly been given any attention in city brand literature so far.

This coincides with a somewhat confusing discussion about definition of target groups since largely the same groups will often be seen as stakeholders in the brand process. Only few studies go deeper into the target group issue. Merrilees et al. (2011) used a two-stage quantitative study to compare two stakeholder groups (residents and resident business owners) and found that the two groups had different brand meanings associated to a city brand and each stakeholder group applied their own filter to interpret the meaning of the brand. Zenker and Beckmann (2013) show structural differences for the city brand perceptions of two different target group and the differences between perceptions of an external and an internal target group (involving creative class members and university students). Eventually Zenker and Braun (2017) propose a branded house strategy to deal with a diverse target audience and an advanced brand management including target group-specific sub-brands.

The most recent and comprehensive definition of a city’s brand has been given by Zenker and Braun (2017, p. 275): “network[s] of associations in the consumers´ mind based on the visual, verbal and behavioral expression of a place and its stakeholders. These associations differ in their influence within the network and in importance for the place consumers”. The cognitive assessment refer to beliefs or knowledge about place attributes but beliefs or knowledge may also (sometimes but not necessarily always) lead to affective perception and evaluation. In consequence results of place branding primarily but not exclusively belong to the affective domain of attitude and should therefore be measured and evaluated within that domain as pointes out by Boisen et al. (2017). But the general lack of evidence, quantitative data and time series makes it very difficult to describe and understand.

The present study is based on data from the Danish city of Horsens (90,000 inhabitants in the municipality). For years the image of the city was dominated by a large state prison (named Horsens State Prison), and Horsens was earlier perceived as violent and criminal, in the media described as the “Chicago of the North” and “The City of Fear” (Jørgensen 2017). Annual aided Top of Mind Awareness measurements (TOMA) since 1997 show that 40 – 50 % of citizens living outside Horsens connect the city’s name to the prison, thus more or less defining the city’s brand.

The prison was closed in 2006 and after a period with political and local resistance to any municipal involvement, the city council finally decided to acquire the empty institution and to try to further develop the old buildings as a potential flagship project (THE PRISON) for the city, taking advantage of the high national knowledge factor. This is taking place at the moment (see Jørgensen 2019’, in press).
Table 1

The cognitive assessment: Interviewer in TOMA: “I want you to think of Horsens. What is your first thought when I say Horsens?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents who mention the prison (%)</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The affective assessment: Followed by “You have answered that you think of the prison. Is this in a positive or a negative sense?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>23</th>
<th>36</th>
<th>44</th>
<th>53</th>
<th>52</th>
<th>56</th>
<th>49</th>
<th>60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know/neutral</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1

The cognitive assessment divided in age groups

% of respondents answering the “prison” in the annual TOMA divided into age groups
Figure 2
Change in affective assessment of the prison over time.

Responses to the question: You mentioned the prison, is this negative or positive?

![Graph showing change in affective assessment over time]

- Positive
- Negative
- Neutral/don't know
- Linear (Positive)
- Linear (Negative)
- Linear (Neutral/don't know)

Figure 3
Affective assessment “positive” divided into age groups.

![Graph showing affective assessment by age groups]

- 2010
- 2011
- 2012
- 2013
- 2014
- 2015
- 2016
- 2017
- Linear (2010)
- Linear (2011)
- Linear (2012)
- Linear (2013)
Figure 4
Affective assessment “neutral/don’t know” divided into age groups.

From 2010 the annual TOMA included a question to respondents who mentioned the prison. They were asked whether the prison was “positive” or “negative”? Since 2010 the “positive” attitude has increased significantly from a level of 23% to 60% in 2017, while the “negative” response has been stable around 10-15%. The “neutral/don’t know” response has dropped significantly from 60 to 27%.

Following an analysis of the change of affective assessment of THE PRISON (Jørgensen 2019 in press) the TOMA, however, also clarified that there was an essential age parameter related to this change of attitude. The purpose of the present study is to analyze further how respondent’s age may influence the perception of the prison and consequently the image effect on Horsens, and where different age groups get their information from. The analysis is based on data derived from the annual TOMA and “Knowledge Analysis 2016 and 2018” organized by THE PRISON. These analyses are based on elaborate questionnaires and using the “Analyse Denmark’s” online DK-panel holding 30,000 citizens.

Responses were collected from a web panel including 1026/1004 (2016 and 2018 respectively) representatively selected respondents (national level) and 1043/1011 representatively selected respondent from the Eastern part of Jutland (regional level).

Findings
TOMA 2000 – 2017 is used to illustrate how the cognitive assessment of the prison is stable at a high level over time, but that it is age dependant. There is no statistically significant difference between the period where the
prison was in use (until 2006) and the years after closure.

From 2010 to 2017 the affective assessment shows how the positive attitude towards the prison has increased significantly, the neutral assessment has decreased significantly, while there is no change in the negative assessment. The youngest age group is significantly more positive than the oldest, the oldest age group significantly more negative than the youngest – all other differences between age groups are insignificant.

“Knowledge Analysis 2016 and 2018” illustrate how “Friends who have visited THE PRISON”, “TV” and “Printed press and newspapers” are the most important information sources for both regional and national respondents. Information from friends decrease with higher age, information from printed press increase with age while TV is an important and relatively stable source of information for all age groups. There is a significant drop in the importance of printed press for the two youngest age groups from 2016 to 2018.

By comparison the statement "Postings on Facebook (shared or sponsored)" play an important role for the two youngest age groups regionally and nationally but has a limited effect for the + 50 age groups.

**Conclusion**

The brand of a city contains cognitive as well as assertive elements. This study illustrates that neither cognitive nor assertive assessments of the essential part of a city's brand are static over time but may be subject to change. And that cognition as well as assertion may be age dependent. The study also illustrates that different age groups get their information from different sources and that these information sources are dynamic over time. Target group age should therefore be understood as a key component in city brand projects and brand communication should be sufficiently multifaceted to embrace different age groups.

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An analysis of travel blogs on Malaysian Borneo and implications for destination image formation

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Abstract

User generated content, specifically travel blogs are an important part of the digital tourism landscape. Experiences shared online act as travel guides. The purpose of this study was to understand the consequences of the content shared by bloggers. The island of Borneo in Asia has been depicted with imagery that is exotic and mysterious. This study explored the destination image of Malaysian Borneo as depicted in travel blogs. Through a qualitative content analysis, twenty five blog entries were deconstructed and indicate bloggers share both positive and negative content. Drawing on the negative content, this paper suggests bloggers act as ambassadors for conservation. Blog content presents a balanced view of reality, of nature-based tourism surrounded by oil palm plantations in Sabah. Findings support the call to consider wider socio-cultural and political factors as ingredients for destination image formation. Implications of such content suggest the need for counter measures from destination management organisations.

Full paper

Imaging Borneo

Borneo is a unique island in South East Asia, and not only for its flora and fauna. Three international boundaries divide the island into four territories: Sabah and Sarawak (Malaysia); the nation of Brunei Darussalam and Kalimantan, a region of Indonesia. Each of the four destination management organisations (DMOs), namely, Sabah Tourism Board, Sarawak Tourism Board, Brunei Tourism Board and the Ministry of Tourism, Indonesia converge in the focus of promotion on nature, adventure and culture (King, 2016). All four DMOs utilise the brand ‘Borneo’ in some shape or form in promotional material. According to King (2016), what binds all four political territories is the projected image of the island as ‘wild’, ‘untamed’, ‘unexplored’, ‘dangerous’, ‘mysterious’ and ‘exotic’. He proposed the imaging and representation of Borneo for touristic purposes in the past two decades has focused on a ‘wild Borneo’ of “tattooed and loin-clothed head-hunters, longhouses, blowpipes, women displaying their woven costumes, beads and silver jewellery, and exotic and mysterious fauna and flora” (King, 2016, p.64) and “proboscis monkeys, hornbills, crocodiles, Rafflesia, rainforests and rivers” (King, 2016, p. 72). How has this imagery of Borneo shaped the tourist experience?

Tourists arrive in Borneo with expectations of experiences and activities based on the image of Borneo constructed through historical links with Europe and conveyed in tourist brochures (Saunders, 1993). Key images within brochures include ‘orang-utans, Dayak head-hunters, longhouses, Brunei’s Kampong Ayer, Mount Kinabalu, Bajau horsemen...’ (Saunders, 1993, p. 284). Notably, these images encompass attributes from different territories but
represent 'Borneo'. Similarly, Selwyn (1993) compared brochures of three different sites in Borneo promoting ecotourism and ethnic tourism: experiences were depicted as natural (rivers, rainforests, fauna); cultural (churches, temples, mosques, museums, colonial architecture, state buildings, monuments, and longhouses); and a final category portraying the interaction of people (local tribes) and place (natural environment). However, Selwyn (1993) suggested the brochures “seem to be in the business of selling myths” (Selwyn, 1993, p. 127). He opined the commoditization of Borneo had transformed it into a supermarket where “intellectual distinctions and judgements about the relative value of things becomes blurred” (1993, p. 128). In their case study on ecotourism in Indonesian Borneo, Russell and Ankenman (1996, p.72) concluded visitors saw the wild orang-utan as the ‘embodiment of pristine nature’. But they lamented photography commodified nature (pongo pygmaeus) and proposed for emphasis on educational aspects of the visit instead.

Later, Markwell (2001) examined tourist promotional literature (brochures, postcards, guidebooks) to understand how perceptions of nature evolve and influence expectations of tourists. Findings indicated Borneo was seen as exotic, primitive and wild; images which evolved from colonial times (Markwell, 2001). Findings also highlighted iconic elements of Borneo imagery to include the hornbill, orchids, pitcher plant, proboscis monkey, turtles and the orangutan. Notably, the orangutan stood out as the main icon. “To a considerable degree, the orang utan may well signify “wild Borneo” to Western tourists, most of whom are already familiar with this ‘wild man of the jungle’” (Markwell, 2001, p. 255). According to Backhaus (2003), in European countries, Borneo is equated to nature, adventure and culture. He suggested, “Western tourists who visit Sabah and Sarawak mostly have this diffuse image of green, damp jungles, full of unknown creatures, where hidden tribes live secluded from the modern world” (2003, p.154). How valid are these perceptions a decade later? A study by Corpuz (2017) established how organic images of ‘Wild Borneo’ translated into travel choices and affected visitor satisfaction towards three wildlife destinations in Sandakan, Sabah. Forty four semi-structured interviews were conducted between all sites. Corpuz (2017) found prior expectations lacked comprehension about the level of development in Sabah (for example, English was widely spoken; availability of good infrastructure and cities) and awareness about the extent of commercial oil palm plantations: 16% did not expect this agricultural landscape. Respondents expected ‘a less Westernized and untouched’ Borneo which indicates the organic images available traditionally did not match their expectations.

A few conclusions are drawn about the image of Borneo in the literature. First, the image refers to the whole island: a combined image attributed across international boundaries. Next, iconic wildlife and exotic culture feature strongly and finally, this imagery originated from traditional travel literature and brochures. There is little knowledge of how Borneo is perceived in the Internet era. User-generated content (UGC) as dispersed through the Internet is an important form of digitised Word of Mouth (eWOM) communication (Pan, MacLaurin and Crotts, 2007). As technology now shapes how tourists record and share their experiences (Pearce, 2011), it is necessary to consider its implications upon destination image (DI) formation. With its exceptional geographical and political conditions, Borneo is an interesting case for exploring image projected by UGC. This study presents a qualitative content analysis (QCA) which evaluated the DI of Sabah and Sarawak, or ‘Malaysian Borneo’ as depicted in travel blogs. The primary objective was to explore the type of content being shared and to consider its implications for DI.

**Literature review**

The digital tourist has disrupted both academic and practitioner conversations of DI. Undeniably a key factor in destination marketing, DI influences tourists to choose their next destination, and, to share and recommend their experiences to others. DI is understood as “the perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination” (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). DI has been defined as images projected by destination marketers; the stereotype image held in public’s mind; and images perceived by individuals (Jenkins, 1999; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). According to Cho, Wang and Fesenmaier (2002) information displayed through online communications offers a quality virtual experience providing a simulation of travel experience. Positive images projected online are a motivating factor of tourist’s intention to travel (Kaplanidou and Vogt, 2006). For San Martin and del Bosque (2008), DI is a perception formed over time based on selected impressions of information processed from different sources which are “elaborated, embellished and ordered in the individual’s mind”
of UGC is undeniable as “people trust other people more than they trust those trying to peddle their destination or hotel” (Munro and Richards, 2011, p.143) and therefore, “content is king” (Munro and Richards, 2011, p.144).

However, the potential consumer is rational, makes a reasoned judgement with negative content merely heightening credibility (Munro and Richards, 2011).

Undeniably, this link between technology and personalised content in effect influences DI formation and it is agreed that blogs are a new source or agent of DI formation (Schmallegger and Carson, 2008; Tseng et al., 2015). A growing body of literature examines the consequences of travel blogs for destination marketing (Mack et al., 2008; Schmallegger and Carson, 2008; Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2008; Wenger, 2008; Enoch and Grossman, 2010; Huang, Chen and Lin, 2010; Volo, 2010; Tse and Zhang, 2013). Literature analysed blog content and reader comments, as well as frequency, and reactions to positive and negative content (Volo 2010; Sigala, et. al., 2012). In a recent study, Petriana (2017) explored the DI of Indonesia which provides insights into negative blog content as perceived by visitors from Singapore and Australia. Images shared tend to concentrate on popular sites; whilst perceived image was influenced by the cultural backgrounds of the two markets. The negative content consisted of narratives on inadequate infrastructure, ineffective wildlife protection and Westernization of Bali (Petriana, 2017). However, few studies have focused on understanding how negative content influences DI, and how it contributes to the transformation of blogger and readers.

The literature on tourist DI formation is extensive and includes influencing factors and stages of development (Gunn, 1988; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991); frameworks (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Beeli and Martin, 2004a); image formation agents and components of DI: cognitive, affective and conative (Gartner, 1993; 1994); measurement (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002); dimensions and attributes (Beeli and Martin, 2004b); and definitions (San Martin and del Bosque, 2008). The three stage DI formation process of organic (unplanned exposure), induced (secondary exposure; motivation to travel) and complex (experience-based; primary exposure) images has been well documented in the literature (Gunn, 1988; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). The perceived image (organic & induced) entices an individual to experience the destination and produce a complex image. According to Gartner (1993), while image and reputation build a brand, both rely on image formation agents which contribute to potential travellers’ perceptions of destinations. Eight image formation agents include covert, overt, induced, organic and, autonomous agents. As image can be formed before visitation, and, is changeable before and after actual visitation (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003), the DI formation process is a useful base for destination marketers to monitor changes.

Notably, the blogger has entered the equation as an autonomous image formation agent due to advances in technology. Stepenkova and Mills (2010) suggested “people act on their perceptions rather than facts” and DI acts as the trigger. These perceptions are now driven by bloggers, unofficial DI ambassadors for whichever destination they blog about. Rightly so, Govers (2012,
p.51) proposes “the boundaries between induced, organic and autonomous agents are therefore increasingly blurred and it is essential to monitor the conversation”. Presently, the call for an improved understanding of DI formation continues (Kislali, Kavaratzis and Saren, 2016). In response to the profusion of UGC, Kislali, et al., (2016) proposed a novel conceptual framework to refine DI formation. This framework suggests the need to understand the significance of socio-cultural factors at the destination; the inclusion of technology and UGC as the mode through which potential travellers ‘experience’ the destination pre-visit (organic and induced images), and share content post visit (complex image). To do so, non-positivist inquiry through qualitative approaches were suggested to understand the subjective, dynamic process of how people construct DI (Gallarza et al., 2002; Kislali et al., 2016).

**Method**

This study explored the question ‘how is Malaysian Borneo depicted in travel blogs’ within an interpretive inquiry paradigm. The researchers assumed an emic perspective to understand bloggers, their experiences, and the content shared about Malaysian Borneo using qualitative content analysis (QCA). QCA uses a systematic coding process to subjectively interpret content to describe a social phenomenon (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). The QCA process followed Schreier (2012) to analyse both text and visual data in blogs. The purposive sample criteria required unsponsored personal blogs, written in English, post visit, and were selected based on a keyword search for ‘Borneo’ and ‘Blog’ over five months using ‘Google’ and ‘Bing’. A total of 42 blog entries were initially identified and a pilot study was conducted to build the trial coding frame, based on which only 25 blogs were used in the final QCA. Trustworthiness was incorporated in the research design and comprised engagement with bloggers, peer debriefing, member checks, purposive sampling, an audit trail of data collection and analysis (coding) and persuasiveness of blog content. Thirteen of the bloggers were European, nine from North America, one South African, one Australian and one undisclosed. Table 1 is a list of blogs used in the QCA.

The QCA produced tables of top four most frequently used words and shared photos for each main category in the coding frame. Findings are contextual to the time and scope of this study, and are used to understand the nature of travel blogs.

**Findings and discussion**

The QCA on blogs for Malaysian Borneo projected four experiences, three positive and one negative: nature, adventure, culture (NAC) and negative environmental impacts (NEI). Ten blog entries were categorised as negative, but only the entries on Sabah are presented here. Sabah was strongly projected by its iconic orang-utan and Sarawak for its wilderness. The positive content, NAC relates to the expectations and images linked to Borneo in general for the past few decades (Saunders, 1993; Selwyn 1993; Markwell, 2001; Backhaus, 2003; King, 2016); also pongo pygmaeus as an icon (Russell and Ankenman, 1996; Markwell, 2001). The NEI supports Corpuz (2017) and Petriana (2017) on negative content of Borneo. Oddly, the NEI entries (narratives) focused on Sabah (seven) and Borneo (three) in general; with no images. There was no entry on Sarawak, which is interesting as deforestation there is well documented and massive (Straumann, 2014).

Table 2 presents a comparison of attributes (sub-themes) in relation to Beeri and Martin (2004b). When compared to the nine dimensions (and attributes) which determine perceived DI (Beeri and Martin, 2004b), the NEI adds to both natural environment (‘deforestation’, ‘species extinction’, ‘pollution’) and political and economic factors (‘oil palm plantations’) as depicted in Table 1.

**Destination image is a combination of cognitive and affection components which influence the conative, or behaviour (Gartner, 1993). DI formation is based on how an individual evaluates place and the source of their secondary images (organic and induced). NEI consists of both cognitive and affective components (Beeri and Martin, 2004a). Table 3 provides the verbatim content from blogs sharing experiences of Sabah, within which the emotional component of DI is evident: negative tones express anger, frustration and lament. However, there is also hope, as evident in concluding sentences that end with optimism. This specific content is strategic as it seemingly persuades the reader to take action, to participate in, or, witness, conservation (see italicised sentences in the Table 2). Two main implications are evident and support the suggestion by Kislali, et al., (2016) for the need to include socio-cultural factors of a destination and UGC as a mode of experiencing it, at the pre-visit stage to influence secondary image formation of potential tourists. As UGC is a key secondary source of DI for potential tourists, marketers need to understand the motivations and repercussions of negative content in blogs.
Table 1
List of travel blogs with entries on Borneo; Travel Blog Name (Blogger name)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Travel Blog Name (Blogger name)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bemused Backpacker (Michael Huxley)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Planet D (Dave Bouskill and Debra Corbell)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>All Things Go (Lauren Sadler)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>DC Adventures (Anna/Dulo and Charlie/Chev)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The Poor Explorer (Guest posted by Rebekah Rogers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Katy Weaver Blog (Katy Weaver)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Budget Savvy Travelers (Harry and Audrey)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Roaming Around The World (Heather and John Widmer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Border of Adventure (Becki)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Kyle Hammons (Kyle Hammons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>City Girl Searching (Roxy Hutton)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Divergent Travelers (Lina and Dave)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Traveling Ted (Ted)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Wild World Travel (Claire Asher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Destination Unknown (Kellie Netherwood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Bespoke Bride (Emily Pettiford)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Live Less Ordinary (Allan Wilson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Niels Van Der Heijden (Niels Van Der Heijden)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Vickeblueyes (Vicky)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Melted Stories (Ciara Kennedy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Ditch The Map (Sylvie and Scott)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>One Step 4ward (Johnny Ward)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Travel Monkey (Lena)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Nomad Is Beautiful (Ivana Greslikova and Gianni Bianchini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Goats On The Road (Guest posted by Tiffany from Vagabondway)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Negative attributes for perceived tourist DI of Sabah

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Attributes (Negative)</th>
<th>Attributes from this study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural Environment</td>
<td>Overcrowding</td>
<td>Deforestation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Air and Noise Pollution</td>
<td>Species extinction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traffic congestion</td>
<td>Rubbish (Pollution)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political and Economic factors</td>
<td>Safety; crime rate; terrorist attacks</td>
<td>Oil palm plantations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: extracted from Beerli and Martin (2004b)
NEI Narratives in Blogs on Sabah, Malaysian Borneo

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NEI: Sub-Themes</th>
<th>Verbatim Narratives in Blogs on Sabah, Malaysian Borneo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oil palm plantations</td>
<td>“No matter where you go in Sabah, you won’t miss the palm oil plantations. What first appears as a beautiful field of palms soon shows its ugly face as one of the biggest problems in Borneo. While the palm oil plantations bring in money for the owners and the governments, they are destroying the rainforests. The massive deforestation has caused significant loss of vegetation and animal habitat” [Divergent Travelers]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deforestation</td>
<td>“When we went to Sukau, our big wish was to see a wild elephant near the river […] not the season to spot them […] the alarming situation with deforestation in Borneo also plays a role and we truly wish it does not end up in a total disaster for the animals and their habitat. So, the fact that you encounter an elephant on the Kinabatangan in the future will be a sign the situation is stable or improving” [Nomad is Beautiful]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deforestation</td>
<td>“The Kinabatangan river has the highest concentrate of wildlife in Borneo due to the surrounding deforestation. That means that cruising the river you have a very high chance of seeing the wild life in their natural habitat” [The Poor Explorer]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deforestation</td>
<td>“We went to the Orang-Utan Rehabilitation Centre in Sepilok to see them in their natural habitat. […] Orang-utans […] survivors of deforestation or just orphans. Trees are cut down and land is used for palm trees plantations – it is a huge problem in Borneo. […] Centres like Sepilok help them to come back to normal life.” [DC Adventures]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Species extinction</td>
<td>“The Malaysian Borneo of today is a very different one of 50 years ago. […] rainforest was cut down at an alarming rate […] Sadly, forests are still being clear cut in Borneo to make room for Oil Palm Plantations and poaching of endangered species such as the Orangutan and the Clouded Leopard is on the rise: but there is a glimmer of hope. Conservation and reforestation methods are being introduced and 16% of Sabah’s forested area is protected. And there are heavy penalties for poaching. So, now is the time to get yourself to Borneo and see this magical land before it is too late. Plus if there is one thing that I have learned in my travels, if people can make some money off of tourists coming to see their wildlife and nature, well, they will just work that much harder to protect it. ” [the planet D]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution: garbage</td>
<td>“While in Sukau, we arrived while they were setting up a small weekend market, not far from our lodge. When we wandered back down later, the market was down, all the people gone and layers of garbage just left lying on the ground” - [Divergent Travelers]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution: garbage</td>
<td>“The worse of it was in the islands near Semporna. There are villages on the islands that leave their trash everywhere. Nothing like garbage in paradise” – [Divergent Travelers]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Pan, et al., (2007), UGC affects travellers by creating attention, interest, desire and action. However, tourists with different understandings of desirable experiences will find different contents and notions of blog images inspire them (Ye and Tussyadiah, 2011). To what extent then could negative content influence attitudes to places, perhaps to deforestation? Could emotional responses be converted from blog entry into real life action to participate in conservation efforts, for example? Pearce (2011) suggested the act of sharing experiences by the digital tourist is a mode of connecting to others. Bloggers share their emotions, both anger and determination with ‘calls to action’ of future intentions including “desire to undertake volunteer work, avoid destructive socio-cultural behaviours, think about their purchasing patterns, donate money or put readers of the travel blog in touch with charities and aid organisations” (Pearce, 2011, p.139). However, blogger demographics and psychographics need to be considered for it is a
certain segment of travellers who are sharing such content for whom the goal is to share their experiences, holistically. The blog content in this study adds support to consumer pressure in Europe for a consensus on how to enhance biodiversity within plantations, not least for the survival of the iconic orang-utan (Lindsay, Convery, Ramsey and Simmons, 2012), but also a range of other species that have suffered habitat loss.

Secondly, bloggers share the reality of oil palm plantations near key wildlife attractions in Sabah and change the script of secondary images (organic and induced) available to potential travellers. Inadvertently, they have shared a truth which Petriana (2017) suggests challenges the traditional tourist gaze directed by DMOs. Is it credible? Indeed, deforestation due to oil palm plantations in Sabah is linked to loss of habitat for the orang-utan (Ancrenaz, et al., 2015). Ironically, the main wildlife sites in Sabah are either surrounded by this palmscape, or, it is part of the journey to the site. As discussed by Lindsay, et al. (2012), conservation of the tropical ecosystem is complex and contested from a range of perspectives (cultural, political, developed, developing nations and stakeholders). However, they concur that oil palm plantations have altered 'sense of place' for Borneo. It can be concluded the DI of 'Wild Borneo' has evolved, and, as more holistic content enters the blogosphere, tourist expectations will need adjustment. Such content might influence the perceptions of potential travellers, or as suggested, enlist them to take action and participate in conservation.

Therefore, this study suggests the need to understand and share the evolution of both these industries to clarify the narratives. Luquiau (2012) presents a well-rounded explanation of 'Borneo's ecotourism problem’ depicting tourism related issues, challenges and successes linked to this wildlife hub in Sabah. Conservation efforts include research to understand how the orang-utan has adapted to human-transformed environments at the lower Kinabatangan River floodplain in eastern Sabah; amidst calls for the cessation of forest to agriculture land conversions, as well as enforcement of management practices to reduce threats of plantation for the survival of the orang-utan (Ancrenaz, et al., 2015). When viewed constructively, this negative blog content plays a role to accentuate a valuable resource: the environment and its wildlife.

However, both tourism and oil palm industries are beneficial to the economy of Malaysian Borneo. The plight of the orang-utan is symbolic of conflict between economic development and environmental conservation (Ancrenaz, et al., 2015).

Avraham and Ketter (2013) proposed the cosmetic and strategic approach to alter DI. They suggest destinations facing prolonged negative image apply strategies that 'tackle the problematic reality’. Perhaps not enough is being done to tackle the problematic reality of economics in Sabah? Presently, there are few blog entries depicting negative content, and this study does not suggest that Sabah, or Malaysian Borneo has a negative DI as yet. However, this study provides an impetus for DMOs to listen in and address such content. DMO websites could consider adding links to both government and non-governmental organisation (NGO) blogs to clarify conservation efforts. Also links to journal articles presenting scientific facts on habitat and species conservation; and even organise blog entries on DMO websites that present a clearer understanding of this contested issue.

**Conclusion**

The exotic, mythical image of Borneo has been drawn into the modern era due to UGC. Future work may delve into understanding the lack of negative blog content on Sarawak. Also, a QCA on DI of all four territories could be conducted as presently, some blogs continue to address Borneo as one island creating a DI that might be incorrect for any one of the four. The content of travel blogs written by the East Asian market about Malaysian Borneo should be explored as it is the key inbound market presently. Bloggers have assumed the role of an unofficial conservation ambassador for Sabah. The iconic orang-utan is elevated into a symbol of hope as travel blogs create awareness by using the affective components of DI to inform the cognitive, and entice readers to act. Bloggers advocate a holistic, instantaneous, digitally induced DI of Malaysian Borneo which enters the realm of UGC to be utilised as a source of image formation. As such, DMOs need to engage with the negative issues highlighted in blogs, and to encourage conversations that seek sustainable solutions.

**References**


“This is innovation”: Analysis of new trends in Swedish branding strategy

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Abstract

In the globalized world states must compete with each other in attracting investments, tourists or talents. Nation branding can be listed as one of the most useful tools in succeeding in such competition. Even states that are perceived to be successful in creating their strong nation brand and good reputation do not rest on their laurels, but engage themselves in new branding activities. One of such examples is Sweden which in spite of strong international position in terms of its nation brand and reputation is still looking for new methods of enhancing its image. In the newest strategy for promotion of Sweden one can find most of the elements that are present in the last one, however new aspects have been highlighted as well and a slight change in the balance point can be observed. This may suggest some changes within up to now trends of branding strategies and turning towards new soft power resources in branding Sweden.

The most direct aims of the research will be to identify potential factors that led to such changes within strategy of promoting Sweden abroad. Secondly, main changes within new promotion strategy will be listed with special regard to the aspects of attracting talents and enhancing innovation in Sweden. The main theoretical basis for the proposed analysis is one of many concepts of public diplomacy proposed by Joseph Nye, who stated that: “Public diplomacy tries to attract by drawing attention to these potential resources through broadcasting, subsidizing cultural exports, arranging exchanges, and so forth. But if the content of a country’s culture, values, and policies are not attractive, public diplomacy that “broadcasts” them cannot produce soft power. It may produce just the opposite.” (Nye 2008, p. 95) Such understanding of public diplomacy and acknowledging potential possible negative effects of shaping state’s nation brand and image could easily be extended to nation branding as well. Therefore the key aspect of the analysis is the occurrence of potential risk of worsening Sweden’s international image owing to the changes within the strategy. Since the newest promotion strategy has been introduced after the peak of migration crisis in Europe, it could be perceived as a response to it and its challenges. Therefore, the main research question is whether such shift towards the aspects of innovation and technology actually stems from migration crisis and whether such subtle attempt of rebranding is a good choice for the Swedish nation brand, until now connected rather to welfare state, high quality of life and wide tolerance?

As to provide more in depth analysis, new trends in Swedish promotion strategy will be critically confronted with other examples of using the arguments of innovation, technology and being a hub for international talent in branding strategy with regard to potential shifts in resources used in the strategies. Those will be Estonia and Finland, which are also widely recognized for their high level of innovativeness.

Participation in the conference was financed within subsidy of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Poland) designated for the development of young researchers and PhD students.
The Olympic Games as a public diplomacy and nation-branding platform

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Abstract

There are a number of ways to utilize sport for the sake of public diplomacy and nation branding. Among the most common, sports victories, international sports exchanges, sports development aid, participation in sport (in the case of so-called “contested states”), and hosting sports events can be mentioned. When it comes to hosting sports events, so-called mega-events such as the Olympic Games or the FIFA World Cup are particularly important since they attract the attention of billions of people.

The purpose of the paper is to investigate one of the most important sports mega-events - the Olympic Games - from the perspective of the states that use them to shape their international image. A comparative case study will be employed in order to compare the most recent Olympic Games: London 2012, Sochi 2014, Rio de Janeiro 2016, and PyeongChang 2018. The study will include a background description of each Olympiad-hosting nation, analysis of the branding objectives of the Olympic Games under consideration, and an attempt to assess whether those aims were reached. The study will also refer to the actual activities that were undertaken by the organizers of the respective events in order to reach their branding goals, such as the opening ceremony, the Cultural Olympiad, Olympic ambassadors, etc. The opening ceremonies will be given particular attention since they are believed to be a great opportunity for the host nation to present its culture and national achievements to a global audience.

The proposed research is a comparative case study. Its goal is to search for differences in how each Olympic Games were used for the sake of nation branding and public diplomacy. Case study protocols will be employed in order to observe similarities and differences, considering variables such as the size of the nation (on the basis of population), the wealth of the nation (on the basis of GDP per capita), and political regimes. The analysis will also include the budgets of respective events, politics that were involved, and whether there was any international criticism against the nations hosting the Olympic Games. The research will refer to the theoretical concept of soft disempowerment first asserted by Brannagan and Giulianotti, which notes the reputational risks of hosting sports mega-events. The main research question refers to the reasons behind host nations’ different approaches to utilizing hosting sports mega-events for the sake of nation branding and public diplomacy. The hypothesis to be tested states that non-democratic states are more likely to employ more expensive methods to enhance their prestige through hosting the Olympics, and are more likely to experience diminished attractiveness as a result of the global attention and scrutiny that is associated with such events.

This work was supported by National Science Centre, Poland [grant number 2015/19/D/HS5/00513].

Participation in the conference was financed within subsidy of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Poland) designated for the development of young researchers and PhD students.
A ‘bottom-up’ place marketing initiative: Destination Lund Sweden

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Abstract

While New York Times and Vogue described Lund and the southernmost region in Sweden as an undiscovered pearl waiting to be explored, the local tourism office of Lund asked tourists to go to visit places outside Lund. This is not due to a huge and steady flow of tourists visiting the city of Lund. Lund is one of the oldest towns in Scandinavia, with a rich and fascinating history. This paper aims at discussing the citizen initiative to place market the city of Lund. Destination Lund can be seen as a ‘bottom-up’ response by residents in 2016 to the politically controlled local tourism office’s attempts to involve residents in ‘top-down’ activities and dismantling of the city brand. A unique material has been collected through participating observation. By using smart tourism technologies and the fact that many of the members are experienced travellers, a set of downloadable material for smart phones and tablets in several languages have been developed: maps, guides, films and useful links. All material is free of charge on the Facebook page and at the blog. The local tourism office run by the municipality oppose – and even combat – these efforts, as they want the tourists to come to their office and buy their printed products; their focus is on the surrounding countryside.

Several lessons can be learned from Lund. The locals are the best ambassadors for a place; Kotler is right indeed. Know-how and enthusiasm can achieve more in place marketing than the official tourism office with a budget. Moreover, the third sector can play an important role in place marketing activities. A key to successful place marketing lays in a good product and to master marketing through social media.

I am grateful for constructive comments on an earlier version of this paper by Daniel Rauhut, Jonny Andersson and the anonymous referees of the conference.

Full paper

Lund is one of the oldest towns in Scandinavia, founded around 990 A.D. (Cinthio 2018), and it played a key role in the Christianisation of the Nordic and Baltic regions (Skansjö 2008). The magnificent 12th century Romanesque cathedral is still a landmark. During the Middle Ages, Lund was an administrative, commercial and religious metropolis in the Nordic countries (Carelli 2012). The first ‘University College’ in the Nordic countries, Studium Generale Lundensis, operated in...
Lund 1438-1536 (Blom & Wahlöö 1999); the Cathedral School, founded 1085 A.D., is still running and is the oldest school in Scandinavia (Lunds kommun 2018). The University of Lund was founded 1666, presently a top-100 university in the world. Today Lund is a R&D cluster for biotech (Medicon valley) and the IT-sector, and it hosts the European research centre ESS (Oredsson 2012; Wetterberg 2017b).

After the Battle of Lund in 1676, Denmark lost its eastern province to Sweden forever (Wetterberg 2017a). During 1716-1718, Lund served as Sweden’s unofficial capital (Skansjö 2015). Still, Lund is an arena for high-level politics. In early 2018, Lund hosted a UN Security Council meeting (Svt 2018) and in 2016, on the 500 years’ celebration of the Reformation, the Pope visited Lund and the Catholic Church and the Lutheran World Federation finally made peace (Vatican News 2016).

The cultural life is vivid in Lund. Måns Zelmerlöv, the 2015 Eurovision Song Contest winner, is from Lund as is Timbuktu (Wikipedia 2018). Among others, the artists Gösta Adrian-Nilsson (GAN), Oskar Reuterstärd and Carl Fredrik Hill were from Lund as the contemporary Mats Milhamre is (Wikipedia 2018; Art by Milhamre 2018). A numerous number of famous Swedish authors come from Lund or have worked in Lund, e.g. Frans G. Bengtsson, Hjalmar Gullberg, Fritjof Nilsson Piraten, Viktor Rydberg, August Strindberg, Esaias Tegnér and Per Wahlöö (Kulturportalen Lund 2018).

While e.g. New York Times (2016) and Vogue (2017) describe Lund and the southernmost region in Sweden as an undiscovered pearl waiting to be explored, the local tourism office of Lund advises tourists to go to see the countryside around Lund (Visit Lund 2018). This is not due to a huge and steady flow of tourists visiting the city of Lund. The brave tourists who defy the local tourist office’s advice only receive information to visit the Botanical Garden and exhibitions of obscure artists in the municipal art gallery. Needless to say, the gallery is usually empty of visitors.

In 2016, some citizens in Lund reacted against the dismantling of the place brand by the local tourism office, first in a Facebook group, and later in the association “Destination Lund Sweden” 2017. That residents raise their voice in favour of an increased tourism has been identified in previous studies (Andriotis & Vaughan 2003; Zhang et al. 2006; Kavaratzis 2012; Braun et al. 2013; McComb et al. 2017). In theory, the best ambassadors of a place or destination are the residents. To include the residents’ views is important for place marketing to succeed (Giles et al., 2013; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Braun et al., 2010; Messley et al., 2010; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). If the residents are satisfied with where they live, it has to be a nice place (Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut 2016). Tourists, business travellers etc. are however also ambassadors of a place or destination, so what they think may affect the attractiveness of a place or destination (Kotler et al 1999; Simpson & Siguaw 2008). These target groups are underexplored in Lund.

The concept smart tourism refers to the use of modern ICT-solutions e.g. to spread information on destinations and places, to facilitate travel planning and to enhance travel satisfaction (Gretzel et al 2015; Huang et al 2017; Yoo et al 2017). Digital technologies opens up the possibilities for collaboration among the place stakeholders and their active participation in place marketing process which is needed to achieve successful place and destination marketing results (Huang et al. 2017; Jovicic 2016). Destination Lund Sweden developed a set of free downloadable material for smart phones and tablets in several languages: maps, guides, films and useful links (Destination Lund 2018). The local tourism office run by the municipality oppose these efforts, as they want the tourists to come to their office and buy their printed products. Although improvements have been made regarding available digital information, the focus is on the surrounding countryside (Visit Lund 2018).

This paper aims at discussing the citizen initiative to place market Lund. Three questions will be addressed: (1) How has smart tourism technologies changed the possibilities for the third sector1 to be active in place marketing? (2) Why has Destination Lund Sweden managed to achieve such success in a relatively short time? Finally, (3) Why is it important with a stakeholder’s collaboration during the place marketing process?

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Over the last decades, significant amounts of research and scientific findings on the city residents’ role and perceptions have been made.

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1 The third sector comprise non-governmental and non-profit-making organisations or associations, including charities, voluntary and community groups, cooperatives, etc.
The place marketing theory and practices display the changing role of city residents in place marketing activities and strategies. Residents were considered as city customers before, with the most important attitudes such as customer satisfaction, satisfaction with a place before, with the most important practices display the changing role of the place marketing creators and co-partners in all stages of place marketing and branding process (Kotler et al. 1999; Hankinson 2004; Kavaratzis 2012; Giles et al. 2013; Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut 2016; Herezniak 2017). The stakeholders-oriented approach in place marketing and branding process is fundamental for successful results. In theory, it is more likely to achieve success in city marketing if the residents are not considered important from a customer-oriented approach, but with an involvement orientation and participation practices (Hankinson 2004; Baker 2007; Houghton & Stevens 2011; Kavaratzis 2012; Zhang et al. 2006).

It is not only the residents’ “customer era” when they “were only one of the target groups of the place marketing efforts” (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2008, p. 162) which is gone. So is the top-down centred policymaking in place marketing not considering the stakeholders’ involvement and engagement (Houghton & Stevens 2011, p. 48; Kavaratzis 2012; Jamhawi & Hajahjah 2017). Nowadays residents are the main participants in all stages of place marketing and branding process (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2008; Kavaratzis 2012; Braun et al. 2013; Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut, 2016). They are co-partners, co-creators and co-producers of a whole place product, services and policies (Warnaby 2009; Braun et al. 2013), ambassadors for their place brand (Kotler et al. 1999; Simpson & Siguaw 2008; Braun et al. 2010; Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut 2013; Taecharungroj 2016), and city citizens, actively participating and contributing to the place marketing process (Braun et al. 2013; Zenker & Rutter 2014; Taecharungroj 2016).

The bottom-up approach, with stakeholders as core drivers, is seen as a key to the successful results of place marketing process (Simpson & Siguaw 2008; Jamhawi & Hajahjah 2017). Kavaratzis (2012, p.10) argues that “[…] stakeholders should be thought of as active groups of people to be motivated towards defining their own meaning of the place brand instead of passive groups of people to be consulted on this meaning”.

To what extent is place marketing sensitive to who is doing it? Marketing of a place based on political-administrative interests present a ‘desired’ image the political and administrative leaders in a certain place want to spread (Kavaratzis 2012; Holcomb 1999), and e.g. residents and tourists have to accept this image. This kind of place marketing can be considered as a top-down marketing of a place. Moreover, commercial interests, e.g. a travel agent boosting the image of a certain resort place, do top-down marketing. Also residents, business travellers and tourists place market a city or place (Simpson & Siguaw 2008). They have sometimes a different image of a place compared to the image of top-down place marketing. This ‘practical’ experience of a place generates a bottom-up image of a place. As we noted earlier in this theoretical discussion, there is a consensus of the importance of involving residents, business travellers and other tourists in place marketing.

The rapid development of ICT, internet and social media have revolutionised the tourism sector from both a destinations and tourist perspective (Buhalis & Law 2008; Xiang & Gretzel 2010; Chung & Koo 2015; Li et al. 2017; Yoo et al. 2017) and brought “smartness” into tourism destinations (Jovicic 2016). ICT has also changed a tourists’ behavior in searching and purchasing the travel information. Tourists now are less loyal to package tours; they are smart, more knowledgeable and demanding, prefer to manage their vacations and holidays by themselves (Yoo et al. 2017; Jovicic 2016). Hence, places and destinations must master social media and the smart tourism aspect to reach their potential target groups if they plan to become successful in attracting tourists and visitors (Xiang et al. 2008; Li et al. 2017).

METHODODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The empirical material is based upon literature, internet sources, documents and participating observation. While the first three sources need no further explanation, the latter does. Participating observation is a methodology commonly used in anthropological and ethnological studies. “The most distinctive opportunity of participating observation] is related to the investigator’s ability to gain access to events or groups that are otherwise inaccessible to scientific investigation /…/ Another distinct opportunity is the ability to perceive reality from the viewpoint of someone ‘inside’ the case study rather than external to it” (Yin 1990:92-93). The participating observer is a primary data source by
him/herself as s/he interprets what is going on around him/her (Robson 2002). The most significant disadvantage with this methodology is that the participating observer can be biased in his/her views because of being a participant (Yin 1990). On the other hand, no research in social science is truly unbiased and ‘neutral’ in a normative sense (Holme & Solvang 2010).

This study will use a mixed methods methodology, in which both qualitative and quantitative sources are analysed. By combining different kinds of material, a fuller analysis can be made of complex situations and processes (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). A mixed methods methodology is likely to produce new knowledge as it approaches the empirical material in a broader way (Bryman 2010). In marketing research, this is also a standard research design (Kent 2007). Given that the empirical material consists of literature, internet sources, documents and participating observation, this appears a reasonable methodological choice.

How can the influence of Destination Lund Sweden be measured? Measuring the output in terms of effect, results, impact etc. is not possible at this stage. The organisation has just existed for just more than a year. After ca five years it is however possible to evaluate how Destination Lund has changed tourism in Lund.4

A ‘BOTTOM-UP’ REACTION

The municipal tourism office considers the sights worth displaying for tourist to Lund are the beautify countryside outside Lund, but not Lund itself (Meeting notes 2017). At first sight, this appears odd, but the local municipal tourist offices are a part of the local public administration, and hence highly politicised. Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut (2013) found that 75 municipals northern Sweden focused upon promoting their beautiful countryside instead of identifying their unique selling points. Promoting the ‘beautiful countryside’ is a result of benchmarking towards other municipals’ place marketing activities; they just copy strategies from each other. The rationale for highlighting a relatively unexciting countryside, as the municipal tourism office of Lund does, instead of the unique selling points of a city with many cultural and historic treasures, is related to a simple benchmarking exercise towards the surrounding municipals of Lund.

During the early autumn 2016, five private residents in Lund expressed their dissatisfaction with how the city is promoted on a Facebook community page. Suddenly, the number had grown to 30 and a separate community was formed – Lund’s tourist association. The common denominator in the dissatisfaction was how the cultural and historic treasures of Lund were ignored in the promotion of the city. A core group of the community started Destination Lund Sweden in January 2017; one communication’s expert, one IT programmer and one marketing expert. Today the community Destination Lund Sweden has more than 1,000 followers and about 10 active (unpaid) members. Destination Lund / Lund’s tourist association is a third sector organisation and all the members are volunteers working without any salary (Kniviilä 2017; Magnusson 2017; Rumpf 2017; Stierna 2017).

The first activity Destination Lund organised in August 2017 was a guided biking tour around the battlefield of the Battle of Lund. As a completely new organisation, which only communicated through social media, Destination Lund hoped for 10-15 participants – 50 showed up! (Destination Lund 2017). During the summer 2018, the number of persons listing themselves to participate in this guided tour is three times as high as the maximum number of participants for the guided tour! The Swedish nationwide tourist association STF reviewed the quality of the guided Battle of Lund tour as excellent (STF Södvästra Skåne 2018). A free downloadable map of the tour is available on internet and so is a short guide (Destination Lund 2018).

Destination Lund has not only tried to identify unique selling points of Lund, but also potential target groups. The municipal tourism office targets Swedish, Danish and German tourists alone (Meeting notes 2017). To increase the number of foreign tourists, Destination Lund did two 15 minutes long promotion films about Lund in Russian. The films were broadcasted in Russian travel program “Tour insider” on

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4 In a recent appraisal and review of how place marketing activities are measured by Rauhut Kompaniets and Rauhut (2018), the findings indicate that a majority of the measurements are non-scientific and not evidence-based. The common quasi-experimental methods and the use of the difference between an ex ante and ex post evaluation in place marketing are targets for severe criticism for being imprecise and inefficient. The normal thing to do would however be to evaluate the impact of Destination Lund with these imprecise and inefficient methods. This attempt is declined in this paper.
Figure 1
Screenshots of the Battle of Lund map and guide

Slaget vid Lund den 4 december 1676
Med cykel – Så nära du kan komma!

Destination Lund

Figure 2
Screenshots from the two films on Lund
Figure 3
Screenshot from the city map

Figure 4
Screenshots from the compilation of guides and Instagram

Destination Lund
Ideell turistinformation om Lund

https://www.facebook.com/SvenskaDestinationLund/
https://www.facebook.com/DestinationLund/
Lunds bästa turistinformation

Destination Lund
Ideell turistinformation om Lund

Lunds bästa turistinformation
Siberian TV (Tour insider 2017a; Tour insider 2017b). Several Russian bus trips operators to Europe had a four hours stopover in Lund; now they have extended the stay in Lund to two full days due to an increased demand of their costumers (Forum Tourtrans-Voyage 2018). Very positive reports of these tourists have been posted on internet, which has further increased the demand for exploring the city of Lund and its cultural and historic treasures (Interview 2018). The aim is to translate these two films on Lund into Swedish, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Korean and Chinese. The Russian voice track will be replaced with voice tracks in these languages, and the films will be available for free on Youtube.

In order to maximise the experience of Lund, Destination Lund has also developed a set of maps and guides for smart phones and tablets (figure 3). The digital map of sights and attractions, practical information (ATMs, toilets, bike stations etc.) aims at visiting professionals and business travellers who have a few hours to spend before or after meetings to explore Lund’s cultural and historic treasures. By clicking on an icon on the map, a pop-up window displays further information of the object together with a photo, history, links, opening hours etc. The number of downloads of the map indicates a demand and that this product most likely has reached its target group.

A series of downloadable guides, on historical buildings and sights in Lund have also been produced. These guides contain a short history of these sights and historical buildings, photos and a map on how to find them.

The local tourism office of Lund called Destination Lund for a meeting in November 2017. During this meeting, the tourism director called Destination Lund to dissolve and stop with all activities. This request was based upon, although only implicitly expressed, a fear for competition (Meeting notes 2017). It took only six months before a handful of unpaid experts, without any budget and resources, outperformed a local tourism office with full-time staff and a regular budget.

A dialogue with other third sector organisations begun during the autumn 2017. Thomandersällskap och Uppåkras vänförening are worth mentioning in this context. The association for local enterprise host frequent meetings to which relevant public and private actors are invited to. Destination Lund participates at these meetings and are active in networking there since autumn 2017. Kulturen (an outdoor historical museum), the Historical Museum and the International Citizen Hub Lund have a pending attitude towards Destination Lund and a cooperation will most likely emerge in the future. Destination Lund tried to establish a cooperation with a Church of Sweden, but the Church of Sweden does not consider the magnificent cathedral of Lund as a tourist attraction (Meeting notes 2018b). Still, thousands of tourists come to Lund just to see the cathedral.

During the spring 2018, several shops and galleries have contacted Destination Lund to inquire if it could be possible to be mentioned in the free downloadable maps and guides by Destination Lund. Furthermore, Destination Lund has entered an interesting cooperation with Lundaspelen. The organisers of Lundaspelen would like accompanying family members to have an interesting experience while in Lund during the handball tournament. The products produced by Destination Lund have made an impression on them (Meeting notes 2018).

DISCUSSION

As the municipal tourist office is a part of the local public administration, it is governed by the politics of the ruling majority in the city hall. Hence, the place marketing activities are politically decided and are therefore not a result of a professional marketing strategy. If the ruling politicians wish to market Lund by benchmarking and by copying the neighbouring municipalities, the administration has to comply with this decision - also if it in practical terms means a dismantling of the city brand.

When the local tourist office wants to include the residents into marketing or brand promoting activities, these are decided by the local administration. These activities can be considered ‘top-down’. Since the place marketing is made by the public administration, they have to be evaluated. The rationale for evaluations varies. The two most common are (1) to legitimise the policy of a ruling majority and (2) improve the activity/programme in different ways (Vedung 2010). If a programme/activity is highly political, it becomes politically difficult to point at failure – may it be lack of cost efficiency, effect, participation etc. The more political a programme/activity is, the more likely it is that it shows success (Premfors 1989). The evaluations of the activities by the municipal tourism office report an outstanding performance and success, especially during the summer months (Magnusson 2018; Lunds kommun 2017). The evaluations made however use a methodology which is everything but scientific or evidence based (Cf. Rauhut Kompaniets and Rauhut 2018). Again, this implies
the political character of these evaluations.

Destination Lund Sweden is a third sector organisation and staffed by unpaid residents of Lund. The (potential) unique selling points of Lund have been analysed from a professional perspective and so have the provided smart tourism products. While the politically controlled local tourism office target native, Danish and German tourists to visit the countryside surrounding Lund, Destination Lund targets also business travellers and students in Lund, and they target tourists from other countries (Russia, the Netherlands, China etc.). Finally, the information provided by Destination Lund is not only in Swedish and English, but also in Russian (and products in more languages are in the pipeline).

It is also worth emphasising that Destination Lund Sweden is the result of a dissatisfaction among residents in Lund on how the marketing of the city is done by the local tourism office. Successful place marketing needs to include the residents and their views (Rauhut Kompaniets & Rauhut 2016; Giles et al, 2013; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Braun et al, 2010; Messley et al, 2010; Zenker & Petersen, 2010). Seen from this perspective, Destination Lund can be regarded as a ‘bottom-up’ response to the politically controlled local tourism office’s attempts to involve residents in ‘top-down’ activities. That residents oppose local politicians on how many tourists, what activities etc. a certain place should attract has been surveyed in previous research (Andriotis & Vaughan 2003; Zhang et al. 2006; Kavaratzis 2012; Braun et al. 2013; McComb et al. 2017).

Destination Lund concluded that the modern traveller prefer to have all needed information about a destination, sights etc. in their smartphone or tablet. This is the underlying idea of smart tourism. Why carry numerous paper maps (which always break down on the second day of use), leaflets and booklets to carry in a bag when you can have the same information in the smart phone? To enable this, all essential travel information, information on destinations, sights etc. have to be available on internet. This is what Destination Lund does. The local tourism office does not; the tourist can come to their office and pick up a city map and maps of the surrounding of Lund, leaflets, booklets etc. Some are free of charge, others are not. It is obvious that Destination Lund and the local tourist office have two completely conflicting views on how to use modern ICT and social media in place marketing.

While the local tourism office try to shun the third sector stakeholders from the place marketing of Lund, private and other third sector stakeholders seek cooperation with Destination Lund due to the way Destination Lund uses ICT and social media to produce easy accessible tourism information. The politically controlled ‘top-down’ marketing of Lund appears to lose ground in favour for a stakeholder-based ‘bottom-up’ place marketing process. The new smart tourism technology has started to change the participation of different stakeholders in the place marketing process.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this paper is to discuss the citizen initiative to place market Lund and three questions are proposed to be answered. (1) Modern ICT and social media has revolutionised place marketing in a way few could predict. The emergence of smart tourism technology have turned residents from being consumers, with needs to be satisfied, into an important stakeholder actively involved in the marketing and branding of a place. Most people today know how to post things on e.g. Facebook and Instagram, and many persons run their own blog. Consequently, modern ICT and social media has challenged the traditional marketing monopoly of the politically controlled local tourism offices. From this follows that the new smart tourism technology has enabled residents, tourists, and business travellers etc. to do a ‘bottom-up’ marketing of a place parallel to the traditional ‘top-down’ marketing by the local tourism offices.

(2) Seen from this perspective it is not surprising at all that potential visitors to Lund appreciate the maps and guides produced by Destination Lund: the information a smart tourist demands is now supplied. Several local associations and organisations related to the tourism industry have noticed the products of Destination Lund and seek collaboration. The remarkable in this context is how the local tourism office opposes both smart tourism and the involvement of other stakeholders in the place marketing of Lund.

(3) Research results point at a stakeholders-oriented approach in place marketing and branding process as fundamental for successful results. Numerous studies argue that residents are e.g. copartners, co-creators and co-producers of a whole place product, services and policies, ambassadors for their place brand and actively participating and contributing to the place marketing process. If such an important stakeholder suddenly is shunned from the place marketing of a city, the place
marketing of the city will be inefficient and unsuccessful.

A general conclusion is that the local tourism office is not in tune with time with time. Instead of welcoming different stakeholders and involve them in the marketing process, the local tourism office tries to uphold a monopoly of place marketing activities for the city of Lund. In analogy with the arguments of standard economic theory, monopolies in general are inefficient; public politically controlled monopolies are definitely inefficient. A second indication that the local tourism office is too poor, inefficient and unsuccessful.

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Destination campaigns as strategic brand building tools: The multi-case study of four Indian states

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Abstract

This study argues for a stronger link between destination campaigns and destination brand-building. We examine campaigns in their wide role as strategic tools rather than as narrow, operational marketing tools. The main aim is to identify and critically discuss the key dimensions of destination promotional campaigns and assess the factors that enhance their potential contribution to the destination brand. Marketing communications in general, and destination campaigns in particular, play a crucial role in the destination brand-building process (Morgan et al., 2002).

However, this role has not been clarified adequately, especially in terms of the link to identity-making processes (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013) of a destination by its main stakeholders (Sheehan et al., 2007) and in relation to the significance of internal stakeholders for creating a destination brand (Konecnik & Go, 2008; Pike & Page, 2014). We argue that this leaves a gap in our understanding of the strategic contribution of destination campaigns to the wider destination brand-building process, which needs to be explored.

We use a series of in-depth interviews with DMOs and advertising agencies in a multi-case methodology to examine the campaigns of four Indian states (Madhya Pradesh, Kerala, Rajasthan and Gujarat). Within-case analysis provides information on each campaign’s development, the media and creative strategy, the campaign planning process and its critical components. Cross-case analysis identifies common patterns and dimensions that are significant across all cases. Our findings show that six key dimensions can be considered as value enhancers for the campaign planning process and its success: a) strategic brand orientation, b) destination product development, c) destination leadership, d) stakeholder involvement, e) client-agency relationship and f) destination communications.

These dimensions go beyond the narrow planning of the campaign and allow us to offer a stronger link between campaign planning and brand-building. Differentiation points for the destination brand can be created and communicated if the six key dimensions of the campaigns are understood and if all of them are fully incorporated into destination campaign planning. A campaign planning framework is introduced that incorporates these dimensions and outlines their theoretical and practical significance.

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Creative sensory landscapes in the realm of place marketing: A case study in the city of Volos, Greece

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Abstract

The concept of creativity and the analysis of senses influence the perception of the landscape and the promotion of place through place marketing procedures. In this paper, creativity, sensoryscapes and place marketing are analysed, aiming at the identification of places that combine expressions of creativity, and the sensoryscapes from which these emerge. The objective of this paper is: to investigate how creative activities can contribute to the sensorial perception of a landscape and how the interaction between sensoryscapes and creative activities can be turned into an advantage for the promotion of a place's identity.

In urban studies, creativity refers to practices included in the notions of creative environment, creative activities, creative economy, etc. In this paper, eight creativity criteria that foster a creative environment are defined and creative activities (cultural, environmental, educational, etc.) that are strongly linked to these criteria are surveyed. Furthermore, landscape is examined through certain sensorial dimensions (vision, hearing and smell) that render it into specific sensoryscapes. The combination of both leads to the formation of a creative sensory landscape with distinctive characteristics, a strong place identity and place brand.

The main findings of the research relate to the conclusion that in the creative sensoryscapes that were analysed, specific creativity criteria emerged, leading to the main argument that when these criteria occur in a place, it is mostly likely for strong sensoryscapes to emerge. This could also create a strong image for the place that could lead to further development, through specific place marketing procedures in order for a sense of place to be established. The research was funded by an IKY scholarship through the program 'Research Projects for Excellence IKY/Siemens'.

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Destination branding in Haute-villégiature – A practitioners’ perspective

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Abstract

Practitioners and market research companies have identified a shift from consuming luxury goods to consuming luxury experiences (Atwal and Williams, 2009, Beverland and Lindgreen, 2002). Esp. there is a boom of consumption of exceptional travels/stays/journeys from all cultural origins and all around the world. Companies have emerged, whose duty is to craft the journey for these clients. They call themselves travel designers. Simultaneously, the usual players from the hospitality and travel industry (e.g. hotels, yacht renting companies, airlines, etc.) challenge the limits of their offer, showcasing unique and sometimes time-limited “products”. This is the equivalent of Haute-couture in the travel industry: Haute-villégiature.

Haute-Villégiature has been defined (Maman Larraufie and Sargeni, 2018) as being about designing and delivering travel experiences with the highest quality standards, by highly knowledgeable people who are experts in their business and led by passion. Each Maison has its own style and personality, but all are creative and innovative to surprise and exceed expectations of their clients.

These clients are unique and have specific expectations. The overall objective of Haute Villégiature is thus to be a wow factor in the travel industry. We want to understand in the present study how actors of Haute-villégiature use destination branding (or shape it) in their strategy. Especially, as origin is fundamental in luxury branding (Aiello et al., 2009, Maman Larraufie, 2013) and marketing, we expect a close interplay in-between their branding strategy and the destination branding strategy. We want to understand the synergies and/or tensions.

Using a professional event, The Edge of Luxury, that will gather in June 2018 a series of main actors from Haute-villégiature, we will explore our research question using two different methodologies: face-to-face interviews with these actors (in-depth semi-directive interviews) and desk research of their communication material (website, brochures, ...). All data will be addressed using content analysis (Berelson, 1952, Cavanagh, 1997). As this study is exploratory, it is hard to predict its results. We will confront these with how destination branding is used by companies in general, especially in the luxury industry.

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Brand recognition of traditional and regional products among students in Poland – the case of beer market

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Abstract

From year to year, the popularity of traditional, regional and ecological products in Poland is growing (Gulbicka, 2014; portalspozywczy.pl). Currently there are 1814 traditional products listed by The Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development in Poland (minrol.gov.pl). Unfortunately, the growing popularity of these products does not go hand in hand with their recognition, especially among young consumers (Szlachciuk et. al., 2017). One of the most dynamically developing segments of the traditional and regional products in Poland is the beer market (Wojtyra, Grudzień, 2017). This development undoubtedly stimulates the phenomenon of so-called beer tourism (Slocum, 2018; Sieczko, 2017; Charzyński, Podgórski, 2017) thus becoming an important trend in the promotion of regions.

The main goal of the article is to analyze the level of familiarity with Polish regional and traditional beer brands among students. The choice of students as a study group was dictated, among other things, by the fact that they lead a relatively social lifestyle (Kaczmarek, 2006) and have generally good knowledge about the beer market. Secondary objectives include: analysis of the general recognition of the beer market in Poland, description of preferences of beer consumers, and evaluation of market development potential.

In order to fulfill abovementioned aims an extensive literature studies and a PAPI survey (on a group of 210 students) has been conducted. Although preliminary, results confirm that respondents have very specific preferences when it comes to beer consumption (including its taste, price, place of purchase etc.) and that there is a significant consumption potential within the group. Nevertheless, their brand recognition is rather low, therefore a need to run informational and promotional campaigns aimed at boosting the awareness of regional and traditional beers should be considered. Moreover, considering prices of traditional and regional products in Poland (which are significantly higher than other non-traditional products) in comparison with price preferences of the studied group, there is a significant gap which undoubtedly create a strong barrier for consumption.

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The impact of brand revitalization strategy on stereotype of city image: Examples from Nanjing and Shenzhen

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Abstract

City competition is increasingly intense currently, a good city brand has become an important edge that it can help a city to win opportunities of rapid development and the public’s attention. It is a real challenge for city governors to make a long-term management about the city brand, to make it a vibrant and attractive, to timely turn negative stereotypes to positive ones. The theory of brand revitalization is widely used in the field of products, and it has an important reference value for the city brand management. It is a significant question that whether different brand revitalization strategies can produce an effect on city brand.

This study was based on the brand revitalization theory and the stereotype content model. The experiment was designed to control brand revitalization strategies (awakening memories, changing the image, not activated) and city type (a historical and cultural city, a modern and technological city). The study was carried out for exploring how do different strategies affect the public’s cognition of the city’s competence and warmth in different cities. We wonder if brand revitalization strategy has a main effect and if there is an interaction effect between brand revitalization strategies and city types.

Research results showed that the main effect of brand revitalization strategies was not significant, but an interaction effect between brand revitalization strategies and city types was significant. For the historical and cultural city Nanjing, changing the image compared to awakening memories could bring a significant higher city preference. But compared to non-activation, the differences between groups did not reach significant level. For the modern and technological city Shenzhen, awakening memories compared to changing image, could lead to a significant higher cognition about city’s competence, warmth and city affection. However, compared with non-activation, the differences between groups did not reach significant level.

This study brings some enlightenments to the city manager. It is not a correct awareness that as long as a brand revitalization strategy is applied, it will bring about an ideal effect. City managers should fully consider the city’s own characteristics, grasp the needs of the public, select the appropriate strategy and avoid the abuse of strategy. For historical and
cultural cities, changing the image can make a momentous significance to promoting the public’s cognition about city’s competence, warmth and city affection, yet awakening memory may not be a wise choice. For modern and technological city, if we want to enhance the public’s cognition about city’s competence and warmth, it is suitable to apply the strategy of awakening memories, but not change the image. In this study, we found that the effect of psychological compensation was obvious and keeping balance was more applicable in the field of city branding.
Reconsideration of the positioning of Macao’s city brand: Based on the perspective of the strategy of Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao Bay Area

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Abstract

This paper starts from the reality of the development of Macao and the Greater Pearl River Delta in recent years. In the context of the established vision of World City of Tourism & Leisure in Macao and the strategic planning of Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao Bay Area, this paper revisited the progress and inadequacies of Macao in the journey to World Tourism and Leisure Center.

This paper believes that the construction of a world tourism and leisure center is not only the fundamental driving force for the overall development of the local socio-economic environment, but also can radiate into a wider metropolitan area and promote the regional industrial structure, infrastructure, thus to promote the sustainable development of the regional economy.

Based on the strategic planning background of Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao Bay Area, this paper examines the six major urban functions related to the vision of building a world tourism and leisure center, i.e., brand leadership, industry agglomeration, comprehensive services, innovative demonstration, driving by radiation, and inclusive development. In addition, this paper also employs the detailed analysis of the CBDI (city branding development index) of 11 cities in Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao Bay Area to measure the pros and cons of Macao’s city brand.

Based on qualitative and quantitative analysis, this paper proposes the following strategic recommendations for the strategic city brand positioning of Macao in the map of Guangdong, Hong Kong and Macao Bay Area. That is, the functional integration strategy, the cultural foundation strategy, the industry integration strategy, the smart growth strategy, the service first strategy and the brand driving strategy. Through the urban image optimization and city branding/marketing, the important role of Macao in building a world tourism and leisure center will be effectively promoted.

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Internal place branding: a study about residents’ involvement and perceptions of Porto city brand

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Abstract

Local governments are creating city brands to achieve differentiation and face competition for tourists, investments or residents. The main studies about this topic argue that stakeholders’ engagement is crucial for the success of a city brand and managers should involve residents in the process of brand design in order to respect their perceived city identity. This study discusses the creation process of a city brand, the involvement of residents and their perception about brand identity. The city of Porto was chosen as a case study, since a new city brand was created in September 2014, receiving several international awards.

The authors analysed the descriptive book explaining the semiotics of the brand created. In order to understand the strategy and residents’ involvement in the creation of Porto city brand, an interview with the head of communication of Porto City Council was conducted. In a third phase, it was developed a focus group with Porto residents from different parts of the city. The focus group gathered the residents’ perception about the brand created and their sense of place identity.

Results indicate that, despite residents being partly involved in the creation of Porto brand and identifying themselves with the brand created, they consider that the brand is designed to attract tourists and not to reinforce residents’ place attachment. With a public policy implication, this study indicates that internal communication and place branding between city brand managers and residents needs to be rethought.

Full paper

Stakeholders involvement in city branding has been an important topic of research and the roles of residents in this process is considered an emerging issue (Compte-Pujol et al. 2017, Acharya and Rahman 2016). Internal branding and the way internal stakeholders perceive the city brand is essential to communicate the attractiveness of the city to external stakeholders, as tourists, for example (Peighambari et al. 2016, Compte-Pujol et al. 2017).

City brands are designed to promote an unique and attractive
image for residents, tourists, investors and business people, through the identity of a common environment and authenticity (Ashworth and Kavaratzis 2009, Cozmuc 2011). The elements of a city brand refers to urban icons, monumental buildings, public spaces and special features, with a logo, name and tagline. The aim is creating an identity with personality that becomes the city able to differentiate itself from others (Riza et al. 2012, Kladou et al. 2017). Local governments take the initiative to create city brands and are the primarily responsible for the process of managing the creation of the city brand with the diplomacy of stakeholders’ involvement (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2006, Acharya and Rahman 2016).

The quality of the relationships established between residents and the outsiders influences the quality of life and satisfaction of residents, who live in the city and represents the society. They are the source of the culture of the city and are responsible to foster the economy (Acharya and Rahman 2016) and make the city alive (Hereźniak and Florek 2018). The relationships developed between the residents and tourists define the character and atmosphere of a place. This is because the way people relate to each other, the way they create bonds and accept other cultures, influence the good connection between the citizens and the outsiders. It is important that public managers explain and emphasize the importance of instructing strong relationships based on values instilled in society (Insch and Florek 2008). Local governments should take into consideration this relationship to originate a positive communication from residents to outsiders, conveying a good impression of the city (Insch and Florek 2008, Peighambari et al. 2016) and promote tourism development (Vargas-Sanchez et al. 2015). However, for residents transmit values of friendliness and hospitality, they also need to have a strong sense of belonging and satisfaction to the city (Hunt and Stronza 2014), a positive attitude toward tourism development (Jordan et al. 2015) and a correct understanding of the city brand (Kladou et al. 2017).

The existing literature indicates that the participation of residents in the creation of the city brand is important (Braun et al. 2013, Kavaratzis 2017, Compte-Pujol et al. 2017) because they are the main agents who create city authenticity and manifest the identity of the place (Hereźniak and Florek 2018), living and communicating with tourists. As the main evaluators of the city brand, when residents contribute to the brand creation process their evaluation tend to be positive (Braun et al. 2013, Freire 2009), becoming ambassadors of the brand (Kavaratzis 2017). The word of mouth communication from residents assumes an important indicator for outsiders since it is considered informal, authentic and truthfulness (Eshuis et al. 2014, Ryu and Han 2009). The involvement of residents in the process of brand creation reinforces the positive word of mouth, but is also responsible for increasing the number of ambassadors of place brand. The word of mouth effort enables to increase ownership of the brand and therefore creates more sense of responsibility and external reputation. With the involvement of the residents in this process it is possible to strengthen the place attachment and create place brand ambassadors (Braun et al. 2013).

Despite the advantages of including residents with an active role in the process of creating the brand (Bennett and Savani 2003), governments sometimes assume that residents are only passive beneficiaries or place customers. Public managers usually exclude the participation of residents in the brand creation process, hiring just an external consultant to create a new logo and slogan for the city (Kalandides 2011, Compte-Pujol et al. 2017). Residents’ involvement in the creation of a city brand is a complex task. On the one hand, multiple place identities can be identified in different populations of the city (Insch and Walters 2018). On the other hand, residents’ brand identification may contrast with the image visitors get from the city (Zenker et al. 2017). A previous study developed in Barcelona found a partial identification of residents with the city brand and a distance with some values communicated (Compte-Pujol et al. 2017). Following those evidences, this paper aims at analysing the process of involvement of residents in the creation of a city brand, discussing their perception about that process and place brand identity. A better understanding about this topic may contribute to a better place branding management, strengthening the connection of residents to the city brands, and consequently reinforcing the competitive advantage and reputation of the city.

Methodological Approach

This study follows a qualitative approach, since the main aim is to understand the residents’ involvement in the process of city brand creation and analyse residents’ perception of city brand identity. As an exploratory research, the city of Porto, in Portugal, was used as a case study. This is considered a good example to explore the research
Figure 1
‘Porto.’ city brand

I n order to understand the process of city brand creation and the actors involved, it was made an analysis of the book ‘Porto.’, which presents the semiotics of the brand and its process of creation and development. This book expresses the political perspective of city brand, from the mayor of city council Rui Moreira and the deputy responsible for conducting the process Nuno Santos, as well as the technical perspective of the designer hired to create the city brand, Eduardo Aires. To obtain more specific information about this topic, and as a complementary method, it was conducted an interview with Nuno Santos, the deputy mayor responsible for the creation of the Porto city brand and head of communication within the city council. It was done content analysis of the book and the interview focused on the goal of the city brand creation, the process of creation, the city brand identity and how it was found, the involvement of residents, how they were integrated in the process and their inclusion in decision-making.

Finally, it was hold a focus group in June 2016 with a group of eight residents of Porto with...
Findings

The interview with the Deputy City Council Nuno Santos clarifies the purpose of creating a city brand. First the city intention to reinforce an international image for tourism attraction by increasing external visibility and reputation. Second, the uniformization of the city council institutional communication. The city council wanted to avoid the use of a diversity of logos from all city council services. “The Council had a desire to simplify corporate communication to the public with a concept that could be adapted to different departments” - Nuno Santos, in the research in-depth interview. Further, the same responsible states in the book presenting the Porto city brand that “Porto is Porto. Dot. And we - Council, formal institutional, - confuse ourselves with Porto. And the more we confuse with the city, the more we win. Porto will always be better than the Council” - Nuno Santos, Deputy of Porto City Council, in brand book presentation ‘Porto.’. The same responsible added in the interview that “there will come another President, who wants to make a logo for the Porto City Council, but will not be able to destroy the brand of the city”. This means that a city brand with a place identity has to go over the city formal institutions and the local government had that perspective of expanding institutional communication to a place branding perspective.

Although the interviewer highlights the external communication of the city and the institutional communication of the local government as the pillars to the city brand strategy, the semiotics of the brand created tried to show residents' identity in the brand signs. The book that briefly explains the implementation and development of Porto brand highlights the need to create a graphic image which translates the Porto view from each resident, as a diversity of place identities combined that become the city diverse and unique. According to the book, Porto did not have a brand image that featured in its fullness. As Riza (2012) indicates in the literature, iconic buildings and symbols are important components that define an image, but they are not a brand. Therefore, local authorities decided to create the new Porto brand with an identity that gives to the city a distinction from others and makes it unique and authentic: “It was intended to create an image using a simple concept, but at the same time emotional and dynamic, representing the mirror of the soul of the city” - Rui Moreira, Mayor of Porto City Council, in brand book presentation ‘Porto.’.

Both the designer says in the book and the interviewee reinforces the concerns with the sustainability of the brand, which should have a timeless character, remaining forever in the memory of residents. ‘Porto.’ reflects all the characteristics of the city in one only word. It is timeless, providing that the city is independent of any local government system. The dot after the word Porto comes as a form of affirmation: “Behind a great brand there is a great city. The characterization of Porto aimed at synthesis that turned out to be the word. The word becomes enough, and satisfies our demand. We dispense any image to anchor us in the simple word. Shows the essence of Porto through a word, recreates it clear as the typographic element and seeking the timelessness.” – Eduardo Aires, brand designer of ‘Porto.’, in brand book presentation ‘Porto.’. Complementing the word ‘Porto.’ comes a set of icons (Figure 1), that represent the memories and experiences of Porto residents. Within the icons there are buildings, landscapes, but also gastronomy, culture, costumes and traditions. According to Eduardo Aires, it is intended to potentiate a moment of discovery, representation and narrative, which allows each person interprets the icon itself, allowing each person to build the own Porto and to have a sense of belonging to the city, that combines with the concept of place attachment (Hernández et al. 2007, Mueller and Schade 2012). This concept was under plagiarism in Spain, Colombia, Hungary and Italy, but the most evident case is from New Zealand. This type of plagiarism phenomenon happened once the ‘Porto.’ brand became international.

The book analysis and the interview allowed to identify that residents were included in the brand development, as previous suggested in the literature (Compte-Pujol et al. 2017, Kalandides 2011). However, it was a limited involvement. In the creation phase only the designer Eduardo Aires was involved, who had been resident in the city for more than thirty years. After launching the brand, a public discussion period
allowed the public to contribute to the development of the logo created. The managers organized an event where residents could contribute to the city brand. According to Nuno Santos, in the interview, on the date of the brand presentation, in the 29th of September 2014, there was an event with residents. A huge panel of tiles, which contained the already designed icons and, in the other side of the panel, a blank space, was available so that residents could draw new icons coming to their minds that could express the city authenticity. As a result, the presentation of the brand allowed the creation of more icons, resulting from the participation of residents. The model used by local authorities in this case is the political model (Waheduzzaman and Mphande 2014), which corresponds to involving people in the stage of brand development. However it was not the same type of involvement suggested by the literature (Braun et al. 2013), since in Porto it only occurred to validate the band created in an advanced stage, instead of being in the briefing stage.

According to the opinion of residents participating in the focus group, involving residents in the creation of the brand ‘Porto’ was very important, but the process was not the most adequate. They consider residents should had been involved from the beginning, making possible their cooperation in the briefing and creation of the brand, though they have a favourable evaluation of the final result. This result shows that residents want to participate and want to be involved in the city where they live, what means a contribution to the current literature (Kalandikes 2011, Compte-Pujol et al. 2017).

The purpose of this study was not to find the place identity of Porto residents, since there are quantitative scales to develop that type of research (Hernández et al. 2007). This paper discusses the residents’ perception of the place brand, based on their place identity. On the interpretation of the brand, focus group participants consider the new logo gives a multiple view of the city with the range of icons associated. Despite the favourable review, the dot was the most contested element. Interestingly, during the interview with Nuno Santos, he says that foreigners better perceive the dot than the residents, because of its global symbolism of affirmation. In some residents’ point of view, the dot indicates that there is nothing more to add and a limited expression of what the city has to offer, when the council desired the opposite interpretation.

All the participants said that they “identify with the brand”, since it shows a great symbolism and depicts memories of their lives. This result is in line with previous findings about the identification of residents with city brands (Compte-Pujol et al. 2017, Kladou et al. 2017). However, residents feel that the brand is not for them, but for tourists. The feeling that the city brand is not designed for residents is shared by several participants, although they feel proud of the step taken and the continuous development of the city in terms of city branding and tourism outcomes. This feeling may be a consequence of the impact of rapid tourism growth in citizens’ life (Garcia et al. 2015). The identified failure in communication between local brand managers and residents contradicts the recommendations of the literature, that claims that the city brand should first target the insiders (Peighambari et al. 2016), although the tensions about residents and local governments regarding city branding (Insch and Walters 2017). In this sense, this study found an obstacle that undermines the process of city branding, the lack of effective internal communication between public managers and residents.

According to residents, the Porto city brand is an external communication tool, even though they consider themselves active players in city and tourism development: “I consider myself an ambassador of the city, not an ambassador of the brand” – participant 8. This statement means a lack of commitment with the city brand, which is different than residents’ brand identity or place attachment. The identified word of mouth about the city is very important (Kavaratzis 2017, Braun et al. 2013, Freire 2009), but internal communication should be a priority, as stated in the literature (Peighambari et al. 2016, Acharya and Rahman 2016). However, during the interview with Nuno Santos, it was revealed that communication both internally and externally has been rather poor and should be improved in the future.

Nuno Santos admitted that the priorities of the Porto City Council had been economic for many years, and the external and internal communication and promotion of the city have been forgotten and should be reinforced in a strategic manner.

Conclusions

Academic evidence advocate the participation of residents in the creation of city brands (Acharya and Rahman 2016). This study found that the public managers of the Porto City Council concerned with the residents involvement in the creation of the new brand, but in a discussion stage instead of being in the briefing stage. This can be
justified with the purpose of public managers to create a city brand able to be a strong external communication tool to attract outsiders, showing the perspective of residents’ place identity. The study also shows that residents assume an important role in the city. They expressed the desire to participate in decision-making initiatives and to be engaged in the development of the city. Although residents have been partly involved in the city brand creation and identify themselves with the city brand identity, they consider that ‘Porto.’ is a brand designed to communicate the authenticity of city with tourists and not an internal communication tool for residents.

The study found there is a long way to go in terms of residents’ involvement in Porto city branding projects promoted by the local government. The relationship between managers and residents can be crucial for the sustainability and impact of the city brand created. The research contributes to reinforce the need of residents’ involvement in city brand creation, but identifies that the participation in decision-making and a successful outcome in perceived brand identity by the residents may not be enough. An internal place branding targeting residents may be crucial in order to complete the city brand purpose, which is more than branding a destination, but branding a place (Zenker et al. 2017).

As an exploratory research, the study presents preliminary findings, reflecting the perspective of a limited number of residents who participated in the focus group. The qualitative method allowed an in-depth research about the city brand strategy and residents’ involvement in that process. The study explores the residents’ belonging sense to the city brand, independently of the perceptions of brand identity.

Future research may explore the present findings with a measurable survey using a place attachment scale, with a particular focus on place identity dimension (Hernández et al. 2007). That research line could reinforce the knowledge about the compatibility and distance between residents’ place identity and their perception of city brand identity (Compte-Pujol et al. 2017).

References


Place identity and why it matters in place branding

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Abstract

The aim of this presentation is to explain place identity and illustrate its role in Place Branding. A framework is introduced to differentiate between place brand constructs including a place’s image, identity, brand identity, competitive identity, and heritage identity. We propose place heritage identity as an identity type. Relationships between brand constructs are explained and the need for a brand-orientation to facilitate authentic place branding strategies is demonstrated.

The need for authentic place brand management to encourage buy-in from stakeholders (Freire 2009; Olsson & Berglund 2009; Braun, Eshuis and Klijn 2014) underpins the framework presented. To achieve authenticity, we reinforce Baxter, Kerr and Clarke’s (2013) brand-orientation approach. A brand orientation situates identity at the foundation of a place brand. This is a bottom-up approach whereby residents’ perspectives and needs drive place brand strategy.

Drawing on the literature, we differentiate the place brand concepts, place identities (internal stakeholder perspective), place images (external stakeholder perspective), place brand identity (formal representation by place managers), place competitive identity (aspirational or existing identities to drive place strategy), and place heritage identities (internal stakeholder’s perspective concerned with history). Importantly, identities could belong to one or more identity group (place identity, brand identity, competitive identity, and/or heritage identity), they are also fluid and evolve with communication (Kerr & Oliver 2014). The relevance of heritage to place branding (Cormack 2008; Balmer 2013) is explored. Heritage identity is defined as a separate identity type (Balmer, 2011) and a source of competitive advantage (Balmer & Chen 2015).

This presentation clarifies the role and relationship between place brand concepts. Uniquely, heritage identity is explained as one identity type within a place brand framework.

The proposed framework helps managers assess alignment between place brand concepts. Place brand alignment is desirable for two reasons, to facilitate stakeholder identification, and to retain residents as the focus of a place brand strategy. As both producers and consumers of a place brand, residents have an important role in strategic development (Hanna & Rowley 2010; Aitken & Campelo 2011). Ignoring residents contributes to what Kavaratzis (2012, p.10) identifies as place branding inadequacies. Through a brand-orientated approach, managers can facilitate internal stakeholder buy-in with an authentic place brand, and potentially preserve ‘place uniqueness’ for a sustainable competitive advantage. Thus, highlighting the importance and role of identity concepts in place brand strategy.
References


Value dimensions of a GPT: An empirical study of outbound tourists in Taiwan

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Abstract

The growth in the demand for group package tours in Asia has been significant in recent years. This study developed and tested a framework to identify the value dimensions of a group package tour (GPT) and to determine their effects on satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Using structural equation modelling on survey data collected from 561 GPT travellers in Taiwan, the results show that the overall perceived value of a GPT is reflected in five dimensions namely, functional value, functional product quality, functional service, emotional value and social value. Overall perceived value is found to have a positive effect on satisfaction which in turn has an influence on repurchase and recommending behaviour with implications not just on a specific GPT “brand” but also on the GPT product category as a whole.

Full paper

As a result of rapid economic growth and increasing disposable personal income, travelling has become part of life for many people. This phenomenon has fostered the development of the world’s largest industry, the tourism industry. Worldwide, the travel & tourism sector’s contribution to GDP is forecast to grow by 3.9% per annum in the next decade, supporting 380 million jobs by 2027, indicating its long-term growth potential and increasing importance (WTTC 2017). In Asia, there has been a dramatic growth in outbound travel and a growing preference for group package tours (GPT) particularly in Taiwan, Japan, Korea and China (Wang et al. 2000; Ivy Alliance Consulting Tourism 2010; Tsaur & Lin 2014). In China, the proportion of outbound tourists who chose package tours in 2017 was 42% (China Travel News 2017). In Taiwan, the GPT ratio of outbound travel in 2015 was 34.3% (Taiwan Tourism Bureau 2015) which was slightly higher than in 2010 (33.9 %) (Taiwan Tourism
Bureau 2010). For domestic travel, the GPT ratio in Taiwan was much less, i.e. 11.6% and 12.1% in 2010 and 2015 respectively.

In a rapidly growing and highly competitive industry such as tourism, the provision of high customer value products and services is a major source of sustainable competitive advantage (Williams and Soutar 2009). From a services marketing perspective, customer value is a critical element in consumers’ decision-making behaviour (Zeithaml 1988) and an essential concept for strategic thinking in business (Woodruff 1997). Customer value research has been widely developed in the areas of retailing, marketing and more recently, tourism. The perspective taken by researchers have evolved from a uni-dimensional view of perceived value (e.g. Petrick et al., 2001, Duman and Mattila, 2005) and focusing only on individual products like an airline ticket (Chen, 2008) or accommodation (Chen and Tsai, 2008) to a multi-dimensional approach. As a GPT is a complex product that typically involves many travel-related sectors (Wang et al. 2013) including transportation, accommodation, restaurants and tour guides among others, the current study adopts the multidimensional perspective of customer value. Unlike previous studies (e.g. Gallarza and Gil Saura, 2006, Lee et al., 2007), the current study also adopts the view that a travel experience should be evaluated as a whole rather than by its individual components (Sánchez et al., 2006 and Bradley and Sparks 2012).

The current study thus aims to contribute to the literature about travellers’ perception of a group package tour especially that this is a fast-growing sector in the emerging economies of Asia. Its specific objectives are to identify the value dimensions of a GPT and to determine their effects on satisfaction and post-experience behavioural intentions. Based on extant literature, a theoretical framework is developed and empirically tested using survey data collected from GPT travellers in Taiwan. As Taiwan is one of the leading GPT markets in Asia, and this being one of the first few studies about the value dimensions of a GPT, the authors anticipate that their findings will help GPT “designers”, providers and academics gain a better understanding of this under-researched but fast-growing market.

Conceptual Framework

Traditionally, perceived value is defined as a consumer’s overall assessment of product utility based on perceptions of what is received (product benefits) compared to what is given (costs) in a service encounter (Zeithaml, 1988). This utilitarian view is however incomplete as it does not take into account the affective, i.e. social and emotional aspects of consumption (Sánchez, 2006). The alternative is to view perceived value as the result of a process whereby “consumers assess products, not just in functional terms of expected performance, value for money and versatility; but also in terms of the enjoyment or pleasure derived from the product (emotional value) and the social consequences of what the product communicates to others (social value)” (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001 p. 216). This multidimensional perspective has the advantage of integrating all components including the cognitive-affective nature of the concept (Sánchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo, & Holbrook, 2009). It also has the added benefit of being consistent with the theoretical developments regarding the role of feelings in the buying and consumption processes (Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez, & Moliner, 2006). An important implication of this perspective is that each of the dimensions of perceived value could be measured separately (Lee, Yoon, & Lee, 2007). Against this backdrop, the current research proposes five value dimensions of a GPT, namely functional value, functional product quality, emotional value, social value and functional service. Below is a brief description of each.

Functional Value

Functional value refers to the value received for the price paid or as value for money (Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988). The price paid or cost of an offering includes monetary payments and non-monetary sacrifices such as time and effort (Chen and Tsai 2008). A service or product-bundle such as a GPT, however, may add to the utility of the offer through convenience, i.e. by paying for all of the services at one time (Andrews et al. 2010). Also, there is the aspect of perceived low risk and reduced knowledge uncertainty which consumers favour in a bundled product (Harris & Blair, 2006). The concept of functional value as applied to a product bundle such as a GPT, therefore, has to be expanded to include not only the price paid but also the advantages due to bundling namely, convenience, perceived low risk and reduced knowledge uncertainty.

Functional Product Quality

Traditionally, “quality” refers to “product quality in a tangible good” which has evolved into the broader view that integrates a tangible good with an intangible service (Ulaga & Chacour, 2001). In a GPT, quality would pertain to the tangible (goods) and intangible components (services) of the package or bundle. Consumers judge quality based on
an internal standard of excellence (Parasuraman, 1988; Ferrell, 2008) or as the ability of a product to perform its functions (Kotler, 2010). When it comes to a product bundle, Bojamić and Calantone (1990) stress the value brought about by its complementary functions. For example, a not particularly attractive sightseeing spot can become interesting due to a skilful tour guide’s narration. A historical attraction without a tour guide may appear to be just an old building. One tour component, e.g. air travel requires accommodation and meals to form or complete a travel journey. These examples indicate that the individual product (tour guide, facility in a restaurant) in a GPT can make other components (attraction, meals, accommodation) seem better or more attractive when combined to form a complementary effect. Functional product quality as applied to a GPT is thus defined as a tourist’s perception of a product’s performance including the complementarity or synergistic effects of the entire product bundle.

Emotional Value

In a social-psychological perspective, emotional value is dependent on a product’s ability to arouse feelings or affect states (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991) through fun or enjoyable service experiences which can give pleasure or make people feel good and relaxed (Pihlström & Brush, 2008). Sweeney and Soutar (2001) define emotional value as the utility derived from the feelings or affective states that a product generates, and is important in explaining perceptions. A GPT is one product that has the capacity of generating affective feelings.

Social Value

Social value has been defined as the “perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s association with one or more specific social groups” (Sheth et al., 1991). Consumers value a product because of the social benefits of using the product (Cho & Jang, 2008). Social value exists because human beings are social creatures who wish to communicate highly valued images to others. Social value also refers to the social approval or enhanced social self-concept generated by service use (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Travelling with a group of people as part of a GPT can increase social benefits (Lo & Lam, 2004) which include the benefit of making friends with other tour members (Quiroga, 1990). Social value is thus defined in the current research as a tourist’s perception of the ability of a GPT to generate social approval, enhance self-concept and provide social benefits.

Functional Service

A travel agency is a firm that directly interacts with the tourist when purchasing a GPT. In many countries in Asia, the travel agency is responsible for tour pre-arrangement, pricing and training of contact staff and personnel (Wang, Hsieh, & Huan, 2000). Their operating hours and the safety of their sale transactions are also of concern to tourists. The performance of their staff and the way they interact with their customers at the moment of purchase contribute towards an experience that is tied to the GPT (Kandampully, Mok, & Sparks, 2001). The perception of the service performance of a travel agency is therefore proposed in this study as another functional value dimension of a GPT. This value dimension comprises the perceived quality of the services delivered by the travel agency and its employees. Wong and Kwong (2004) indicate that in a GPT, the service of the travel agency is considered important in gaining customer satisfaction. During their interaction with the service provider, consumers can evaluate whether or not the provider is capable of meeting their expectations (Kandampully et al., 2001).

Overall GPT Value Perception

From a theoretical perspective, consumer value is a higher-level abstraction (second-order) rather than a directly measurable attribute (first-order) (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2009; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). The studies by Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2009) and Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) indicate that the first-order constructs are the underlying subcomponents of a second-order construct. The second-order construct consists of the benefits consumers seek to fulfil their desires but are often vague and difficult for researchers to assess. Woodruff and Gardial (1996) propose that consumers want to achieve their end goals or purposes in each of the products they consume. These purposes which are implicit in the minds of consumers’ need to be satisfied through product use processes. For example, an end goal in joining a GPT could be to have a pleasurable travel experience. Sánchez et al. (2006) indicate that although multidimensional researchers evaluate travel packages using multiple products and services, they only focus on the travel product itself (separate value dimensions) but not the whole travel experience, which is inadequate. Hence, a second-order construct to represent a whole travel experience is needed.

From a measurement perspective, the current study aims to test the view that perceived value is a second-order model as espoused in some previous studies (e.g. Cho &
The overall perceived value of a GPT is a second-order multidimensional construct consisting of five first-order value dimensions namely, functional value, emotional value, social value, and functional service.

**H1:** The overall perceived value of a GPT has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction.

**Behavioural Intentions**

Consumers decide on their future behaviours by assessing their level of satisfaction with a product of which there are two main consequences namely, intention to repurchase and positive recommendation (Cronin et al., 2000). Behavioural intentions refer to consumers repurchasing the goods or services at the same shop (repurchase intention) and delivering their user experiences to friends and relatives (recommending behaviour) (Cronin et al., 2000; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). In the case of a GPT, repurchase intention would refer to a tourist’s intention to purchase another GPT organised by the same travel agency, i.e. be loyal to a service provider. The concept of repurchase intention, however, could also be expanded to include an entire product category, i.e. GPT irrespective of the GPT organiser or provider.

Guest (1944) suggests that there are two different ways to consider brand loyalty or behavioural intentions. The first is to consider whether there is brand loyalty for a whole product category and the second is to consider loyalty exhibited toward some specific brands of a product. These two types of loyalty appear to be relevant to travel products such as GPT. Loyalty to a specific tour organiser or tour brand would be equivalent to the common notion of brand loyalty, i.e. loyalty to a specific brand whereas loyalty to GPT as a mode of travel is equivalent to loyalty to a product category. At this point, it is imperative to note that GPT is only one of many modes of travel, the common alternative being independent travel. In this context, it is logical to test whether or not these two loyalty scenarios apply in the travel market. On this basis, the following hypotheses are formed:

**H2:** Tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on the repurchase of a GPT organised by the same travel agency.

**H3:** Tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on the recommendation of a GPT organized by the same travel agency.

**H4:** Tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on the recommendation of a GPT organized by the same travel agency.

**H5:** Satisfaction with a GPT will lead to the repurchase of any GPT.

**H6:** Satisfaction with a GPT will lead to the recommendation of any GPT.
Figure 1
Theoretical Framework

![Theoretical Framework Diagram]

Table 1
Sample characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-30</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>43.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duration of the tour</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4 days</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-7 days</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 7 days</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination of this GPT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian country</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Asian country</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 2
Measurement and Structural Models: Goodness of Fit Indices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Measurement model</th>
<th>Structural model</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute fit indices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3497.259 (p=0.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$/df</td>
<td>3.0353</td>
<td>3.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>0.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parsimony fit indices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNFI</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGFI</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td>0.697</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 3
Estimated Regression Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized Paths</th>
<th>Regression Coefficients</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>p-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unstandardized</td>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Functional Value</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>0.893</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Functional Product</td>
<td>0.864</td>
<td>0.899</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Emotional Value</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Social Value</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Functional Service</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall PV ➔ Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction ➔ Repurchase (Same Provider)</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction ➔ Recommend (Same Provider)</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.004**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction ➔ Repurchase (any GPT)</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction ➔ Recommend (any GPT)</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Squared Multiple Correlations ($R^2$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional Value</th>
<th>Functional Product</th>
<th>Emotional Value</th>
<th>Social Value</th>
<th>Functional Service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>0.688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post hoc statistical test showed no indication of any significant common method variance problem.

Results and Discussion

The factor loadings of all of the five GPT value dimension items exceed 0.70, and the AVEs of all constructs are around 0.70. Both construct reliability and composite reliability are high (i.e. above 0.9). These results indicate that the measurement scales used to measure the five GPT value dimensions have good convergent validity. As shown in Table 2 below, the goodness-of-fit indices for both the measurement and structural models exceed the acceptable cutoff values prescribed by Hair et al. (2010) indicating that both models are supported by the survey data.
In the structural model, all standardised regression coefficients have been found to be positive. This result indicates that H1, H2, H3, H4, H5 and H6 are supported. The squared multiple correlation (R2) value represents the extent to which each of the five GPT value dimensions is explained by the overall perceived value of a GPT. From Table 3, it can be seen that Functional Product Quality has the highest value (0.809). It also should be noted that the R2 values of the three functional constructs (Functional Value, Functional Product and Functional Service) are higher than the two affective constructs (Emotional and Social Values), indicating that the functional dimensions have a greater explanatory power of overall perceived value. The estimated regression coefficient values are shown in Table 3.

Among the behavioural intention constructs, tourist satisfaction has the greatest effect on the repurchase of a GPT from the same travel agency, indicating that tourists tend to be loyal to their travel agency. This result implies that Satisfaction is the key to retaining customers and building loyalty. For repurchase intentions, Satisfaction has a greater effect on the repurchase of a GPT organised by the same travel agency than on repurchase of any GPT. In terms of recommendations, Satisfaction has a greater effect on the recommendation of any GPT than a GPT organised by the same travel agency. This finding indicates that, in recommending behaviours, GPT tourists are loyal to any GPT (product category) which can be explained by postulating that tourists are willing to repurchase from their trusted travel agency but would recommend any GPT to their friends as a preferred alternative to travelling independently.

In summary, the current study proposes a higher order model for measuring perceived value. The estimated model provides empirical support to the theoretical proposition that the overall perceived value of a GPT is reflected in its five value dimensions and that it has a positive effect on Satisfaction which in turn leads to four Behavioral Intentions. The three functional constructs (Functional Value, Functional Product Quality and Functional Service) are the most important dimensions to tourists. Unlike many previous perceived value models which were developed and tested for tangible goods or services separately, the model developed in this research is for a product bundle which contains both tangible products and intangible services. Compared with the perceived value models that were developed for tangible goods, the current model suggests that, in addition to functional constructs, other factors such as Emotional Value and Social Value can contribute directly to the perceived value of a travel product. These results somehow make up for the missing affective dimension which previous studies on perceived value such as those by Sweeney, Soutar & Johnson, 1999, Grewal, Monroe & Krishnan, 1998; Chang & Wildt, 1994 have failed to consider. In this context, the current study contributes additional evidence to support the inclusion of affective dimensions in the perceived value construct.

Regarding the cognitive dimensions of perceived value, the Functional Product Quality dimension in this study brings into account the concept and theory of product bundling. The quality of the services provided by tour guides and tour leaders are made an integral part and a measured component of this dimension. Tour leaders have been found in previous studies (e.g. Ting et al. 2013; Cheng et al. 2015) to play an important role in the determining tour preferences. The traveller’s perception of the tour guide and tour leader as suggested in this study should not be ignored but instead be viewed as part of the quality obtained within the package itself (Functional Product Quality) and should be separated from the service obtained from the travel agency (Functional Service). Functional Service which represents the services provided by a travel agent likewise should be treated as another dimension of perceived value as these could help enhance the total experience of travellers. The empirical results of this study show that perceived value is significantly reflected in this dimension just like the other dimensions identified in previous studies.

Finally, what a travel agency perceives as of value may not be the same as what tourists would value. To meet the demands of value-conscious tourists, managers of a travel agency should understand what defines the value of their products in their customers’ minds. An understanding of these gaps would undoubtedly help travel agencies improve their product development and marketing strategies.

REFERENCES


World Travel & Tourism Council 2017. Travel and Tourism: Global
Vlogging and place branding: A narrative analysis of popular travel vlogs about the Philippines

Rachel Luna Peralta
Institute for Tourism Studies
Macao

Abstract

This presentation aims to critically examine the use and potential of video blogs or vlogs shared on Facebook for place branding. In particular, it will analyze the travel vlogs of popular non-Filipino travel vloggers - Lost LeBlanc, BecomingFilipino, Nas Daily, and Drew Binsky - and how these vlogs promote the Philippines as a destination. The data were gathered through a qualitative content and narrative analysis of the user-generated videos posted on the travel vloggers’ Facebook accounts. Content and visual analysis of the videos as well as viewer responses support the arguments that travel vloggers and their respective vlogs play a key role in creating an online destination image of a place. Stories and images in vlogs vividly create destination images, which are necessary and fundamental for place branding. Travel vlogs are representations of destination experiences, from which public and private tourism agencies can use in their promotional/marketing agenda.

Full paper

In the tourism industry, travel bloggers consistently share online their narratives of the destinations they visit, people they meet, food they eat, as well as sights and sounds they see and hear. They share their journey on social media and gain feedback while they inspire others to do the same. Studies of travel blogs in tourism particularly tourists’ characteristics, motivations, and preferences (Carson, 2008; Wegner, 2008) tourists’ decision making (Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan, 2006) and how it has impacted destinations and tourism behavior have been carried out by scholars (Bergmesiter, 2015; Bosangit, McCabe & Hibbert, 2009; Thurn, 2014). Unanimously, they claim that travel bloggers influence consumers’ decision to book a destination and they are considered destination marketing tools (Pan, MacLaurin & Crotts, 2007). Hence, travel blogs online influence travelers’ purchase decision travelers trust word-of-mouth more than company advertisements (Lange-Faria & Elliot, 2012). The application of ICTs in the tourism industry has been hailed by Buhalís (2003) when he emphasized that electronic tourism (e-tourism) encompasses all business functions of e-strategy, e-planning, and e-management of the tourism industry.

With the speedy development of technology, travel blogging has taken on a new face. The latest trend that has captured not just interesting stories but authentic travel narratives and navigations of young people adventurous enough to explore the world using their video cameras or smartphones is vlogging. Vlogging is a portmanteau of video and blogging and is increasingly becoming popular on social media used for destination marketing. It is
Travel vloggers may be considered social influencers in destination branding because they share their story online, they receive feedback from their followers, which in turn may persuade or inspire the followers to do the same. In its White Paper entitled “Influencer Marketing Trends in the Tourism Industry Sector for 2018,” Axon Marketing & Communications revealed that the impact of influence on the purchase decisions of travelers is high on the purchase of tourist destination, hotel services, and airlines or travel agencies (Axon, 2018). Similarly, a study of “The State of Video Marketing 2018” conducted by Wyzowl found that video marketing, such as vlogs, have the potential to influence customers more than any other medium (Verme, 2018). In a Nielsen Global Survey of Trust in Advertising, 2015, it revealed that 81% of consumers trust personal recommendation (Allen, 2016). Travel vloggers may fall in the category of influencer; hence, travel vlogs may be useful for place branding.

The social media has become the transportation modes for consumers to share travel information. Social media as well as user-generated content (UGC), consumer generated media (CGM), online social networks (OSN), social networking sites (SNS), and Travel 2.0 all belong to Web 2.0 coined by O’Reilly Media at the Web 2.0 Conference held in San Francisco in 2004 (Buhalis & Jun, 2011). It refers to social networking sites, blogs, wikis, and other communication tools that allow collaboration and sharing of information among consumers through the internet. Social media users in 2017 was about 2.33 billion (Királová & Pavlíček, 2015).

In 2010, the “State of the Vlogosphere” reported that MeFeedia tracked a total of 110,000 vlogs, which is a 500% increase from the data it collected in 2007. From the same report, international vloggers are dominantly from the United States. They choose major online video hosting and sharing services such as YouTube (36%), Blip.tv (14%), Vimeo (9%), MySpace (7%), DailyMotion (3%). About 13% use other video sharing platforms, whereas independent publishers or vloggers who set up their own video hosting platforms account for 18% (Wauters, 2010). Compared to text-blogging, vlogging allows the video blogger to video himself in a destination and share the vlog on social media. The contents are richer, issues are broader, and audience reach is wider (Aran, Biel & Gatica-Perez, 2017). Travel vlogs are usually conversational vlogs which show the vlogger appearing in front of the camera talking and showing the place around. Furthermore, vlogging could be labelled as Digital Storytelling, which is user-generated media practice performed by amateurs or ordinary people who tell their own stories using the latest digital tools (Lundby, 2008).

Vlogs are considered electronic consumer-to-consumer (C2C) communication used by several destination marketing organizations (DMOs) as a distribution channel for user-generated content (UGC) (Elliot, 2009). Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) facilitate the access of information between and among consumers and providers. How DMOs promote the image of a place is vital in the decision making process of tourists when choosing a destination (McCann, 2009). It is likewise necessary for DMOs to recognize the enormous potential of user-generated content such as vlogs because UGCs are becoming “the source of credible travel information” (Elliot, 2012, p. 196) and DMOs use them at significant variations especially so when public funds are limited (Hays, Page & Buhalis, 2013). UGCs come in various formats based on the criteria laid by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (Gurung & Goswami, 2017, p. 49) such as: text, photos, audio, and videos.

Travel vloggers evidently use Facebook as a platform to share their videos. This paper examines the use and potential of video blogs or vlogs shared on Facebook for place branding, given their enormous and encompassing potential to reach a wider global audience. This paper answers the following questions:

1. What online destination images of the Philippines are created on Facebook by four selected non-Filipino travel vloggers?

2. How do travel vlogs promote a destination brand that is appealing to tourists?

Literature

2.1 Vlogging

In 2010, the “State of the Vlogosphere” reported that MeFeedia tracked a total of 110,000 vlogs, which is a 500% increase from the data it collected in 2007. From the same report, international vloggers are dominantly from the United States. They choose major online video hosting and sharing services such as YouTube (36%), Blip.tv (14%), Vimeo (9%), MySpace (7%), DailyMotion (3%). About 13% use other video sharing platforms, whereas independent publishers or vloggers who set up their own video hosting platforms account for 18% (Wauters, 2010). Compared to text-blogging, vlogging allows the video blogger to video himself in a destination and share the vlog on social media. The contents are richer, issues are broader, and audience reach is wider (Aran, Biel & Gatica-Perez, 2017). Travel vlogs are usually conversational vlogs which show the vlogger appearing in front of the camera talking and showing the place around. Furthermore, vlogging could be labelled as Digital Storytelling, which is user-generated media practice performed by amateurs or ordinary people who tell their own stories using the latest digital tools (Lundby, 2008).

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In particular, previous studies show the potential of Facebook as a dynamic destination marketing tool. Among the social network sites (SNS), Facebook is the most visited (Turban et al., 2015) and most widely used social media sites in the industry (Chan & Guillet, 2011). In particular, European tourists mostly prefer Facebook as a social media platform (Almeida & Moreno-Gil, 2017). To promote and market a destination, Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) in Italy strategically utilize Facebook and the way they use it varies across Italian cities. Likewise, it has been found that a strong digital culture using Facebook can be adapted by other DMOs worldwide (Mariani, Felice & Mura, 2016). Specifically, hotels use Facebook to improve customer engagement and monitor consumer feedback which enables them to address customer issues and concerns (Phelan, Chen, & Haney, 2012). Despite the potential of Facebook in destination branding and marketing, the user-generated content (UGC) found in Facebook and other social media that are published by individual tourists including travel vloggers are beyond the control of the DMOs (Li, Robinson, & Oriade, 2017).

2.2. Online Destination Image

Crompton (1979) defines destination image (DI) as “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination” (p. 18). Furthermore, DI is also defined as the represented idea, feelings, and perception of a person on a destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). A generalized framework of destination image formation, as proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) include cognitive evaluation, affective evaluation, and overall image which is a blend of both cognitive and affective evaluation. Hence, cognitive image points to the aspects of a destination which are attractive to the tourists such as the ambiance, weather, public hygiene, and experiences worth remembering, whereas affective image refers to the tourists’ emotions or feelings towards the place (Kim et al., 2017).

With these definitions, online destination image refers to the “online representation of collective beliefs, feelings, and overall impressions of a destination” (Mak, 2017, p. 282). Web 2.0 technologies make it possible for online destination images to be created and distributed. Furthermore, online destination image may be classified as projected and perceived online DI. Projected online DI is the “attributes projected through marketing communications, such as National Tourism Office websites” that manifest the “ideal” characteristics of the destination, whereas the perceived online DI is the “holistic impressions, perceptions, and feelings that tourists shared online with regard to tourism products and offerings in a destination” (Mak, 2017, p. 282).

The online destination image of the Philippines created and conveyed by the vloggers and vlogs under study is considered as perceived online destination image. Hunter (2016) brands online tourism destination image as a “more dynamic social construction than the traditional projected image found in print guidebooks and brochures” (p. 222).

2.3. The Philippines as a Destination

The Republic of the Philippines is an archipelago in Southeast Asia comprising of 7,641 islands clustered in three island groups – Luzon, Visayas, Mindanao. Its name was derived from Spain’s King Philip II (www.gov.ph/about-the-philippines). As a tropical country, the Philippines is best visited during the first half of the year, from January to May (www.tourism.gov.ph, 2018). The country’s tourism slogan is “It’s More Fun in the Philippines” launched in 2012 (Villegas, 2017). In the first quarter of 2018, the international tourist arrival in the Philippines was 2,049,094, a 14.80% increase from the same period in the previous year. Foreign tourists to the Philippines was led by the South Koreans at 477,087, followed by the Chinese at 371,429. The Americans (284,946), Japanese (181,178), and Australians (74,027) are also in the top 5 foreign tourists to the Philippines (“DOT: More than 2 million foreign tourists arrived in PHL in Q1”, 2018).


Methodology

3.1. Narrative Analysis

Narrative is essential in human interaction as it depicts experiences and undertakings of people. Cortazzi (1993) contends that narrative is a fundamental cognitive activity, a process by which meaning is given in human existence, and a means by which people “represent and restructure the world” (p. 1). As part of man’s socio-cultural
members and non-members organize their experiences and important events in life through stories, creating meanings and connections to and about life (Gough, 1991, 1994, 1997; Webster & Mertova, 2007). Narratives are emergent as tellers “perform numerous social actions while telling a story” (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2008, p. 381). According to Pace (2008), a video becomes a story when it is made “to be told and broadcasted” (p.222).

Moreover, as an evolving research method (Bell, 2003), narrative analysis is the study of stories and experiences of people using the first-person account (Riessman, 1993), the study of how humans experience the world (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), and the analysis and criticism of stories that people tell, hear or read (Webster, 2007). It is a method of inquiry that produce knowledge which involves three steps namely, putting into words one’s experiences, using critical analysis to understand patterns and principles, and analyzing other people’s experiences as well (Webster, 2007).

In narrative analysis, words and visual elements can be scrutinized to render meaning to a story. To employ this, a structural analysis of narratives needs to be undertaken. In performing a structural analysis of narratives, Barthes (1975) highlights three levels of description in narratives namely functions, actions, and the level of narration. Functions refer to the sense of the word, the units and syntax or grammatical structure of the narrative; actions refer to actants or those who perform the actions or characters; and the level of narration includes the originator or source of the narrative, the situation, and the codes or conventions of presentation used by the source. Taking these three levels of description into consideration, this study will integrate in its framework the forms of coherence espoused by Riessman (2002) in performing a narrative analysis:

1. Global coherence – this refers to the real objective of the subject in storytelling
2. Local coherence – accounts for understanding the tools and structure utilized by the narrator in achieving the expected outcome
3. Thematic coherence – certain themes recur in a story which are significant in transmitting the meaning of the story

In examining the language used in the vlogs, which is basically the mode used to convey the meaning alongside the shots and other objects in the videos, it is also necessary to use the Systemic Functional Linguistic Theory espoused by Michael Halliday (1978). Halliday and Matthiesen (2013) lay the architecture of language saying that language is a means of making meaning. They pointed out that a text has two sides: 1. Text being an object and 2. Text being an instrument for discovering something. Hence, functional-meaning based approach on language can be used to understand better the society in which people live, allowing them to create meaning through language and to create language through meaning. Systemic Functional Linguistics anchors on the idea that language as a social process is used in everyday social interaction and is an analytical methodology that allows the systematic description of language patterns. Anchored on Michael Halliday’s functional grammar, Francesconi (2014) points out four theoretical claims about language – functional, contextual, semantic, and semiotic. Language as functional means language serves human needs in daily situation. Language as contextual is realized in social and cultural authentic contexts. Language as semantics refers to the metafunctions of language, which is in fact the main purpose of language as pointed out by Halliday - ideation, interpersonal, and textual. Lastly, language as semiotic is a web of interrelated topics from which language is ordered based on a systematic paradigm. Veloso (2010) further enunciates the same Hallidayan principle when he wrote that identity of a society can be reconstructed through natural resources, indigenous culture and history through the interplay of different modes and media.

3.2. The Selected Non-Filipino Vloggers

Using purposive sampling, four non-Filipino bloggers were selected for this study namely, Christian LeBlanc (Lost LeBlanc), Kyle Jennerman (BecomingFilipino), Nuseir Yassin (Nas Daily), and Drew Binsky. About 15 foreign bloggers and vloggers were listed as blogging and vlogging about the Philippines (Medina, 2017) but none of these are as popular as the four vloggers included in this study. They were selected based on their number of followers and presence on Facebook as reflected by their respective engagements such as like, share, and comments (Refer to Table 1). Foreign vloggers were selected over local ones to get an outsider point of view of the Philippines.
Table 1
Selected non-Filipino vloggers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facebook Page Name</th>
<th>Real Name</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>No. of Followers</th>
<th>No. of Vlogs about the Philippines</th>
<th>Self-description on Facebook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Becoming Filipino</td>
<td>Kyle &quot;Kulas&quot; Jennerman</td>
<td>Canadian</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>724,583</td>
<td>439</td>
<td><a href="https://www.facebook.com/becomingfilipino/">https://www.facebook.com/becomingfilipino/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Descriptive statistics of selected travel vlogs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most viewed vlog about the Philippines</th>
<th>Nas Daily</th>
<th>Drew Binsky</th>
<th>Becoming Filipino</th>
<th>Lost LeBlanc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;How cheap is the Philippines? (Day 298)&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;This is why the Philippines is my favorite country on earth&quot;</td>
<td>Skylab driving in Montevista Compostela Valley – Mindanao, Philippines</td>
<td>Philippines Top 10 (Travelers Paradise) – 2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length (in minutes)</th>
<th>1:05</th>
<th>1:40</th>
<th>6:23</th>
<th>15.28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of views</td>
<td>28 million</td>
<td>5.3 million</td>
<td>1.1 million</td>
<td>12 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of comments</td>
<td>113,000</td>
<td>3,900</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>47,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of reactions</td>
<td>395,000 likes</td>
<td>138,000 likes</td>
<td>19,000 likes</td>
<td>236,000 likes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>299,000 likes</td>
<td>114,000 likes</td>
<td>19,000 likes</td>
<td>185,000 likes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35,000 love</td>
<td>20,000 love</td>
<td>68 haha</td>
<td>41,000 love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18,000 wow</td>
<td>3,200 wow</td>
<td>58 love</td>
<td>8,800 wow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,4000 haha</td>
<td>217 haha</td>
<td>10 wow</td>
<td>193 haha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>151 angry</td>
<td>15 sad</td>
<td>1 angry</td>
<td>25 sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17 angry</td>
<td>17 angry</td>
<td>19 angry</td>
<td>17 angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of shares</td>
<td>276,000</td>
<td>107,000</td>
<td>34,000</td>
<td>250,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These vloggers do not officially represent or work for any tourism organization or tourism board but according to LeBlanc (2016) in his YouTube video "How to make money on social media (Everything you need to know)" as an influencer it is his option to propose working with tourism boards because it is
“such a natural fit” by negotiating with them to visit a country for a week or a month while he creates a video or vlog about the place and receives remuneration per video.

3.3. Validity of Findings

Due to the fact that realities in narratives cannot be expected to replicate itself because stories and experiences happen in different circumstances (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995), the concepts of validity and reliability are not relevant in the context of narrative inquiry according to Riessman (1993, as cited in McMullen, 2013). When a narrative analyst is transparent in the process of interpretation by describing particular discourse or theoretical framework (Reissman, 2008), mentions which aspect of the story is included or excluded, and describes how inferences are made, then he is capable of achieving a high degree of trustworthiness (Greenhalgh, Russel & Swinglehurst, 2005).

Validity in qualitative research can be measured by the suitability of tools, processed and data. As Leung (2015, p, 326) puts it:

> Whether the research question is valid for the desired outcome, the choice of methodology is appropriate for answering the research question, the design is valid for the methodology, the sampling and data analysis is appropriate, and finally the results and conclusions are valid for the sample and context.

In lieu of the traditional concepts of validity and reliability, Garman (1996) sets out the following principles for narrative analysis to be valid and reliable: Verite (Does it address the why?), Integrity (Is it logical?), Rigour (Is it in-depth?), Utility (Is the work relevant to the profession?), and Vitality (Is it important and meaningful?)

Essentially, travel vlogs contain the fundamental elements of a story such as plot, character, structural pattern, and organization expressions. In this context, therefore, only the most viewed videos about the Philippines created by each of the four selected non-Filipino vloggers were examined and it does not investigate all vlogs produced by the vloggers, no matter the number. The content or message, the language used, the visuals or scenes, characters, music, and other elements of videography are included in the analysis of these vlogs. The perceived online destination image created on Facebook are discussed thematically and the potential of vlogs to promote destinations and influence tourists are discussed using Barthes (1975) three levels of description—functions, actions, and level of narration. Overall, Riessman’s (2002) global, local, and thematic coherence serve as the framework of this study. The importance of this study rests on its ability to convince DMOs to utilize social media influencers with millions of followers or integrate UGCs in revitalizing the creation and promotion of destination brands because vlogs have strong potential to reach a global audience that is willing to explore and navigate places recommended by vloggers they follow. Facebook was chosen among various media for vlogs because there are more opportunities of collaboration between producers/marketers and consumers here and it enhances a proactive social marketing strategy (Fischer et al, 2012).

Key Findings and Discussion

Table 2 describes the specific videos that were analyzed, including the length of the video, the number of views, the number of interactions, and the number of shares. Despite being the shortest in length, at 1:05 minute, it is Nas Daily’s “How Cheap is the Philippines? (Day 298)” which has the highest number of views at 28 million, highest number of comments (113,000), reactions (395,000), and shares (276,000) among the four vlogs. Lost LeBlanc comes second, Drew Binsky at third, and the last is Becoming Filipino vlog. It should be recalled that Nas Daily has the highest number of followers among the four vlogs, as shown earlier in Table 1.

4.1. Functions: Linguistic Data Comparison

Words, phrases, and complete sentences were units of syntax used in constructing the message of each vlog. The four vlogs about the Philippines utilized the English language, given the fact that the vloggers are English native speakers from Canada and the United States of America. However, for vlogger Kyle Jenermann of “Becoming Filipino” he occasionally code switched to Bisaya, the local dialect in Southern Mindanao where he chose to stay.

Super maayo driver. Gusto ko magdrive like langgam. Axa man ang key! (This driver is super good. I want to drive like a bird. Where is the key?)

Moving on, the perceived online destination image (Mak, 2017) of the Philippines created on Facebook by the four travel vlogs can be
categorized into two main
descriptions based on the content of
the vlogs—1) cheap and 2) fun and
beautiful. This perceived ODI is
confirmed using the Systemic
Functional Linguistic Theory of
Michael Halliday (1978), where
language is one of the semiotic
systems used to make meanings.
Hence, the meanings conveyed by
each vlog are that, as a destination,
the Philippines is a heaven, paradise
in Southeast Asia where travelers
can experience an enjoyable
vacation.

The Philippines is an Affordable
Destination

Two out of the four vlogs
highlight the affordability of
the Philippines as a travel
destination in Southeast Asia in
terms of food, accommodation,
transportation to name a few. Nas
Daily devoted his entire one-minute
video in explaining why he likes the
Philippines simply because it is
cheap. Using the US dollar as a
currency and comparing some items
to Hong Kong and New York, where
he used to live, he narrates:

Money. I don’t like spending it.
That’s why I like the
Philippines. It’s very cheap! A
full day tour in this island
would cost you 20 bucks and
maybe $25 for this one. A
haircut for $17 in Hong Kong,
here you could get it for $1. An
Uber ride for one hour? Will
cost you $3! Welcome to the
Philippines! A romantic date
for two will set you back $15!
Now, you’re not gonna go on a
date, island hop, and get a
haircut every single day but
what I think you might like to
do is drink! It’s soooo cheap in
the Philippines that this bottle
of rum costs $1.10! For that
price I can buy 30 bottles to
get the whole village drunk for
the price of two cocktails in

New York City! Enjoy! And
the best part is that while you
drink your cheap drinks you
can make friends with locals
because they all speak English
here. That’s 1 minute! See you
tomorrow!

Similarly, Drew Binsky, in his 1:40
minute vlog, also convinces his
audience that the Philippines is his
favorite country by giving five
reasons, second of which is
affordability. He says:

The Philippines is one of the
cheapest countries in Asia
which allows you to have more
fun for less. Try $2 for this
meal, $1.50 for a haircut and
$0.07 for a jeepney ride.

While Nas Daily and Drew Binsky
have liberally described the
Philippines as a cheap destination,
Christian LeBlanc offers options for
his viewers in Lost LeBlanc to spend
more if they choose to stay in luxury
accommodations or to spend less if
they opt for more affordable hotels.
In his 15 minute vlog describing the
top 10 places to see in the
Philippines, he mentions the
following deals:

The great thing is you can
guarantee that you can find
some extremely beautiful hotel
if that’s in your budget. You
can also find some relatively
discount ones, too. So, budget
shouldn’t be too much of an
issue here. (Referring to
Boracay)

.... and relatively expensive
accommodations, so this
definitely something that you
have to save up for. It’s a very
small island and all the
accommodations in the island
are quite expensive. (Referring
to Malapascua)

This is a place for anyone on
any budget. (Referring to
Bohol)

It’s more inaccessible than El
Nido and it could definitely be
a bit of an expensive place to
visit because it’s so inaccessible.
You either take a five-hour
ferry from El Nido or you can
fly directly from Manila.
Definitely expect to pay top
dollar because the flights aren’t
cheap. This is not a cheap
place to go. (Referring to
Coron)

The Philippines is a Fun and a
Beautiful Destination

Tourists visit a place for
various reasons and most
often than not, they have
emotional needs that need to be
satisfied by a destination based on
its destination brand personality
which may potentially turn tourists
into loyal customers (Dickinger
& Lalici, 2015). A tourists’ perceived
online destination image depends
on the brand personality
represented by a destination brand.
Three important dimensions in the
Brand Personality Scale developed
by Aaker (1997) were found
important by Ekinci and Hosany
(2006): sincerity, excitement and
conviviality. Sincerity is depicted by
expressions such as good, friendly,
charming, modern; Sophistication is
manifested by words like absolutely
amazing, stunning, beautiful, nice;
and Excitement is illustrated by
descriptions such as cool, fantastic,
happy, fun, enjoyable, fresh. All
these brand personality dimensions
are evident in three of the four vlogs
examined as illustrated in the
following lines enunciated by Drew
Binsky, Christian LeBlanc, and Kyle
Jennerman.

Drew Binsky generally describes the
people and the country this way:
In narratives, the actants are those who perform the act of narration (Barthes, 1975). In vlogs, the tellers refer to none other than vloggers themselves who are the content producers and narrators. To make their videos more authentic, the inclusion of local characters add to the dynamics and creativity of the videos. For Nas Daily, the local characters are scattered throughout the video, but significantly, in all his videos, the local characters are usually seen with him towards the end of the video when together they conclude by saying “That’s 1 minute! See you tomorrow.”

Unlike Nas Daily vlog, Drew Binsky opens his vlog with a greeting from a group of locals in the Philippines saying “Welcome to the Philippines!” He also includes individuals in his vlog when he describes the fun in the Philippines and further states his reasons for considering the Philippines as his favorite country, one of which is because the Filipinos are hospitable and friendly.

In the Lost LeBlanc vlog, the integration of local characters are minimal because the focus of his vlog is the top 10 islands in the Philippines which make it a traveler’s paradise. Christian LeBlanc does the narration throughout the video and in most shots, he is seen portraying the role of a traveler by swimming in the beaches along with his girlfriend, Laura, diving in the seas, riding a scooter around the islands, kayaking with his friends, and simply doing anything that tourists would do.

Meanwhile, in describing how fun it is to drive a skylab, Kyle Jennerman includes local characters all throughout the video as part of the

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Juxtaposing drone shots of islands and natural attractions in the Philippines, Christian LeBlanc (Lost LeBlanc) describes the people and the natural attractions on the islands in this manner:

It is some of the most beautiful landscapes and the most incredible people you might come across.

The night life is pretty good and the food selection is great.

The island of Boracay is extremely beautiful. Some of the bluest waters you’ll ever see and some of the finest white sand beaches.

It’s very unlikely you’ve ever heard of this place but Malapascua is home to one of the most beautiful creatures I’ve ever seen – the thresher shark.

El Nido is easily one of the most beautiful places in the Philippines and arguably, the world.

Dumaguete is an incredible place and there’s a lot to see and do here. It’s a place I spent almost two weeks scuba diving and exploring its beautiful nature.

There’s a night life, there’s a great restaurant and a whole lot of nice hotels and resorts.

This is the most incredible landscape that I’ve ever seen.

I don’t think I’ve seen more beautiful sunsets in my entire life.

...this is the most amazing thing – the local Filipino people are some of the friendliest and most accommodating people.

In riding and driving the skylab for the first time, Kyle Jennerman (Becoming Filipino) screams: 

This is highly crazy but it is really!

This is amazing! I’m driving the skylab!

Narrative Intent

In particular reference to the travel vlogs under study, the global intent of the vloggers may be varied: promoting a destination, making themselves popular as vloggers, enticing people to visit a place, making income from videos, or simply telling a story. For the local coherence, the language, music, images, local characters, style of videography and other visual and non-visual elements embedded in the vlogs significantly help make the vlogs more persuasive and compelling. For thematic coherence, food, people, culture, destination, transportation, lifestyle, and culture frequently appear in the vlogs studied. Content and visual analysis of the videos as well as viewer responses support the arguments that travel vloggers and their respective vlogs play a key role in creating an online destination image of a place. Stories and images in vlogs vividly create destination images and these are necessary and fundamental for place branding and marketing.

4.2. Actions: How Characters in Vlogs Reinforce Online Destination Image
Screenshots of Lost LeBlanc vlog https://www.facebook.com/lostleblanc/videos/1186989564730060/


Welcome to The Philippines!!!
Screenshot of Lost LeBlanc https://www.facebook.com/lostleblanc/videos/1186989564730060/

Screenshot of Becoming Filipino
https://www.facebook.com/becomingfilipino/videos/vl.358761747892376/1537031319895401/?type=1
community where he is, in the public market where they took the skylab, and as part of the passengers who goes with him as he drives the skylab around town until they go back to the public market. Although he is the main character and narrator, some of the local characters appear as co-tellers. In the opening of his video, he is seen eagerly riding the skylab with other passengers.

The meaning evoked by such images purport to an authentic perceived destination image, that, in the case of the vloggers, they who interact with the locals feel at ease, comfortable, and safe with the people. This reinforces the image of a place and makes it more attractive for potential travelers and influence their purchase intention of a destination. Watching media influencers or travel vloggers as enjoying a destination addresses would translate to what Kim et al (2017) call as affective image which refers to the tourists’ emotions or feelings towards the place. The affective image reinforces the cognitive image of a destination as not only beautiful but happy as well.

4.3. Level of Narration: How Scenes and Shots in Vlogs Reinforce Online Destination Image

Promoting a destination is a persuasive act because it entices potential tourists to visit a place. How persuasive a vlog is depends on various factors that include not only persuasive language but compelling shots or scenes, as well. The non-verbal elements of a vlog are fundamental in ensuing a successful destination marketing strategy. In the four vlogs that were examined, scenes were realistic as most of the sequences were taken in the Philippines – actual people, attractions, drinks, islands, rides, and food among others. Videos, compared to other sources media such as written texts and photographs, are more complex to create because they require a certain skill of videography, cinematography, and photography. Videos can show a lot more than pure text, pictures, or audio; hence, there are a lot more things that a vlog can cover (Gao et al, 2010).

In the case of Nas Daily one-minute video, the scenes are fast and as he enumerates the items that are cheap in the Philippines, he supports these with actual videos of those objects such as a haircut, an Uber ride, bottle of rum and other drinks. Similarly, Drew Binsky also flashes actual people, places, food as he narrates his reasons for choosing the Philippines as his favorite country. Becoming Filipino vlog on the skylab has more movements in the sense that the video shows how the character experiences riding and driving a skylab. Following the character riding and driving the skylab made the quality of the video somewhat amateurish as the videographer was also heard talking behind the camera or video, whatever equipment he was using.

Among the four vloggers, it is Lost LeBlanc vlog which displays an interesting and creative videography whereby shots are taken with proper light, a combination of wide, high angle, establishing, and extreme long shot, and full shots to show the grandeur of the islands. Underwater video shots are also widely used in this vlog to illustrate scenes of seeing the marine life, swimming with the sharks, and experiencing the crystal clear waters of the destination. The drone shots provide an aerial view of the islands showing its breadth and beauty. Slow motion shots are also used in underwater scenes, waterfall shots, and full shots giving a panoramic view of the attractions.

On the part of audience contribution, the vloggers establish a certain level of connection with their audience by requesting them to comment, like, or share the videos. On the part of Nas Daily, saying “See you tomorrow!” makes his audience tune in to him for more videos as he is supposed to do another one-minute video. For Drew Binsky, by saying “Thanks for watching. I hope this video inspires you to visit the Philippines” serves to encourage them to see the destination. Meanwhile, Christian LeBlanc makes it more convincing for travelers to visit the destination by saying: “So, make sure to hit the subscribe button, leave the video a thumbs up and if you wanna be the first to know when my traveler’s guide comes out, make sure to sign up on my mailing list at lostleblanc.com.” Lastly, Kyle Jennerman of Becoming Filipino inhibits any request from his audience, but simply screams his excitement until the video fades and ends.

Conclusion

Imagery is a compelling ingredient in vlogging, more so if used for destination marketing and branding. Framing significant aspects of the destination with vivid imagery, appropriate texts and music background cohesively convey a meaningful message. In all, the vloggers were telling and showing what to do in the Philippine by travelling and swimming in the islands, diving underwater, exploring the new places, riding local transportation, and eating local food, choosing some as their favorite. This could not be captured vividly in texts alone; hence, video blogging has the power that texts or photographs alone cannot perform. Destination management offices and tourism boards should therefore choose to add vlogs in their destination
marketing efforts. Whether to create their own vlogs or work with popular vloggers is an important decision that DMOs and tourism boards need to make, but as evidence shows it is more profitable to tap popular vloggers as they have strong following and their vlogs could become viral as shown by millions of views, making it an effective strategy to target and reach a wider global audience.

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Czechia – Investment as a topic for its future brand?

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Abstract

This article deals with a closer look at investment promotion and analyzes the relationship and mutual influence between investment promotion and other branding topics such as talent attraction, export, tourism, culture, or governance through the example of the practice of small states. The aim of the text is to evaluate the position of investment promotion within national branding strategies and other relevant documents. The first part presents a brief outline of motives to care for the good reputation of Czechia and of the relationship between relevant concepts. This article explains a care for the reputation of the country as an umbrella concept, as a complex activity that overlaps and complements concepts such as nation branding or public diplomacy to varying degrees. The second part concentrates its attention on the system of a small state and what the specifics are of the care for the country’s reputation. The primary interest goes into its strategy and actors. The third part first deals with the comparison of practice in three small states (Czechia, Slovakia, and Finland) and the role of investment promotion in their documents. All these countries can be considered small states: Finland is a very successful country in the area of branding, and Czechia and Slovakia have many common moments in their history. Later, this article will search for the position of investment promotion among other relevant topics and for the reasons for such a situation. As a research tool, this article uses normative analysis of strategies and related documents that the state uses to care for the reputation of the country and especially for investment promotion.

This contribution resulted from the IGA project “Nation Branding and Care for the Reputation of the State through New Forms of Diplomacy”, No. F2/77/2017.

Full paper

The importance of taking care of the reputation of the country is based on the nature of the current international environment: on the one hand, the role of national states emerging from the development of the 19th century and, on the other, the process of globalization that forces the actors involved to attract attention and therefore to emphasize their own differences and exclusivity (Olins, 2016).

Care for the reputation of the country should be understood as part of foreign policy activities as part of efforts to improve the country’s international standing and increase or maintain its influence. The main motive is the attempt to improve the country’s prosperity, its well-being, and thus the increase in the value and attractiveness of the country. The country’s good name also has significant foreign policy connotations, which are related to strengthening the influence of such a state and trying to improve its international status, which also contributes to the increase of national well-being.
There are several main areas, like culture, tourism, export, investment, people, or governance (Anholt, 2007), in which the reputation of the country is monitored and which bring together its complex picture. The aim of this paper is to look closer at investment promotion as one of the branding topics and to analyze its position in the states’ branding activities and its relation to other key topics. The first part of the paper is devoted to theoretical defining of different concepts related to the country’s reputation, like public diplomacy, nation branding, nation image, reputation management, or one of the latest concepts, the country concept.

The topic is further elaborated on a theoretical level in relation to the situation of small states and their specifics in the care of a country’s reputation (Bátora, 2005). Then the third part exemplifies practice by small European countries, such as Finland and Slovakia, as well as the nowadays situation in Czechia. Finland is considered to be one of the most successful small countries concerning the country’s reputation. Slovakia and Czechia, on the other hand, have very much in common with regards to their geographic, political, or social conditions and their history. Their reputation management is explored through a system of strategy and actors. Then the last part of the paper evaluates how investment promotion is taken in these countries and whether there could be a possible way for Czechia’s investment promotion in the future.

As a research method, this article uses normative analysis of national branding strategies or other related documents in three cases, illustrating the small states’ practice and comparison of the situation in these countries. As examples, Finland, Slovakia, and Czechia were selected. Finland enjoys a very good reputation in the international environment and is regularly gaining high rankings in good reputation ratings. Slovakia and Czechia are two small Central European states with the ambition to gain a perfect reputation.

1 Place branding and related concepts

Taking care of the reputation of the country is currently a frequently debated topic. In today’s international environment, with modern communication and information technologies and the rising importance of public opinion, it is very important for states to be known, to be visible, and to be positively perceived.

In relation to the reputation of the country, the so-called theory of duality of power, formulated by Joseph Nye, is often referred to as its key element. Nye divides power into two basic types, very hard and very soft. Hard power is represented, for example, by the size of the territory and the economic or military power of the country. Soft power is associated with the attractiveness of thoughts and ideas (Nye, 2004). Especially in small states, the use of soft power is one of the means to overcome the constraints of hard power and to gain a better position and influence than the sources of hard power justify. At present, in addition to soft and hard power, the concept of smart power appears in the debates, the definition of which lies in an appropriate and effective combination of soft and hard power (Nye, 2013).

The attempt to be positively perceived in the international community is referred to as the third category of state interests (Leonard – Alakeson, 2000). The positive perception of the state on the international scene can be understood not only as a goal of a number of activities but above all as a tool that serves to facilitate or accelerate the fulfillment of the interests of the country in the whole spectrum of thematic areas. Political, economic, military, or cultural interests can be mentioned as examples. In this context, Leonard mentions three basic dimensions in public diplomacy activities: political and military, economic, and cultural and social (Leonard - Stead – Smewing, 2002).

A concept that is closely related to the reputation of the country is a national image. It can be identified as a set of ideas about and associations with a particular nation or state, which is based, for example, on the values, ideas, or elements of the national identity of the subject, as well as the context, experience, and optics on the part of the observer. The national image represents an image of the values, characteristics, and attitudes of a particular country and is composed of several thematic aspects that together form a complex picture (see Szondi in Snow – Taylor, 2009).

In past and current practice, there are a number of ways to take care of the reputation of the country. Nowadays, the leading positions in the theoretical approach and in research practice have mainly two directions, public diplomacy, and branding (Melissen, 2005; Bátora, 2005; Dinnie, 2008, 2016).

Public diplomacy is understood primarily as a state activity aimed at creating or changing ideas about a given country, about its values, attitudes, or other attributes that can attract foreign audiences and provide a positive perception of its role in the international community (Peterková, 2008; see also Melissen,
2005). Public diplomacy is also seen as a very good tool for small and medium-sized countries wishing to be seen on the international scene and to gain influence beyond their resources of so-called hard forces such as the size of the territory and economic or military power (Bátora, 2004; Potter, 2004).

The second direction that enjoys great attention is branding. Its role is to create the image of the country and its so-called brand (Anholt, 2010; Brauna, 2014; Szondi, 2008; Freire, 2005), and they saw place brand as an umbrella concept that covers nations, countries, cities, or destinations. At lower, more specific levels, nation/country brand is devoted to the improvement of the country image of its visibility, mostly in areas of inward investments, export promotion, or tourism promotion. The next one is city brand, with its orientation on the visibility of the city, attracting a qualified workforce, young professionals, business people, or tourists by improving quality of life, housing, cultural life, or public policies. The last and most specific one is the destination brand, which is focused on improving the image of the place as a tourist destination and its attractions, services, and facilities for tourists (Novčić Korač – Šegota, 2017).

The concept of national branding acknowledges changes in response to the development of the current international environment, where besides traditional, rather economically motivated projects, the issues of national identity, values, and themes of the given society are emphasized, which eventually manifest themselves in the possibility of differentiating the country in the environment of homogeneous world markets (Dinnie, 2016).

Regarding inward investments, it is possible to localize three groups of characteristics that can help potential investors to decide. The first one is hard characteristics, such as the business climate, availability, and qualification of the workforce and the tax rates or development capacity of the region or the city. There are also the “Doing Business” criteria offered annually by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development from the World Bank Group (IBRD, 2018). The other dimension presents soft criteria like the quality of life, the safety of the place, or the level of the education system and cultural life. The last category brings the nonmaterial factors such as the reputation of the country and the stereotypes or the prejudices associated with it (Akker, 2011; also Kalamova – Konrad, 2010).

Looking at possible concepts, there is also some development in how to approach the reputation of the country in general. The question is whether to develop one umbrella strategy and attitude to present the country or whether it is better to develop several independent sector strategies focused on individual topics like the cultural policy, investment policy, or export strategy (Akker, 2011).

The care of the country’s reputation has become an inseparable part of the foreign-political agenda of many countries in recent years. It plays a large role, with reference to the limited capacities of hard and soft power (Nye, 2004), especially for small states. The limitations in the power of small states force them to adapt more strongly to acting on the international scene, to limit their ability to act autonomously. This is referred to in the literature as vulnerability, and overcoming this vulnerability is one of the basic goals of the foreign policy of small states. The positive perception of a given state is one way to overcome its vulnerability and to exceed the limits given by its sources of power (Kamrava, 2013).

Kamrava identified for small states four subareas of an active foreign policy aimed at strengthening power. In addition to ensuring security and growing the well-being of the population and active presence in the international community, strengthening power involves building a good reputation and international prestige. The prestige of the country, recognition of its brand and reputation, is the second component of the enumeration. This is usually the result of the country’s behavior on the world stage, the response to crisis situations, the reputation of products exported by the country, and, last but not least, the deliberate conduct and specific marketing activities (Kamrava, 2013: 46–68).

There are also some differences concerning the activity of small states, according to their hard power resources. Bátora defined these differences for the public diplomacy of small and medium-sized states, but they can serve for the reputation
of the country in general. The first one is the purpose of such activity, its mission, which is for small states their visibility, capturing the attention of the target group. The other dimension is volume or breadth of messages and images, which is, thanks to limited human and financial resources, rather narrow, and small states have to choose very carefully what topic should be presented and how. The last dimension is the outset legitimacy, rather high compared to big powers, of their activity (Bátora, 2005). This criterion refers to whether any action of the country can be seen as potentially dangerous, not only for the recipient country but for others as well. This dimension is used mostly for political topics, gaining the political influence in the territory, but can be used also in export or investment promotion regarding the interests in the background, which may sometimes accompany business projects offered by subjects from big countries.

The country must also fulfill the prerequisites if not to perish all its efforts in caring for its reputation or at least to slow it down. These prerequisites include the real interest of the state to take care of its reputation. The current international situation, the media, and the communication environment call for countries to pay attention to how they are perceived. The real interest, in a number of cases, finds its fulfillment in declarations of state representatives, or in comprehensively oriented strategic documents. The other prerequisite is the acceptance of the longterm character of every reputation activity (Melissen, 2005; Moilanen – Rainisto, 2009; Dinnie, 2016).

There are many ways to proceed with the country’s good reputation process, from public diplomacy or from a branding perspective (Gonesh - Melissen, 2005; Moilanen – Rainisto, 2009; Olins, 2016; Dinnie, 2016). In this regard, it is fair to mention that basic need for promotion is mostly connected to an economic area like export, investment, or tourism promotion (Dinnie, 2016). That is also why politicians were often reluctant to use branding as a concept or why its connection to foreign policy can be rather fragile.

All procedures correspond with the need to establish a coordination group at the beginning and create a strategy for further action. There has to be someone responsible for the whole strategy, and political commitment at the governmental level can help. Then is the moment for analyzing the situation and finding out how the country is already seen and how it wants to be seen in the future. The next step is to formulate the core idea or set of attributes connected to national identity and, what is important, to reality. There is a question of whether this debate also engages the domestic public and other interest groups. The positive of it is the loyalty and devotion to the idea of most people involved in its formulation (Moilanen – Rainisto, 2009). The other point is whether there should be an umbrella concept or whether several individual thematic concepts would be enough. The existence of both, the umbrella concept and subconcepts, is often mentioned, as the umbrella concept brings a more coherent and complex picture of the whole country, and subconcepts bring more detailed messages tailored for specific target groups in every area, i.e., narratives, more concrete stories that are focused on priority aims at the political, economic, or cultural level (Moilanen – Rainisto, 2009; Olins, 2016; Akker, 2011). Investment promotion is an ideal example of such a concrete concept.

There are also other factors that should be incorporated in the strategy, like defining involved actors and their responsibilities, how to cooperate with nonstate actors, what the financial resources are, and, last but not least, which are the target groups for the strategy (Moilanen – Rainisto, 2009).

For the purpose of identifying and defining practical steps in the field of reputation, the methodological apparatus, based on a number of practical cases (e.g., Denmark, Australia), which is defined by three key elements, was developed. These elements include the idea or concept, stakeholders, and tools that are used. The concept responds to the question of what: what is the objective of how the country wishes to be perceived, and what are the strong themes that can contribute to its positive perception on the international scene? The definition of the actors involved corresponds to the question of who and usually defines a set of key actors at the national level. The last question that remains is the question of how: In what way, with the use of techniques and involvement of other stakeholders, do the actors achieve the desired goals?

3 Examples of the practice of small states

The following text focuses primarily on the current situation concerning the reputation of the country, with a specific interest in investment promotion. Each of these states has chosen another way, how to gain an as-best-as-possible reputation, and the aim of this part is to look closely at their strategies, the role, and position of investment promotion, its relation to the basic attributes of the country’s reputation, and other
related topics. The last part looks for the possible way for Czechia to deal with investment promotion, based on a comparison of these three cases. Each case contains a brief evaluation of topics, involved actors, and suitable tools.

Finland

The country’s reputation is quite an important issue in Finland. In 2008, the Country Brand Delegation was established with the main task to create the strategy to deal with the country’s reputation and how the Finnish society and its best characteristics can be represented. The aim of the whole strategy was the improvement of the Finnish position in the international environment. In December 2010, the final document was presented under the name “Mission for Finland – Consider It Solved.” The strategy formulated several key attributes – functionality, nature, and education, and quite a long-term vision, how Finland should be perceived in 2030 (CBD, 2010).

After the 2010 strategy, there are only minor updates in the set of key values, and it serves as a long-term umbrella document. It is not concentrated only on state actors, but in a detailed way describes what almost every part and every member of the society could do for the final success of the strategy, for the country’s reputation. Topics mentioned later, in 2017, were actualization, extended to reliable, quirky, problem-solving – equal and inclusive in the updated strategy (FPB, 2017).

Another of the documents, the Team Finland Strategy 2014, has a more economic focus (PMO, 2013). The strategy expressed several key tasks – influencing the global operation environment, developing internationalization of services, supporting country branding, and promoting investment in Finland. Across the various themes mentioned in the strategy, attention was paid to the cooperation of actors and coordination of activities within a single network (PMO, 2013). Investment promotion was later announced as a priority for the Team Finland Strategy in 2015 (PMO, 2014).

Generally, in the area of branding, there is a strong coordination of movement at the governmental level with a special coordinating role of the Prime Minister’s Office, a key role of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Economy, and Ministry of Education. There is the Finland Promotion Board, which is focused on presentation, in general, and in export and investment promotion, the key role goes to the Team Finland. This group presented their action plan in 2011, and the main principle of cooperation and coordination was expressed in the network of all related actors. Except for the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment and the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, there are also special state agencies concentrated on the task of promoting Finnish export and investment in Finland. The contemporary structure is called Business Finland with its branches for export, investment, and the workforce. The whole Team Finland network combines and coordinates actors from the areas of culture or research and development, and there is also a huge network of Finnish diplomatic missions and Team Finland hubs abroad, which is also coordinated (Team Finland, 2018).

Slovakia

In the area of the country’s good reputation, Slovakia has very much in common with other post-communist states from Central and Eastern Europe. There was no way to speak about branding or public diplomacy before 1989. The whole period of the 1990s, then, was influenced by the change of regime and the efforts of these countries to establish a democratic regime and to undergo a period of social transformation (see also Kaneva, 2012).

The reputation of the country had its brief moments also in the 1990s, but with no success. Tourism and investment promotion left an imprint with the establishment of a special agency for tourism promotion (SACR) in 1995 and a special agency for foreign investment and development (SARIO) in 2001. There was the general agreement that the country needed foreign investment for its rebuilding and creation of workplaces. There were also other attempts to establish a special body or to create an ad hoc campaign (mostly in tourism), but there was no umbrella strategy until 2011, when an ideological study called “Slovakia: country with potential,” created by an expert team under the auspices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MZV SR), was presented. The document identified four attributes, which, according to the authors, are quirkiness, diversity, inventiveness, and vitality. Together, these attributes create the potential of Slovakia (MZV SR, 2011).

Another governmental document called “Branding of Slovakia from Ideological Concept to Messages and Communication” has brought a greater concretization of the previously mentioned attributes and their elaboration into more specific tasks. Regarding investment promotion, inventiveness or creativity can be mentioned (MZV SR, 2013). In 2014, the government adopted the Strategy of External Economic Relations of the Slovak Republic for 2014–2020. Investment, and especially
investment with an export potential, has its place in this strategy and was mentioned as one of the aims and also the then-so-called unified presentation of the country, but the coherence was still missing (Vláda SR, 2014). The newest attempt is called “Brand Slovakia...” and was adopted by the government in February 2016. The document looks to 2020, and the growth of foreign investment is mentioned as one of the aims of the whole strategy. Complexity and coherence were mentioned among the top characteristics of the process (Vláda SR, 2016). SARIO, Slovak Investment, and Trade Development Agency mentions on its website twelve top reasons to invest in Slovakia. These reasons belong mostly to hard or soft characteristics, but some of them, like safe investment environments or using Slovak ratings, can be somewhere close to the reputation of the country, i.e., in a top-ten position among hardworking countries, according to the OECD (SARIO, 2018).

The Ministry of Economy and the SARIO are the most crucial actors in investment promotion. To the rather modest network belong also the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs and, on the nonstate level, the Slovak Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The coordination body exists on the governmental level as the Government Council for Export and Investment Support. It works as an expert and coordination body involving all important state actors in the field. The council also has three working groups, and one of them is devoted to presentation coordination. There is only one problem, which is that serving as an expert body, the working group has no authority to order and to require fulfillment of tasks.

Czechia’s history of branding activities, with no exception for investment promotion, is similar to the experience of Slovakia. There was also the division of the country, the transition period. Investment promotion was part of this period as a tool of transitional economic reforms, which were not possible without foreign funds. The CzechInvest agency (for foreign direct investments) was established in November 1992 to bring these funds to the country. Among the motives for investment in Czechia, there were mostly hard characteristics, like a cheap and qualified workforce, locality, and investment incentives, or soft ones, like safety environment. There were no mentions of investment promotion or of the reputation of the country.

In the areas of promotion activities, branding, or public diplomacy, the big change came with the accession to the European Union. That was the moment when Czech authorities realized that there was a need for constant and long-term efforts concerning the reputation of the country. In 2005, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs first analyzed the situation – how Czechia was perceived abroad – and then it developed the Concept for a Unified Presentation of the Czech Republic (MZV ČR, 2005). The increase of quality foreign investment was among the goals of a unified presentation. There was also a statement in the Concept that Czechia lacks an overall presentation and coordination of presentational activities. The Concept also identified key state actors, preferable tools. The economy was mentioned among four priority sectors for presentation, and foreign investors belonged to four priority target groups (MZV ČR 2005). Unfortunately, state authorities have rather little success in Concept’s implementation.

Investment promotion is considered to be an important issue, and the CzechInvest agency identified, for example, research and development as one of its priorities. The aim is to attract quality investments with high added value to increase the competitiveness of the Czech economy. Promoting research and development is seen as a part of economic diplomacy rather than of any coordinated effort in enhancing the country’s reputation. Presentation of excellent results of Czech science and research is part of this effort, and there are a lot of activities in presenting Czech start-ups abroad and enabling them to find their investors. The CzechInvest agency has its marketing plan for international cooperation, and there certainly is the system of cooperation with Czech embassies and other involved actors abroad, but there is no coordinated plan in which investment promotion is part of a complex reputation strategy.

4 Investment promotion as a topic for the future Czech brand?
There is no doubt that investment promotion is a highly important task for all reviewed countries. The connection between investment promotion and the country’s reputation is rather different. The most coordinated and complex attitude can be seen in Finland. Investment promotion is considered to be an integral part of the country’s reputation strategy, and even if there is also a specific strategy for external economic relations, the mutual interdependence and the position of investment promotion as an integral part of the whole strategy is evident.

However, there is no evidence about the interconnection of promotion activities in different sectors in the two other countries. Foreign investments are the crucial point, but in the Czech and Slovak practice, reasons for investing are rather from hard characteristics or at least soft characteristics like the quality of cultural activities and safety than the perception of the country. There are also a lot of ad hoc projects, especially in Czech practice, where different sectors like economy, culture, or tourism are interconnected, but there is no strategic approach including a complex attitude. Looking at the two other cases, Slovakia is definitely a few steps ahead of Czechia concerning a complex access to the country’s reputation and the system of its coordination. Finland can be, in this regard, viewed as an excellent example. Investment promotion is an important topic for Czechia but nowadays cannot be considered as a leading topic, and its relations to other topics are rather modest.

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Only in Japan? Issues in cuisine in cultural diplomacy and destination marketing

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Abstract

This paper aims to explore potential tensions around gastronomy in destination branding, and culinary and cultural diplomacy, a priority area for the 2018 IPBA conference, through a study of the recent Japanese case. In the last decade Japan’s culinary culture has come to adopt a prominent place in Japan’s state-sponsored nation branding and destination marketing endeavours. This is evidenced through the content of promotional materials, through state efforts to win international third party validation - such as through the successful application to UNESCO for recognition of ‘washoku’ (Japanese cuisine) as an intangible cultural product - and by state sponsorship of a certification regime to promote more ‘authentic’ Japanese cuisine abroad.

The paper first outlines these state initiatives and situates them in both the long history of Japanese public diplomacy and more recent governmental efforts to promote experience industries in international markets, often under the now clichéd ‘Cool Japan’ rubric. It finds that public policy has been largely reactive: to media reportage of a Japanese cuisine boom abroad, to a long-established domestic political economy of domestic agricultural protectionism under new pressures, and to food ingredient enterprises sensing foreign market opportunities.

The paper then draws on the Japanese case to explore some general definitional and conceptual issues entailed in promoting distinctive and ‘authentic’ cuisines in place branding. Is a national or regional cuisine a full evolved complementary set of ingredients, flavours, techniques, and dishes that is relatively fixed and codified? Or a distinctive but dynamic ecology of culinary entrepreneurship? In either understanding, how strong are the ties to place of origin, whether by sourcing, customer savvy, or communities of practice? Or is a cuisine a methodology, or concept or ethos that could be applied to novel ingredients in varied contexts, by anybody schooled in it?

Whether a specific cuisine is understood as a shareable sensibility, or a location-bound cultural practice, impacts on whether gastronomy as a tool of cultural diplomacy is at odds with, or complementary to, destination marketing. Must one go to Japan to experience truly authentic Japanese cuisine? The Japanese case is particularly illuminative given the nation’s heavy reliance on foreign supply chains for some its iconic foodstuffs, the dynamic syncretic nature of Japan’s food culture, the ritualisation of technique, and the formalisation of some Japanese gastronomy in a total aesthetics of the dining experience.
Place branding in the Russian context

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Abstract

Place branding in Russian towns and cities has become a popular approach to regional development since the 2000s (Britvin et al., 2016). One of the features that characterises regional development in the country, is the highly polarised economic structure. Due to global processes, large Russian cities attract several resources and different types of capital, whereas places of a smaller scale have to survive in the competitive environment suffering from a series of severe problems such as high emigration, demographic problems and social unrest. However, big cities also face intense competition as they act as leading actors at the global arena competing as centres of innovation, finance and main tourism destinations as well. To succeed in these competitive games, Russian places have applied contemporary place branding instruments and approaches to their development strategies. Almost every 10th town or city in the country has tried to maintain a branding campaign in different ways. However, many of the attempts have failed due to different reasons (Dubeykovsky, 2015).

The aim of this paper is to analyse the most significant Russian place branding practices in order to identify the common ways in which place branding is conceptualised in Russia and reveal the most relevant theoretical approaches adopted.

The paper describes various cases of place branding practices in Russia including branding major tourism destinations, place branding for former industrial cities, place branding for small places and rural areas and events connected with place branding. This critical analysis is mirrored by the theoretical approaches in the field allowing conclusions to be drawn about place branding implementation in the Russian context.
Experiencing critical regionalism as cultural heritage expressions in tropical urbanism: Reimagining the place and placelessness in hospitality design

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Abstract

Critical regionalism, architectural vernacularism, place and placelessness are concepts that have major influences on hospitality architecture design in Southeast Asia. In the past three decades, the success or failure of commercial travel for developing economies of Asia had been subject to global intellectual discourse. Many critics question how effectively architects capture the nuances of authentic native cultures and project conscious identities of specific regional communities. The debates are not surprising, since the commercialisation of heritage and culture is tied directly to the marketing and brand image of hotels and resorts and affects mass tourism essential in growing revenue in the travel economy. The issue of place becomes challenging for architects since the audience’s attitudinal response towards what symbolises heritage is not always founded on pure environmental experiences but taught, developed, mediated and constructed by others.

This paper seeks to understand the specific issues faced by tropical architectural design and how they negotiate regionalist concepts with attitudinal responses. The aim is to examine in depth the principles of place and placelessness in a critical study of regionalism in tropical architecture. Case study research on the works of the two practicing Asian architects, Twitee Teparkum and Geoffrey Bawa are studied in terms of modernist influences in their hospitality designs.

Key finding shows that contemporary architects working in fast-urbanising regions of Asia demonstrate strong commitment to promote regionalism in their work through symbolic reworking of native locality but have tendency to deliver “short-circuit” fusion of Westernised inspirations borrowing from traditional heritage forms, combining with contemporary pragmatics. In spatial design and landscaping approaches for functionality and aesthetics, the analysis found similarities between Teparkum and Bawa, although their works show interpretive variations based on geographic dissimilarities. This suggests that conceptual designs of hospitality architectures aim to create a response that is closer to placelessness, as they are sited within the complex dynamics of modernity, sustainability, temporality and heritage.

Hospitality designs have secular, economic, socio-political overlays, and no one perspective can fully capture nor reflect cultural heritage expressions of tropical regionalism. Conclusively, this research argues that due to increasingly urbanist forms of presenting exotic cultures in this century, contemporary architects working on hospitality architecture and landscapes must work with full consciousness of what place branding entails, what heritage symbolism and cultural images mean for natives, and in the long run, must desig to be careful of interpreting hospitality architecture as a form of social elitism.
Full paper

This paper aims to understand how Asian imageries are evoked in various performative capacities in tropical hospitality architecture designs. Many urbanisation critics have questioned how effectively architects capture the nuances of authentic native cultures and project conscious identities of specific regional communities. As travel accommodations such as resorts, hotels and lodges provide place experiences, some attempt to immerse visitors and guests in general auras of ‘hospitality ambience’ that alienate the very localness of what they wish to communicate, by standardising landscapes and eliminating distinctions of character unique to the space (Seamon and Spiers, 2008, citing Relph, 1976).

To respond, this paper will discuss the following key research questions: What is the relational importance of place and placelessness in hospitality design of tropical architecture in the twenty-first century? How do hospitality interior designs and landscapes embody the narratives and values of a locality and its environment? How do visual strategies of place-making play its role in tropical architecture to enrich individuals’ cultural experiences?

LITERATURE REVIEW

In analysing the designs of tropical hospitality architecture, landscape and interior spaces, it is essential to consider the theoretical concepts in relation to how spaces embody narratives and its role as symbolic identifier of place meanings (Kunze, 2008). In a paper by University of Novi Sad architectural professors Zekovic, Konstantinovic and Zugic (2015: pp.3-5), it was argued that the construction of architectural spaces consciously deals with individual perceptions, attitudes and interpretations of various spaces: dominant space, interactive space, flexible space, monumental space and scenic space. The pedagogical application of spatial design embodies our cultural narratives and are thus important for both architectural education and built design practice, contributing to the production of urbanisation discourse. The experiences of architectural spaces are also performative in nature, for transactional communication purposes within the theoretical framing of environmental psychology.

Pelaez (2011: p.3) and scholars researching place-making claim, “individuals change the environment and their behaviours and experiences are changed by the environment”, what is known as the self-others orientation (Gustafson, 2001). Such a concept of spatial design implies the active evaluation of the message and the impressions by imageries and landscapes by the space user or occupant. In the case of hospitality spaces (also known as servicescapes) this appraisal may be both rational and emotional and is derived from a behavioural framework of cognition known as Gestalt psychology (Lin, 2004). Other helpful theories are detailed in this section.

Kenneth Frampton (1981) provided a resistance theory which states, provocatively, that absolute boundaries are necessary preconditions to allow national institutions to stand. In such ways, he argues, geographical sites demarcate the civilisations of specific cultures of certain regions, and only then can the place truly embody the unique, innate history and the forms of communal symbolism constituted therein, to be able to withstand the “endless processal flux of the Megalopolis” (p.2). Frampton begins his theory through abstracting the Heideggerian concept of “loss of nearness” as a response to the rise in technology, a dominant Western tendency to suppress tactile interpretation and senses and expounds the framework for ideological discourses on critical regionalism, in which the architect is urged return to “the poetics of construction”, the stories and tectonic values that lends “density to its objecthood” beyond materiality (p.5).

Place and Placelessness

Place, according to Canadian geographer Edward Relph (1976), refers to the uniqueness of a certain geographical location and the abstraction of intentions, experiences and environment which can be differentiate from others. It reflects exclusiveness of localities, cultures and background as the intimate context of living “in insideness, [and] not outsideness” (Relph, 2008). Placelessness, in contradiction, happens when the “authentic sense of place” is not achieved, when standardisation of landscapes contribute to a “casual eradication of distinctive places”, which results in a place losing its authenticity and identity (Seamon and Sowers, 2008).

Placelessness in the context of globalised societies, for whom distant travel is increasingly available and affordable, results on the one hand, in travel becoming a commercialised hedonistic activity, a breaking of routines and
supporting local incomes; on the other, is not ultimately satisfying to the experiencer (guest or traveller) as cultural interactions are limited and defined by spatial methods, stylishly accomplished but nevertheless customised, universal and standardised, thus reducing authenticity of place (Relph, 1976, in Pelaez, 2011). Literature also point out that placeless urban commercial environments limits designers’ creativity in creating meaningful attachment to localities (Pelaez, 2011: pp.21-22).

The Theory and Practice of Dramatic Composition of Modernity

Globalisation produces a ‘less intimate, less familiar’ experience for modern societies. Experimentation with architectural modernism often leave locals nonplussed: rigid enclosure of spaces in contemporary hospitality chains through built and landscaping efforts are intended in concept to make tourists feel “comforted”, a predictable typology of spatial arrangement that standardises, anonymises and dilutes authenticity of local urban character (Carmona and Tiesdell, 2007: p.92). This perspective, the antithesis of vernacular stolidity, is characteristic of late capitalist economies.

Serbian architect, Prof Vladan Peric further believes contemporary urbanism is a mutual relational phenomenon between spaces, events and ephemeral chronology, as spaces and events transport and transform meanings for cultural understanding (cited in Zekovic and Zugic, 2015: p.5). In the theatre of political and cultural spaces, each aspect is inter-related, affecting and transforming each other. Silvija Jestrovic (in Whybrow, 2014) studies spatial performativity of her Balkan home city, Belgrade, and looks at the notion of “itineraries of belonging”, in the essence of the lasting mental images of place begun from childhood. Jestrovic severely criticises Belgrade’s urbanist pretentions today: its apolitical surface, the ideological embodiment of socioeconomic and cultural aspirations, a “city of the moment”, unlike the way it was in her youth: a former communist state rooted in dank, sandy terrain, suppressed murkiness, rude, rural, ghettoised, multilingually-mixed, yet real, peoples (pp.199-218).

Insightfully, Jestrovic points out that a city’s growth prospect is its proposition, to perform and demonstrate often contradictory images that whitewashes its past and removes its intense conflicting events and emotions. Applying this dramaturgical perspective in the context of regional hospitality infrastructure, it can be debated that modern designs of hotels and resorts have fundamentally become placeless albeit pragmatic endeavours of urban spatial planning and place branding. Architects, particularly from developing Second World regions, are challenged to protect historical memories of traditions, ethnicities and localities, and maybe instigated to produce ‘alternative’ interpretations of time-free, location-free spaces to trigger imagination and increase market demands for demarcated social spaces that concentrates economic and social capital while edging out local cultural functions.

Temporality vs. Heritage

Architectural heritage involves spatial and temporal transformation. While the mainstreaming of cultural, social and environmental sustainability is an inevitable process, scholars emphasise the consequences of an increase in stakeholder interests in heritage continuity must not endanger the cultural elements being subject to conservation policies. Two examples are offered: Leonie Lane (2005), a visual artist who mapped Australia’s Wilson River via a canoe, was tasked with developing ideas for public art projects. The outcome, The Wilson River Experience Walk, was conceptualised from qualitative consultations with Widjabal Aboriginal tribal leaders (p.4). Similarly, Bernard Lane (2009) in researching the heritage travel region of Berwick-upon-Tweed in northern England, found regionalism an important strategic tool in formulating balanced policies for the conservation of rural culture, while diversifying its economic products and securing its environmental resources. Strategic planning involving hospitality industries as stakeholder groups enable the facilitation of geo-historical discourse to restore the narrative memory of urbanising communities. To achieve this, it is crucial for practitioners of urban planning to negotiate with community groups involved in cultural preservation (such as heritage associations), as well as environmental management authorities, as this enables them to gain mutually enriching understanding and to seek sustainable alternatives to the short-term goal to “erase, fill and build” in architectural construction development (Shannon, 2018).

Place Branding

Place branding is another strategy among businesses in competitive economies to improve overall national image via substantial symbolic imagery and the creation of standardised brand entities and identities as part of an organisation's marketing communication and investment
into strategic growth, brand loyalty and global reputation.

For instance, Jepson and Sharpley (2014) in a research paper documenting the Lake District of England found the emotive dimension of experiences of tourists seeking spiritual fulfilment affected and strengthened by simply being engaged with the landscape. Another research by Goff (2005) and Isenstadt (2001) supports this need for distinctive experiential environments where symbolism and sensorial moods are communicated through removing the regional and temporal (here and now) contexts. Goff (2005) further notes that small, lower-priced, but more intimate hotels which emphasise service functionality (sleeping, bathing) have seen direct increase in their local market share from higher satisfaction scores.

Social constructionist John Hannigan (1998) sought a deeper economic perspective to this form of socially-stratified consumption, arguing that hospitality operators are in advantageous position, since the consumption of invented private spaces are designed to limit public access. This reality further legitimises and lends credence to the place branding tactics in construction of profitable business districts through active spatial manipulation (Zukin, in Carmona and Tiesdell, 2007: pp.130-137).

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The method of research for this paper is a qualitative analysis of hospitality architecture design approaches in two Asian countries, Thailand and Sri Lanka. Besides their strategic locations as beach holiday destinations, both are endowed with population potpourris of rich ethno-religious diversities. Thailand is one of the most visited and popular tourist attractions in Southeast Asia for its beautiful beaches, tropical climate and traditional cultural hospitality, priced for a wide range of visitors (Tourism Thailand, n.d.).

Sri Lanka, on the other hand, offers a glimpse of ancient Asiatic religions, histories and cultures amidst untouched scenic retreats, besides having the highest concentration of UNESCO World Heritage Sites dating over 2,500 years (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, n.d.). As a precedent case study of tropical regionalism and urbanism in architectural designs, Thailand and Sri Lanka have demonstrated a “continuity of place” (Dewey, 2011), as unique sites of urbanisation without losing their prevalent characteristics, of which many are identifiable through architectural imageries and inspirations.

The exploration of the role of architectural design in creating and setting place meanings enable a fuller understanding of how guest experiences are shaped through affective and visual-spatial dimensions. The research presented in this paper would help foster discussions on the link between nature as a constant factor of experiential design and the aesthetic, commercial branding of hospitality environments. The following section opens a discussion on tropical hospitality design from Thailand.

**ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

Heeding national development agendas for tourism as a source of economic revenue, the regional hospitality industry of Asia has not spared any expense in developing and funding highly visible modern architectural designs in conceptualisation, resources, innovation and ingenuity. In this interpretation of case study, a qualitative analysis was conducted on how place-making manifests in the construction of visual appeals for hotels in two Asian regions. In the 21st-century, these tropical forms seem to be mutating to transcend cultural ethnicity and reflect aspirational growth, as Shannon (2014: p.376) notes:

...the region’s aggressive global positioning has resulted in luxury high rises, detached villas, and the opening up of abundant opportunities for Western corporations [and local developers and construction firms] to join the club of ‘global cities’, generating a numbing sameness of the sanitised urban condition and a flattening of social and cultural spheres ... the pursuit of [anything but] a social sphere.

**Case Study 1: Thai Hospitality Design – Twitee Vajrabhaya Teparkum**

Talent and early recognition are the backstory of success for Thai architect Twitee V. Teparkum. Architecture degrees earned from Virginia Tech and University of Princeton was followed rapidly by graduate working stints in Chicago and New York, which eventually led her home to practice. With rich international exposure and experiences, Twitee founded the Department of Architecture Co. Ltd in 2004 to specialise in Thai cultural designs in modern built architecture, interior and landscaping. Highly-awarded projects include Hilton Hotel in Pattaya and Sala Resort in Phuket (Department of Architecture Co. Honors & Awards, 2017). Hilton Hotel’s visual feast is showcased in terms of spatial and interior design. The imagery of Thai beaches was
Figure 1

The Drift Lounge, Hilton with wavy-line fabric on ceiling and pebbleshaped furniture

Figure 2

Design of the Hilton Pattaya Edge restaurant articulates Thai seabed landscape
Figure 3

*Sala Resort Rooftop Restaurant blends into nature*

![Rooftop Restaurant](image1)

Figure 4

*Sala Resort Restaurant with inviting water pond*

![Restaurant with Pond](image2)
Figure 5

*Sala Resort Restaurant rooftop inspired by ruins of a Thai temple*

Figure 6

*Bentota Beach Hotel symbolises strong local heritage ties to place*
infused into furnishings such as pebble stone-inspired furniture found in the hotel lobby and bar, The Drift Lounge (Figure 1).

"... we were inspired by the idea of a person standing in shallow water and looking up at the sky towards the light, with the sand and pebbles beneath their feet.” (Lupthaiboon, quoted in Bay, 2014)

Hanging fabrics dress the lobby ceiling in an imitation of waves, a functional aspect of interior design which perfectly matches the exterior, provides generous ventilation while mimicking the sway of sea breezes. Rug patterns are scored to look like sandy beach tide marks, rippled abstracts of sand dunes and in combination with warm lighting, the aura of calm and relaxation is evoked, replicating a walk along the beach (ArchDaily, 2017).

"Each time a breeze passes through the door to the outdoor lounge area, the fabric installations gently flicker, and the sea whispers to the interior space, an audible sign of their intimate relationship.” (Bay, 2014)

The restaurant on the fourteenth floor is an exclusive demarcation of visual-spatial wonder, inspired by Thailand’s underwater fauna and flora (Figure 2). The concept design envelope diners with a luminous aura, coming from suspended lamps bearing organic shapes of different sizes to mimic membranous sea fans (gorgonian), a tropical ocean coral (Divisare Journal, 2016).

Sala Resort is another project designed by Twitee and her team. The resort embodies a tribute to Thai aesthetics, its multicultural background and softscapes, with a touch of modernism in an overall atmosphere that conjures its historical roots, from the tropical climate to local artisans:

“This project proposes a new architecture that responds to these complex conditions; it exercises the possibilities of cultural coexistence and answers to the complex context specific to the Asian condition in all of its dimensions from its complex cultural condition, contemporary lifestyle, tropical climate, available materials, technology and labours, to its economic factors.” (Architizer, 2014)

The open-air pavilion was designed vertically to favour expansive views of Phuket beach. The interior and exterior design is a programmatic balance of rhythmic movements, not stultified by borders, thus views and sounds are harmoniously merged (Figure 3). Set amidst a coconut grove, the rooftop dining area expresses a depth of sensorial beauty through sunken dining pods with seemingly floating tables, and a water pond that helps define seating spaces at the same time luxuriates in unimpeded horizontal views of the sea and surf beyond (Figure 4).

The concept for Sala Resort is based on the ruins of a Buddhist temple discovered in the Thai forest. Vegetation had overgrown the area, and in time to come, the ruins would eventually be swallowed and vanish; it was part of the natural environment. The ruined building featured steps that inspired Sala Resort restaurant’s rooftop design (Twitee, Reka Conference, 2014). Ingenious use of local Thai materials and crafts by local artisans are seen through carved designs on sofas and ceiling of the restaurant (Figure 5).

Case Study 2: Sri Lankan Hospitality Design – Geoffrey Bawa

Tropical modernist architecture in hospitality design has long been implemented by Aga Khan award-winning barrister-turned-architect, Geoffrey Manning Bawa. In the book Modernity and Community: Architecture in the Islamic World, Frampton, Correa and Robson (2001) examines the impact of Bawa place-making concept in Sri Lankan (Ceylonese) architectural works, where an incubus of knowledge in traditional Sinhalese and European inspiration are fused into the heritage of tropical modernism for this tiny South Asian nation. Deftly blending minimalist modernism with local touches, he became one of the major figures for Asia's critical regionalism movement.

Geoffrey Bawa’s work spans residential buildings, government complexes, commercial and institutional works. Monographer David Robson insists that having formal educational privileges in pre-World War II England had influenced his radical cultural ideologies, which ultimately conflicted with his Ceylonese social conservatism, and that was to have ultimate expression in dramatic, erotised arcadian elements of Sinhalese classical architecture such as flowing water elements, private courtyards and verandahs, embedding native shapes, materials, symbolic of pleasurable lifestyles, lively tropical climates, resolute people and proud cultural identities as tied to their innate sense of place (Robson, 2007).

To some researchers, Bawa, who launched his career in post-colonial...
British Ceylon, was reacting against the international Modernist movement of the 1950s and 1960s, which took vernacular characteristics of out of built structures and preferred universal abstracted forms (Perera, 2013). Instinctually, Bawa was also a bioclimatic designer, concerned about achieving optimum levels of human comfort with minimum expenditure of energy. From the late 1950s, he set out to create environmentally-responsive façades that were cooled by passive ventilation and protected from direct sunlight and monsoon rains (Dewey, 2011). He emphasised designs that blended thermal sensibilities, including overhanging terrace roofs, rainstorm-protected interiors, monsoon windows with directional orientation towards breezes but away from east and west to reduce heat gain exposure (Koch-Nielsen, in Dewey, 2011; Sun, Ford & Lau, 2013). He created vernacular architectural works that were relatable to social communities used to smaller spatial dimensions, even in commercial works: interior and exterior spaces were designed to merge and de-emphasise separation between public-private and outside-inside, thus articulating nature into human-made spaces (Perera, 2013: p.86). Distinctive flavours of Asian vernacular architecture include open verandahs, airy courtyards, elevated foundations, gabled roofs, spacious frontage, ornately-chiselled wooden balconies and high-ceilinged communal interaction spaces. One masterpiece, Bentota Beach Hotel (1967-1969) sees application of local (Figure 6), natural materials such as timber, terracotta tiles, brick and plaster, and indigenous craftsmanship (Robson, 2002).

Bawa embraced the concept of placemaking in his typology of architecture out of necessity. To circumvent the government’s import restrictions in construction materials in the 1970s, he turned to locally-sourced materials and skilled craftspeople to suggest stories of locality, without foregoing stylish luxury (Prashad, 2010: pp.251-57). As Bawa stated:

_I have begun to think that regionalism is what happens automatically, coming out from the needs of the place... If you take local materials and the general feel of the place into account, the resultant building automatically becomes regional_ (Geoffrey Bawa, quoted by Lim, 1990 in Robson, 2002).

Creating a ‘Jungle Book’ ambience recognisable by Westerners is a symbolic paean to Otherness (Gustafson, 2001; Relph, in Seamon and Sowers, 2008) and a key factor for the intense growth of packaged, accessible tropical designs in the Asian regions. It aims to improve compassion and empathy for Others, to balance this with understanding their connections to global societies. Graham Hart (2015: pp. 32-33) integrated this concept into his doctoral dissertation, acknowledging Bawa as a pioneering master architect who espoused understanding regionalism and designing resilient buildings in response, including insulation, ventilation, local resources and tropical conditions.

Bawa worked from the premise that beauty of place relies in its heritage elements (Robson, 2002). Working in Mauritius, Bali and India, Bawa found inspiration from the tropical climate and local materials and built affirmation of cultural regionalism into each project’s place identity that is neither overshadowed by globalisation pressures nor bucking trends. Tracing his life and work, University of Melbourne architectural historian Anoma Pieris (2013) suggested that Bawa’s methodology of architecture was, at the core, an Asian mindset transformation to “de-imperialise and de-colonised”, a fitful, uncoordinated reaction against the loss of place identity due to Western-centric aesthetic trends. As Bawa noted:

_We have a marvellous tradition of building that has got lost. It got lost because people followed outside influences over their own good instincts_ (Geoffrey Bawa quoted by Aung-Thwin inRobson, 2002; Perera, 2013: p.89).

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In regarding hospitality design concepts, objectives and ideation, whether in the form of invented grandeur, or a critical reflection of heritage loss, the common denominator is the unfolding new urban paradigm, one that bespeaks ‘customer privilege’. As Paul Goldberger (1996, cited in Carmona & Tiesdell, 2007) wrote, urban architecture takes on a highly regulated role to promote high construction standards and spatial management in accordance to certification standards, and this implies foregoing traditional practices: “Their role as private places ultimately overshadows their public mission, whatever the architectural achievement they represent” (p.174). Essentially, the complexities and inconsistencies of real urban forms which have taken generations to develop, are reproduced and packaged [into public realms] for instant consumption.

Twitee approached this issue during the 2014 International Federation of Interior Architects/Designers Congress in Kuala Lumpur (MIID, 2014). Among the gathered
practitioners, participants, educators and stakeholder communities, Twitee addressed placelessness by demonstrating the aims of her architectural methodology through accessible and appealing place-making elements relating to region and country.

She believes good architectural approaches produce varying solutions according to financials and brand philosophy. The process of creating spatial responses is the result of “tinkering … which produces unique characteristics of the building and spaces” (Nathapong, 2015). Asian place branding incorporates explicit vernacular elements based on local geo-climactic conditions, materials and craftsmanship. In this aspect, the architectural design typologies practiced by Asian architects are a laboratory for tropical built design experimentation.

The commercial results of the global consumer culture are clearly reflected in the image proposition that contemporary Asian hospitality designs offer. As sanitised products framed and assembled to attract tourists seeking experiences, they are the carefully-crafted physical embodiment of the language of a globalised industry poised to compete for brand identity and financial returns. In the context of placelessness, hotel guests usually have insufficient and short-term attachments, and thus unable to distinct a culture from observing spatial designs which disregards indigenous narratives in the brand image projected to outsiders who have never been part of that community, region or culture. Essentially, travellers and visitors are recipients of “place branding” experiences.

Twitee Teparkum and Geoffrey Bawa show conscious place branding identification and inspirations through the lens of hospitality design. They succeed in demonstrating a heritage of cultural practices which are reflected to other cultures seeking the utopian, elegant ideal. Hospitality infrastructures and landscapes often pay tribute to the aesthetics of the architect’s birth region as reminders of urban realities as well as challenging them to discover sustainable approaches and solutions from native resources (Rashid & Ara, 2014). Nature becomes an important, and logical, tropical design element.

Twitee and Bawa use tropical modernist design as cultural statements to promote the beauty of place. Regardless of the degree of passionate exploration and pursuit of ecological and heritage inspirations in tropical design repertoires, it is also obvious that hospitality organisations in Asia take the “short-circuit” pathway for strategic, economic gains. Often, luxury hospitality concepts retain original vernacular forms, but the built imageries express stereotypical, Westernised notions of Asia being static, ‘paradise islands’.

Fortunately, both architects have benefited from educational and cultural exposures abroad and apply the knowledge of new technologies and designs in their projects. Their willingness to be challenged in the process of expressing place essence and implementing utopian design solutions should motivate and inspire other practitioners. Hospitality design researchers could further study the realm of servicespace perceptions.

As literature shows (Lin, 2004), from the theoretical standpoint, good hospitality design, aside from aesthetics and luxury fittings, should enhance macro-level brand perceptions, and generate among visitors and guests a keener sense of wellbeing, interactional possibilities, symbolic cues such as positive service manners and deeper emotional engagement with local cultural content and community.

UNESCO (2010) states that the loci of architectural history and heritage disciplines have shifted and broadened to social science disciplines, involving knowledge linkages between history, design and conservation expertise, to invoke their application within a wider context of development for urban communities experiencing rising effects of social transformation. An implication from research is to urge further assessments of relational functions between spatial design and place-making, and to delve into the poetics of construction as a symbol of cultural resilience, as architectural performative frameworks suggest (Kunze, 2008).

Hospitality design for tropical regions, as a performance of culture, uses landscapes and materials innovatively and sustainability. It requires practitioners to develop a critical sensitivity towards native place expressed in modern designs whether in materials, social setting, environmental or personal response (Hart, 2015). In so doing, they acknowledge the need to synthesise with the polarities of the traditional, vernacular, environmental realms.

Pennsylvania State University architect and landscape designer Donald Kunze (2008: p.7) wrote, “Architecture is a fundamental molecule in the expression of culture, and spaces require imagination and a language for its existence to be documented in an experiential and objective way”. CONCLUSION

The tropical design ideation and methodologies that were initiated
decades ago by Geoffrey Bawa can be seen in contemporary Asian hospitality designs. Practitioners are challenged to represent place in the face of placelessness, resulting in a critical vernacularism approach that is locally produced with an eye for the global market (Perera, 2010). The tropical hospitality designs discussed here demonstrate the generic, idealised notions beauty and cultural authenticity of place. Hospitality design, in all scopes of construction ambition, cannot be removed from the exploration of the emotional dimensions of tourism experiences. Creative architectural practice in spatial design focuses on uniqueness through identifying native cultural heritage stories and narrative forms. Hospitality sites and landscape designs must aim to integrate its surroundings and local flavours ‘inside out’, ensuring exterior and interior spaces are fused harmoniously. Hospitality infrastructures should, ultimately, be human experiences to be remembered long after one unpacks from visiting sojourns. As UNESCO (2010: p.96) notes: “Heritage is more than just culture and education, it is also spatial planning, regional development and tourism.” Clearly there are inherent economic advantages to locals through constructing projects of outstanding universal value to celebrate and commemorate heritage and cultural sustainability.

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“See the death bodies change their clothes”- Dark tourism in Indonesia case study in North Toraja

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Abstract

There are various traditions of death, one of them comes from North Toraja, a Regency in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Ma’nene is a tradition of cleansing the corpses of the ancestors. Corpses are included in this Ma’nene tradition at least three years after being buried. This ceremony holds in August after the harvest. The corpses of the ancestors were removed from the chests placed in the tomb of Patan, a cemetery that had various models, such as a small house located in the mountains or tomb of Batu Liang, is a large stone and then carved into grave. Then, the body of the corpse is cleaned using a brush or cloth. Before being put back into the crate, the corpse clothes are replaced with new clothes. The ceremony is also coupled with slaughtering pigs and buffalo to be eaten during the ceremony.

This paper aims to show a unique tradition or culture in a sacred death ceremony and still preserved by the North Toraja community. This paper uses a descriptive qualitative approach. With this research, it is expected to increase the attractiveness of the tourists to see the different cultures, one of the Ma’nene traditions conducted by the North Toraja community.

Full paper

Dark tourism is still audible and also not popular in Indonesia, it is different from other types of tourism, other tourism and excitement, joy and fun, dark tourism provides things related to human tragedy, death by violence, natural disasters and massacres.

There are many tourist attractions related to human deaths and tragedies both directly and indirectly. Tourist attractions such as war memorials, war museums, cemeteries, battlefields, prisons, disaster places, horror tours, etc. People come to these places to get flashbacks of what has happened in the past and see the remains or traces of a heartbreaking and tragic tragedy.

In Indonesian culture, the deceased is highly respected so that there is a series of final processions of respect according to religion to rituals and customs in accordance with their religion and customs.

In Indonesia, many places are dark locations of tourism, there is Ground Zero Bali to commemorate the 2002 and 2005 Bali bombings. The Aceh Tsunami Museum to commemorate the enormity of the 2004 Tsunami, to the tomb of the First President of Indonesia Soekarno which was used as a tourism spot for the people. Whereas in the world there is Ground Zero which is the location of the former twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York, United States which was destroyed after being hit by 2 planes, the location is now visited by tourists to remember the heartbreaking events.
that occurred in the past. With these locations, in addition to remembrance of past events, it is also used as a place of tourism by the public and even visitors are willing to spend a lot of money to feel a different sensation than tourism in general. The level of satisfaction will be more important and demanded by tourists (Hall & Weiler, 1992).

Researchers want to see the location of dark tourism in North Toraja, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. In North Toraja there is a Ma’nene traditional ceremony, which is a special ceremony in remembrance and heightening the ancestral spirits called Tomulang Puang which is not certain when it is carried out but depends on the circumstances and abilities of the family who are still alive or in people who are not capable, then never held this ceremony during his lifetime (Tangdilintin: 2014), held in a burial area called patane and liang. Patane and Liang are two very different burial sites. Patane is shaped like a small house, while Liang is a grave of stone that has been carved by making enough holes to insert the body into it.

Usually the ceremony is done according to local conditions, but even so the basic understanding is to wrap the dead with a new cloth (renew the packaging). Meanwhile, there are also customary areas that do this by replacing damaged burials at the entrance of the burrow and there are also those who change their clothes. Change tau-tau clothes only for those who have statues (tau-tau) of this traditional area in the forest near Tongkonan.

In ancient times until now this ceremony is very sacred and mystical and full of sadness by the family left behind, according to the Toraja society, death is a disaster and brings deep sadness to the family left behind, so it is not wrong if the ceremony is held larger than the wedding and birth ceremony, only now this ceremony has become one of the attractions. This ceremony is routinely carried out once a year in Balle Village, Rindinggalo District, North Toraja Regency, this ceremony can attract tourists attention because it is classified as unique. Researchers as residents of South Sulawesi, the growing age we see there is a shift in the Ma’nene ceremony procession, which used to be very mystical, and sacred which has been used as a tourist attraction.

Problem Formulations

- Why is Ma’nene classified as dark tourism?
- What is the difference between a series of ancient and present Ma’nene ceremonies?

Purpose

- Describe the reasons Ma’nene is classified as dark tourism
- Describe the difference between a series of ancient and contemporary ceremonies

Benefit

- Adding scientific insights into traditional rituals in Toraja.
- To introduce Toraja culture

Literature Review

Here are some previous studies related to dark tourism. The first research conducted by Lilis Chodijah concerning the dark potential of Tourism in Jakarta, the conclusion taken is that Jakarta has the potential for dark tourism, which is largely a tourist attraction that has been developed with other tourism themes. There are also 2 potential dark tourism destinations that are not currently intended for public visits, namely the location (house) of the Panjaitan D.I shooting and Haryono N.T. The potential of the Dark tourism is located in locations associated with government centers and regions that relate to the symbol of power of each dark history according to his reign.

The second study was carried out by Ahmad Rimba Dirgantara regarding the Sichuan Earthquake Dark Tourism Study, the conclusion taken was from the study, that the dark phenomenon of tourism had an impact on post-disaster improvement. The study describes the largest and most devastating earthquake in nearly 50 years that the Chinese state stood. The disaster has an impact on economic, social and environmental aspects. Overall, although the earthquake in Sichuan has caused tremendous damage to the tourism industry, the disaster brought new opportunities for Sichuan tourism.

The third study was conducted by Singgih Kurniawan regarding Interest in Dark Tourism Tourist Visits to Former Vietnamese Refugee Camp in Galang Island, Batam City. From the conclusions taken, among others are

- Perception of tourists / excursionists when visiting tourist products in Vietnam Village Galang Island is quite good. This indicates that in terms of attractions, the conditions of Vietnam Village tourism objects and museums are able to bring visitors to feel the atmosphere of a sad past and foster empathy as well as feel the excitement. In terms of amenities, the facilities available are sufficient to meet the needs and comfort of visitors during the tour. In terms of accessibility, the condition of the
road to and inside the attractions allows visitors to travel smoothly. Perception when visiting the quality of service is also quite good. This is supported by good performance by officers, the ability to convey information and services accurately and satisfactorily, polite and able to build good relationships. The thing that is still lacking is the small number of officers which has an impact on the ability to provide services and information quickly.

- The level of visitor satisfaction is quite high, this indicates that the costs, time and energy spent are in accordance with the tourist experience obtained.

**Theoretical Framework**

1. **Dark Tourism**

"Dark Tourism: The Attraction of Death and Disaster" (2000) by Professor John Lennon and Professor Malcolm Foley. In the book, dark tourism is defined as tourism related to the dark side of human actions, such as death, war, and disaster. The objects visited are museums, monuments, and of course where the events / events take place. The aim is as a lesson learned for possible future events, which can occur again in the region and in other regions. In the book of dark tourism, Stone (2006) divides dark tourism into seven categories, one of which is Dark resting place, which is a cemetery which is used as a tourist attraction.

**Dark Tourism** with its main product - death is a prominent feature in popular social panoramas. The phenomenon of "dark" tourism can be regarded as interesting, educational, sometimes funny, depending on the social and cultural context (Stone, 2006).

2. **Toraja Utara**

North Toraja Regency is a district in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. The capital is Rantepao. This regency was formed based on Law Number 28 of 2008 which is a division of TanaToraja Regency.

3. **Ma’nene ceremony**

The Ma’nene ceremony is a special ceremony in remembrance and heightening of the ancestral spirits called Tomembali Puang who is not certain in the time of execution but depends on the circumstances and the ability of his family who are still alive or in people who are not capable of having never held this ceremony during his life. (Tangdilintin: 2014)

4. **Attraction & Unique Destination Tourism Objects and tourist attraction according to Marpaung (2002: 78) is a formation of activities and related facilities, which can attract tourists or visitors to come to a particular area or place.**

5. **Death Ceremony**

According to Hertz about the ceremony of death is a ceremony of death is always carried out by humans in the framework of customs and social structure of the society that manifests as a collective idea. (Koentjaraningrat: 2010).

**Research Methods**

The approach method chosen in this study is qualitative research with descriptive method. This method aims to describe the Ma’nene procession in North Toraja, and compare between the Ma’nene procession in the past and the present. And also conducted interviews with:

- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Yuliana Li, 34 years old observer of Toraja culture
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja
- Hendrik Palimbo, 34 years old pastor in North Toraja

Data or information obtained is described in accordance with the facts in the field and presented in the form of words and then drawn conclusions.

**Results and Discussion**

According to many authors, the growth and development of special interests and the development of special interests in tourism and tourism services, is reflected in the continuing diversity of different kinds of relations, recreation and adventure in post-modern society (Genov: 2008). Tourist activity increasingly assumes the identity of an industry related to that experience. Tourists seek emotional stimulation, and they want to buy "feelings" rather than produce.

"Dark Tourism: The Attraction of Death and Disaster" (2000) by Professor John Lennon and Professor Malcolm Foley. In the book, dark tourism is defined as tourism related to the dark side of human actions, such as death, war, and disaster. The objects visited are museums, monuments, and of course where the events / events take place. The aim is as a lesson learned for possible future events, which can occur again in the region and in other regions. In the book of dark tourism, Stone (2006) divides dark tourism into seven categories, one of which is Dark resting place, which is a cemetery which is used as a tourist attraction.

The Ma’nene ceremony is a special ceremony in remembrance and enhancement of the ancestral spirit called Tomembali Puang held in August. In practice, the body must...
be 3 years old after being buried and its implementation must be after the harvest season because according to ancestors when the Ma’nene tradition was carried out before the season harvest, the community's harvest will be damaged. The ceremony was carried out by people from North Toraja district in the province of South Sulawesi. There are 32 indigenous territories in Toraja, so each region has its own way of performing the Ma’nene ritual. (interview with Abun Allako, 35 years, 3/8/2018)

Researchers chose one of the traditional areas that held Ma’nene ceremonies every year, namely the Balle village community, Rindingallo district, North Toraja Regency, South Sulawesi Province. Every Ma’nene customary procession will be held by the Toraja Regency Government to announce the date and place of Ma’nene's location through the official website of the Toraja Land Regency Culture and Tourism Office.

1. Aluk Todolo

Long before people embraced Christianity and Islam, in Toraja, animism beliefs originated from their ancestors called Aluk Todolo and one of the religious systems traditionally adopted by the Toraja people since the IX century and still passed down through generations (duli, 2003: 16)

Aluk Todolo (Aluk = religion = rule, todolo = ancestor) so aluk todolo means ancestral religion or ancient religion. and said Aluk Todolo because every service or doing an activity first performed a sacrament of testimony with the offering of sacrifices to the ancestors who said ma'todolo or ma'pakande to matua (todolo). (Tandilingtin, 2014: 54)

According to Todolo teachings according to the provisions of the people of Sukaran Aluk must believe and worship and worship three people, namely:

1. Puan matua as the creator of all the contents of this earth
2. Deata-Deata are many in number as guardians of all the creation of Puang Matua
3. Tomembali Puang / Todolo as supervisor and pay attention to body movements and give blessings to human descendants.

Of the three people who were worshiped and trusted by humans from the followers of Aluk Todolo, the offerings varied according to their level. The places of worship and worship ceremonies varied, each as follows:

1. Puang Matua (the Creator) who dwells above heaven who is worshiped and worshiped with sacrifices in the form of buffalo, pigs, chickens that are carried out in front of the house or anywhere according to the wishes and magnitude of the ceremony.

2. Deata-deata (the Preserver) is worshiped by offering pigs or chickens which are carried out in the eastern part of the house or tongkonan or in a particular place according to the purpose and where the deta will be worshiped and worshiped.

3. Tomembali Puang / Todolo (Ancestor as a derivative employee) is worshiped by offering sacrifices of pigs and or chickens made in the west of the house or tongkonan or in the cemetery where ancestral bodies are buried. (Tandilingtin, 2014: 62).

According to Mattuada (1976: 1) until now people who are Christians still practice the teachings of Aluk Todolo in their daily lives. All aspects of the life of the Toraja people are still controlled by the teachings of Aluk Todolo which are the foundation for all the joints of the Toraja culture that remain alive with its authenticity and influence the growth of the Toraja community.

2. The Origin of the Ma’nene According To The Different News

According to the story, the origin of Ma’nene came from an animal hunter named Pong Rumasek, hundreds of years ago. When he hunted in the forest, Pong Rumasek found the body of a person with terrible conditions. The corpse lay in the middle of the road in the forest, its body left to bone. So Pong Rumasek was curious and wanted to take care of him. Pong Rumasek put on his clothes with the clothes he was wearing and buried them in a good place. After the incident, every Pong Rumasek hunted an animal, he easily got it. When Pong Rumasek returned home, the field of crops that he passed could be harvested faster with abundant results.

3. Process of Ma’nene Version From Aluk Todolo

The Ma’nene tradition version of Aluk Todolo begins with an opening ceremony led by an indigenous leader called "Ne Tomina Lumina", sending prayers carried out around the tomb area by saying an ancient Toraja prayer that
is difficult to understand with the aim of asking permission to perform the Ma'nene ritual. The family has gathered in the cemetery area since morning carrying things needed, such as bringing food, clothing, cigarettes, betel nuts, and things that people die when they are alive and placed in front of the grave. After the ceremony, each family clears the surrounding graves both outside and inside the grave. For the implementation of Ma'nene, the families of the corpses were handed over. Usually a family meeting is held to discuss the ceremony plan and to discuss the implementation time, starting from the animal stock that will be sacrificed in this ceremony and matters relating to the Ma'nene ceremony procession. This family meeting, aims to make decisions and must be approved by all parties. (interview with Abun Allako, 35 years, 3/8/2018).

The Ma'nene ceremony at that time could be done by everyone regardless of social status, both of the noble, middle or low caste. However, sometimes noble castes do Ma'nene with more interest from the surrounding community, because they invite the community to participate in various artistic activities, namely ma'dondi or ma'badong which are carried out outside the tongkonan precisely in vacant land. Ma'dondi is an activity of dance and sad songs performed by young people while sitting in a circle and singing containing rhymes that must be sung at rest in order to entertain the deceased family, but for now such things are rare. Children who have been considered adults by their parents are given permission to attend the "Ma'dondi" event which is an event before "Ma'nene" is an opportunity for my child to find a partner. Unlike the ma'badong, this art activity is carried out by adults by forming a circle and spinning. The song "Badong" contains memories from relatives who died (Kristawana, 2015: 71).

At the beginning of the procession, the version of Todolo's Ma'nene Aluk was to remove the coffin from the grave and then replace and renew all the corpse clothes with new clothes and replace the coffin if it was damaged or weathered. There are no rules about the type of clothing that will be used for corpses, especially in the family agreement.

The next step in this procession is preparation for the Ma'nene ceremony in which relatives bring pigs, if there is agreement from the family to bring it and bring food from home, kitchen ingredients needed in this ceremony to make food called "Pa'piong" the one that will be eaten together Pa'piong bai is the pork has been cut into pieces and then mixed with mayana leaves or young jackfruit which is put into bamboo and then burned. On this ritual, there are only pigs and buffalo slaughtered as their offerings, and in this ritual the buffalo is not slaughtered on the neck like the Sign of Solo but buffalo is pierced right in the heart, and people who can spear buffalo are brave and expert people regardless of their social status, people call him "To Padoke Tedong", then the buffalo was slaughtered by means of a spear, then cut into pieces and cooked in a large pan.

The next step, after the offering material is available in the space provided, then Tominaa (ritual leader) who embraces Aluk Todolo (ritual leader) who embraces Aluk Todolo invites ancestral spirits by reading prayers with ancient Toraja words or higher level languages. After that, the spirits of the ancestors were thought to have come to eat the offerings that had been provided in Tominaa's body which in other words Tominaa ate the offerings, then after that everyone present at the place could eat together too, the family also had to take food offerings and distribute them to relatives who come so that the blessing of the ancestors can be abundant and kept away from the disturbances and evil disasters that can afflict the family. (Vristawana, 2015: 80).

According to the previous story, because access to the cemetery is still difficult and there are no adequate vehicles plus the location of the tomb which is located in the highlands so that it is difficult to reach the society. So that after the corpse's clothes were replaced, the corpses would be paraded and walked alone around the village with the help of magic possessed by certain people in order to greet the villagers who wanted to see. Residents are only allowed to watch, and should not question anything about the corpse that is walking or greeting it. It was said that when someone asked about this Ma'nene incident and why the body could walk on its own, the body would immediately collapse (interview with Yuliana Lisu, 45/6/2018).

4. Process of Ma'nene Current Version

Ma'nene is held by the North Toraja Community. At this time, the majority of Torajans in the north are Christians. But until now Toraja people who have embraced Christianity still follow the teachings of Aluk Todolo or ancestral religion. The Ma'nene ceremony procedure today is similar to the procedure for applying the Aluk Todolo version. In Balle Village, Rindinagalu Subdistrict, Regency, the regulation began with a family meeting to discuss the implementation time, the family came to talk about the event. After
When the tomb is closed, nothing can open unless someone dies or wants to practice the Ma’nene tradition. People from the noble caste do not practice the arts (ma ‘dondi, ma’badong) like the Aluk Todolo people, like other castes, they only eat together.

On the closing day of the Ma’nene tradition, where relatives bring pigs or buffaloes if there is agreement from the family to bring it and food from home is rice, the kitchen ingredients needed in this ceremony to make food called “Pa ‘piong” that will be eaten together. Pa’piong bai is pork cut into pieces and then mixed with mayana leaves or young jackfruit which is put into bamboo and then burned. On this ritual, there are only a few pigs and a small buffalo sacrificing their offerings and the buffalo ritual is pierced right in the heart, and the person who speared the buffalo was a brave and expert person regardless of his social status, the person was called “To padoke tedong”. After the piong bai was finished cooking, then the buffalo was slaughtered by a spear, then cut into pieces and cooked into a large pan.

After all dishes are cooked, traditional leaders will close the Ma’nene tradition program by thanking for the ongoing tradition of Ma’nene. And pray to bless the salvation of people using ancient Toraja or High Level Language. After that, people will sit under a tree around the tomb to eat together. The dishes served must be spent by the family and the community in the cemetery.

Stone (2006) divides dark tourism into seven categories, one of which is Dark resting place, which is a funeral area that is used as a tourist attraction. Therefore, it can be said that the Ma’nene Ceremony in the cemetery area, called Patane or Liang, can be categorized as dark tourism. Ma’nene offers death ceremonial tours in the burial areas of people who die properly and duly differently from most other dark tourism, which offers cemetery tours that are victims of massacres, wars and others.

So the difference in the process of Ma’nene by adherents of Aluk Todolo animism with the Ma’nene procession by Christian believers is according to the previous story, because access to graves is still difficult and there are no adequate vehicles plus the location of the grave located in the highlands so difficult to reach by the society. So that after the corpse’s clothes were replaced, the corpses would be paraded and walked alone around the village with the help of magic possessed by certain people in order to greet the villagers who wanted to see. (interview with Yuliana Lisu, 45 years 6/23/2018). Whereas at the moment the easy access of the residents’ vehicles can easily reach the location to witness the Ma’nene ceremony so that the corpses do not need to be paraded around the village again.

The difference also lies in the process of commencing the Ma’nene ceremony, in ancient times by adherents of the Aluk Todolo tradition, the ceremony began with an adult ma’badong dance, while now the Ma’nene ceremony is not accompanied by a Ma’badong dance anymore.

Conclusion

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that there are not too significant differences in the ancient Ma’nene ceremony procession by adherents of the ancient Aluk Todolo with today’s Ma’nene ceremonies by adherents of Christianity, ancient times to initiate the Ma’nene ceremony, then opened with
Ma’badong dance, this art activity is carried out by adults by forming a circle and spinning. The song “Badong” contains memories from relatives who died while now the dance has not been performed at the Ma’nene ceremony. In addition to that in the ancient Ma’nene ceremonial series and now the series is almost the same.

It is hoped that this case study will introduce the rich and diverse culture and tourism in Indonesia, one of which introduces the Ma’nene Death Ceremony to attract the attention of the International Community to visit this dark and unique tour, located in North Toraja, South Sulawesi, Indonesia.

References


Gallery
Research on the city brand personality of ancient capitals under the background of Internet news media

Gill Ren and Hong Fan
Tsinghua University
China

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to promote Chinese city brands in the international media and provide constructive opinions for Xi'an's city branding. Text of three English news media website related to Rome, Athens, Cairo and Xi'an was extracted. According to the evaluation index of city brand personality, the word frequency, percentage, and vocabulary density were compared and analyzed.

The findings show that the city brand personality of the four ancient capitals in English news media can be summarized into eight categories, among which there are significant differences between the category of "modern" (p<0.05). Compared with other ancient civilizations, the percentage of vocabulary in "cultural" and "modern" of Xi'an is significantly lower (p < 0.05). In terms of vocabulary density, Cairo, Xi'an, Athens, and Rome were 3.4, 3.2, 3.1, and 1.7 respectively, but the number of valid texts of Xi'an was only 278, lower than the other three ancient capitals.

The study concludes that in regards to the strategy of Xi'an city branding, it should build its own unique city brand personality and it also needs a diversified and distinctive city brand personality. At the same time, Xi'an should seek a better historical and cultural communication pathway to facilitate the understanding of Western cultural background audience. This study also provides some insights for brand personality in the study of city branding.

Full paper

Xi'an, also known as "Chang'an", is the birthplace of Chinese civilization. "Western Rome, Eastern Chang'an" is a portrayal of Xi'an's historical status in the world. Today, including Athens, Cairo and Rome, there 4 cities has been known as the world's four ancient capitals. In history, Xi'an was the most powerful city in the world during the Tang Dynasty, and it was the world's first international metropolis with "international trade". But now, Rome is far more famous in the world than Xi'an, which is of course related to Rome as the modern Italian capital, but the other reason is Xi'an city branding is far weaker than Rome. The research objects of this study are the city brand of the four ancient capitals. The reports of three English news websites (CNN, BBC, New York Times) related to the ancient capitals were studied to find out the city brand personality. In order to minimize the cognitive differences caused by cultural differences, the evaluation criteria for the city brand of the ancient capital are consistent and comparable.

Selection of English news websites

Due to the large number of English news websites in Europe and America, this study cannot include them all. Therefore, three representative news websites were selected.
Table 1
Alexa related data for the selected English website of this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Global ranking</th>
<th>Country ranking</th>
<th>Number of internet links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNN News</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>24 (United States)</td>
<td>224171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBC News</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>75 (United States)</td>
<td>121498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NY times</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>30 (United States)</td>
<td>321776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
City brand personality of the 4 ancients capitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation index</th>
<th>Description vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>Kind, inclusive, familiar, helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient</td>
<td>Learned, versatile, history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neat</td>
<td>Neat, clean, fresh, simple, organized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busy</td>
<td>Noisy, enterprising, successful, authoritative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>Fashion, diversity, youth, novelty, individuality, innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient</td>
<td>Convenient, practical, thoughtful, efficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peaceful</td>
<td>Quiet and quiet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>Temples, temples, Christianity, Islam, Buddhism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Charm, diversity, culture, attraction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This selection was mainly implemented with the Alexa website. The Alexa website has a large number of URLs and detailed website ranking information. The world website rankings provided by the Alexa website are divided into comprehensive rankings and classified rankings. Comprehensive ranking, also known as absolute ranking, refers to the ranking of a particular website over all 35 billion websites. Alexa updates the website's comprehensive ranking every three months. The overall ranking is based on the number of users (Users Reach) and page views (Page Views). There are two types of classification ranking, one is classified by subject, such as news, sports, entertainment, etc., the other is classified by country, such as Chinese website, US website, UK Websites, etc.

According to the comprehensive ranking and overall influence of the English news website, three websites were selected in this study, including CNN, BBC and New York Times. The above three websites have been leading in the Alexa news website ranking. The specific data of the three websites are shown in Table 1.

Evaluation Index of City Brand Personality of Ancient Capitals

The city brand can be measured with dimensions or evaluation index. The city brand evaluation index is directly related to the application of city branding theory in practice [1]. In the Internet media, city branding is different from the traditional city branding [2]. We will focus on the city brand personality and analyze the city branding of the four ancient capitals.
Table 3
The preliminary vocabulary of city brand personality of 4 ancient capitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neat</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peaceful</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusive</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
City brand personality of ancient capitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis dimension</th>
<th>Related words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 cultural</td>
<td>Attractive, diverse, cultural, attractive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 friendly</td>
<td>Kind, inclusive, familiar, helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ancient</td>
<td>Learned, versatile, history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 neat</td>
<td>Neat, clean, fresh, simple, organized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 peaceful</td>
<td>Quiet and quiet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 convenient</td>
<td>Convenient, practical, thoughtful and efficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 busy</td>
<td>Noisy, enterprising, successful, authoritative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 modern</td>
<td>Fashion, diversity, youth, novelty, individuality, innovation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study uses text analysis method to analyze English news texts. This method is a general term for a variety of methods for studying media content. In general, it is a research method used by researchers to describe and interpret media messages. This study used web crawlers to extract English new media content. We extracted 863 articles from January 3 to January 1818 with keywords including Rome, Athens, Cairo and Xi'an from three English news sites. Using the Python program to conduct preliminary word frequency statistics on the words related to the city brand personality, and then combine the above-mentioned city brand personality evaluation index, integrate the synonym vocabulary vectors, and then compare and analyze the similarities and differences between the four ancient capitals. First of all, the four ancient civilizations are regarded as the whole of the analysis object.
Table 5
Comparison of vocabulary frequency of city brand personality of four ancient capitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary (%)</th>
<th>Rome</th>
<th>Athens</th>
<th>Cairo</th>
<th>Xi’an</th>
<th>χ²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>6.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neat</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>5.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peaceful</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>4.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>20.547*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

Table 6
Comparative analysis of word frequency of city brand personality in Xi’an and other 3 ancient capitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Xi’an frequency</th>
<th>Xi’an percentage</th>
<th>Other frequency</th>
<th>Other percentage</th>
<th>χ²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cultural</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>9.424*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friendly</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ancient</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neat</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peaceful</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convenient</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>busy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>12.774*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

Through the analysis of high-frequency words, the evaluation categories of the brand image of the four ancient civilizations are preliminarily established.

The initial establishment of the evaluation category is divided into two steps: the first step is to obtain the high-frequency vocabulary as the classification word of the city brand feature evaluation category by word frequency analysis, and classify and merge the high-frequency words with similar meanings; the second step is to The words with similar or opposite high-frequency words that are used to evaluate the classification words are grouped together, and the words that cannot be classified are temporarily classified as “other” types, thereby classifying all the words. The first step is to analyze the frequency of brand personality vocabulary, and then sort them in descending order to extract 10 adjectives with more than 10%. The 10 original words are used as category names for evaluating the city brand personality
Table 7  
Analysis of vocabulary density of city brand personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of words (deduplication)</th>
<th>Effective counts of text</th>
<th>Vocabulary density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xi'an</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairo</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8  
Comparative analysis of vocabulary density of city brand personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of words (deduplication)</th>
<th>Effective counts of text</th>
<th>Vocabulary density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Xi'an</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>1411</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

of 4 ancient capitals. The results are shown in Table 3. The second step is sorting and analysis. The same or opposite vocabulary vector need to integrate into a single category. The vocabulary that cannot be classified is temporarily classified as "others".

According to the meaning of the words, all the words obtained from the experiments based on the lexical conjunction ideas are classified, and the categories are further refined and interpreted. Finally, the 10 categories are organized into 8 independent evaluation indexes, which form the 8 dimensions of city brand personality, as shown in Table 4.

Text Analysis Result

The comparative analysis of brand personality has three aspects, one is to compare words’ frequency, the other is to compare and analyze the difference of word frequency between Xi’an and other three ancient civilizations, and the third is to compare and analyze the vocabulary density.

Text analysis based on words’ frequency percentage

According to the evaluation index of the city brand personality of the eight dimensions, the word frequency of each city is counted, and the percentages in their own are calculated. Then the chi-square test is used to compare and analyze the differences of the city brand personality of the four ancient capitals. The results are shown in Table 5. The analysis results show that the city brand personality of the ancient capitals is different in terms of “convenient”, “busy” and “modern”, and the p value is 0.00. In other respects, the difference is not statistically significant. In addition, “cultural”, “friendly” and “ancient” in the 4 ancient capitals’ city brand personality has no significant difference (p>0.05). In these three aspects, the personality of the four ancient capitals tend to be consistent.

Comparative Analysis of City Brand Personality between Xi’an and Other Ancient Capitals

Xi’an and the other 3 ancient capitals were compared with word frequency and word percentage. The word percentage was tested with chi-square test, and the differences in city brand between Xi’an and other three ancient civilizations were obtained. Xi’an’s "cultural" personality frequency is 7 with a percentage of 1%, while the other three ancient capitals have a personality frequency of 48 with a percentage of 6.8%, and the difference is statistically significant (p<0.05).

At the same time, in the "modern" personality, the percentage of Xi’an
is 5.7%, which is far less than 16.1% of other ancient civilizations, and the differences are statistically significant (p<0.05).

In summary, compared with Xi'an and the other three ancient civilizations, the differences are mainly reflected in both culture and modern aspects. For city culture, on the one hand, it is the historical and cultural connotation of the city, on the other hand, the role of modern culture reflects the progress of city development and city branding. Xi'an is the ancient capital of the 13th Dynasty, therefore the history and culture aspect are similar to the other ancient capitals. However, due to the gap between Western culture and Chinese culture, Western readers may not fully understand the historical and cultural connotations of Xi'an. The difference in modernity between Xi'an and the other three ancient capitals is also the deficiency of modern culture, such as music, movie and literature. The modernity of Xi'an also includes the modern science and technology, which is another aspect Xi'an pays more and more attention nowadays.

Comparative analysis of vocabulary density

The vocabulary density reflects the efficiency of the city branding of the four ancient capitals. The higher the concentration of the personality vocabulary, the more the city branding can be delivered to the audience. The vocabulary density of the four ancient capitals ranked first with Rome, which is 3.4, Athens second with 3.1, followed by Cairo and Xi'an, and Xi'an vocabulary density was 2.1, as shown in Table 7. The vocabulary density of Xi'an and the other three ancient capitals are also compared. The vocabulary density of Xi'an is 3.2, which is higher than the vocabulary density of other ancient capitals.

The above analysis shows that Xi'an's city brand personality are more concentrated than those of the other three ancient capitals, but it should be noted that the number of texts and vocabulary for Xi'an is also significantly lower than that of other ancient capitals. This may due to the other 3 cities are now all national capitals. Another reason maybe there is no effective city branding strategy for Xi'an in the English media. The of city brand personality of Xi'an is relatively simple, and there is no effective communication of Xi'an branding to overseas audiences.

Conclusion

We use text analysis method to analyze the city brand personality of four ancient capitals under the background of Internet English news media. At the same time, this paper also applies brand personality to the analysis of city branding evaluation. The results suggested that Xi'an has a certain gap in the city brand personality to the other ancient capitals, mainly reflected in the ineffective communication of Chinese history and culture to English audience, as well as undeveloped modern culture and art in the city. At present, the number of reports from the European and American news media on Xi'an is also lower than that of other ancient capitals. The city brand of Xi'an in Europe and the United States is also relatively simple. This study also provides a useful reference for the evaluation of the brand personality in the research of city branding.

In the future, this study will expand the scope of text analysis which will no longer limited to the news media. The study also needs to consider the text emotions to better evaluate the city's brand from multiple aspects.

Reference


Customer-based brand equity for small tourist destination: The case of Soca valley

Maja Konecnik Ruzzier and Mojca Smrekar
University of Ljubljana
Slovenia

Mitja Ruzzier
University of Primorska
Slovenia

Abstract

The paper highlights and draws attention to the importance of branding small destination, the concept, which is also poorly researched at the global level. The majority of previous studies (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Chen and Myagmarsuren, 2010; Bianchi and Pike, 2011; Bianchi et al., 2014) have investigated bigger destinations, mostly on a country level. In our example, we decided to investigate a small tourist destination Soca valley. The Soca valley region lies in Slovenia, European Union country, near the border with Austria and Italy. It is famous for its divine nature, threading through it is the magically aquamarine Soca River. The Soca valley brand, developed in 2011, embraces all latest directions that are most desirable for a successful destination branding. It is closely related with national I feel Slovenia brand, developed by several Slovenian stakeholders in year 2007 (Konecnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony, 2013).

Within this paper, we focus on analyzing the customer-based brand equity of Soca valley. The study instrument was adopted from the previous research, which evaluated consumer brand equity for a tourist destination (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Bianchi and Pike, 2011; Bianchi, Pike and Lings, 2014). We decided to include four elements for evaluation: awareness, image, perceived quality and loyalty. The results of the quantitative research, conducted on 211 Slovenian potential visitors, imply, that measurement instrument can be transferred also on the case of small tourist destination. In addition, results imply that Slovenians are aware of Soca valley, have a positive image about it, which is especially related to its beautiful nature, mountains and rivers and great opportunities for outdoor activities. Natural attractions (more functional attributes) were best evaluated also in regard to quality dimension. Finally, respondent seemed to be loyal visitors, as they evaluated behavioral and attitudinal items high. Slovenian based brand equity for Soca Valley is very much in line with its proposed identity and the idea of its sustainability. The proposed findings can provide a good basis for upgrading its further long-term strategies.
A place brand management cycle: Bridging academics and practitioners in place branding

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Mahidol University International College
Thailand

Abstract

One of the main issues in place branding research is its relevance to practices. Seemingly, place branding research cannot gain sufficient attention and admiration from practitioners. Many practitioners do not believe their needs in place branding are met by place branding research (Govers, Kaefer, & Ferrer-Roca, 2017).

What practitioners need from academics are clear concepts, definitions, usage of key terms, and practical management tools (Govers et al., 2017; Kavaratzis, 2015). Due to the complexity of place brands, those practical tools should incorporate a range of brand elements that is broad enough to establish a comprehensive understanding (Zenker, 2011). In 2009, Ashworth and Kavaratzis wrote that there is no widely accepted blueprint for place brand management. Since then, there were some tools and frameworks developed by scholars to bridge this gap such as the strategic place brand management model (Hanna & Rowley, 2013) and the 4D place branding model (Fan, 2014).

However, these models have certain limitations that can be further developed.

The purpose of this conceptual paper is to introduce a comprehensive and practical model called a place brand management cycle (PBM-Cycle). A PBM-Cycle model in Figure 1 illustrates the four actions place brand managers can take to manage a place brand and eleven place brand elements within those actions. The four actions (4As) include arranging, assessing, articulating, and activating. This new model is different from existing models because not only it is a comprehensive model that incorporates essential brand elements and actions, but it is also a compilation of other tools developed by academics in the field of place branding. The purpose of this model development is to utilise valuable academic works by previous scholars and present them in a coherent manner. The author compiled tools and frameworks developed by place branding researchers. In order to manage a place brand, place brand managers are encouraged to use the PBM-Cycle as a foundation and to incorporate tools that are relevant to a specific context. This conceptual paper also puts forth some research agendas for place branding researchers:

1. A further study to identify the tool or the set of tools that are suitable for specific contexts, e.g. an image crisis, a decline in tourism, or a lack of position.
2. A systematic literature review according to various place brand elements.
3. A rigorous study on causal relationships among brand elements.

References


Figure 1
The Place Brand Management Cycle (PBM-Cycle)

Table 1
List of practical tools and purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Delphi Brand Vision Buy-in Model</td>
<td>Virgo and De Chernatony (2006)</td>
<td>To reach the consensus about long-term future, purposes, and values of the place among “brand steerers” or the main stakeholders of the place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>City brand strategy evaluation</td>
<td>Herezniak and Anders-Morawska (2015)</td>
<td>To help place brand managers formulate brand strategies that incorporate measurable indicators, methods, sources of information, and respondent groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>Eight rungs on a ladder of citizen participation</td>
<td>Arnstein (1969)</td>
<td>To demonstrate eight methods that place brand managers can engage stakeholders and gain participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>The city brand hexagon</td>
<td>Anholt (2006)</td>
<td>To assess the city based on six dimensions including the presence, the place, the prerequisites, the pulse, the potential, and the people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>Country brand strength index (CBSI)</td>
<td>Fetscherin (2010)</td>
<td>To evaluate countries based on five dimensions including export, tourism, immigration, foreign direct investments, and government environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>Place brand equity</td>
<td>Jacobsen (2012)</td>
<td>To evaluate place brand equity from questionnaire items collected from stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>Cities’ price tags</td>
<td>Zenker, Eggers, and Farsky (2013)</td>
<td>To assess amount of income respondents willing to sacrifice to move to a particular city using conjoint analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>City ambassadorship and citizenship behaviours</td>
<td>Taecharungroj (2016)</td>
<td>To assess residents’ loyalty and factors affecting loyalty including satisfaction, identification, commitment, and city attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Destination loyalty model</td>
<td>Chi and Qu (2008)</td>
<td>To assess visitors’ loyalty and factors affecting destination loyalty including satisfaction and image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>City brand as a place to do business</td>
<td>Merrilees, Miller, and Herington (2012)</td>
<td>To assess business owners’ attitude of doing business and city attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>Sensing model</td>
<td>De Carlo, Canali, Pritchard, and Morgan (2009)</td>
<td>To examine an image of a city based on five senses: hear, taste, see, smell, and touch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>Personality profile</td>
<td>De Carlo et al. (2009)</td>
<td>To examine an image of a city by developing a persona using a projective technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>The atmosphere description of a city</td>
<td>Laaksonen, Laaksonen, Borisov, and Halkoaho (2006)</td>
<td>To assess an image of a city using an interpretative approach whereby attributes of a city are plotted on the map of two axes: arousing-sleepy and unpleasing-pleasant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>Brand concept map (BCM)</td>
<td>Zenker (2014)</td>
<td>To examine highly relevant associations of a place brand and to evaluate the strengths between associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>The ACID framework</td>
<td>Trueman, Klemm, and Giroud (2004)</td>
<td>To articulate the five identities of a place including actual, communicated, conceived, ideal, and desired identities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>Brand identity model</td>
<td>Ruzzier and De Chernatony (2013)</td>
<td>To summarise the brand identity of a place according to six dimensions: mission, vision, values, personality, distinguishing preferences, and benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>Place brand personality dimensions</td>
<td>Kaplan, Yurt, Guneri, and Kurtulus (2010)</td>
<td>To assess the personality of a place brand according to six dimensions: excitement, malignancy, peacefulness, competence, conservatism, ruggedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Spatial representation of the perceptual organization of the city construct</td>
<td>Larsen (2015)</td>
<td>To determine the strengths and weaknesses of a place based on the 16 dimensions of a city construct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>The brand filter</td>
<td>Project Oso Region (2015)</td>
<td>To formulate a platform as an on-brand/off-brand filter for all stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>City branding framework - horizontal image and vertical value</td>
<td>Rothschild, Alon, and Fetscherin (2012)</td>
<td>To configure a place brand position based on the two continuums of emotional-functional and historical-contemporary</td>
</tr>
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<td>Architecture</td>
<td>Nation’s brand architecture</td>
<td>Dooley and Bowie (2005)</td>
<td>To describe the brand architecture of a nation through 5 levels of brands: nation brand, sector umbrella brands, regional and city brands, corporate brands, and product and service brands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>Country-city-region matrix positioning</td>
<td>Herstein (2012)</td>
<td>To rebrand a place brand according to the interdependent cultural and geographical assets of a country and its regions and cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>City-district divergence grid</td>
<td>Taecharungroj (2018)</td>
<td>To develop a place brand strategy based on the relationships between a city and its district brands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>ASEB demi-grid analysis</td>
<td>Beeho and Prentice (1997)</td>
<td>To analyse the strengths and weaknesses of a place based on four levels of demand: activities, settings, experiences, and benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>Promoter-detractor gap analysis (PGA)</td>
<td>Gopalan and Narayan (2010)</td>
<td>To prioritise actionable policies that can improve the experience of stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>A contextual matrix</td>
<td>von Friedrichs Grønjesjö (2003)</td>
<td>To determine the impression of each encounter of a stakeholder with different enterprises in a place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>The multi-step model for altering place images</td>
<td>Avraham and Ketter (2016)</td>
<td>To help place brand managers develop communication strategies in order to alter a place image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>City image communication</td>
<td>Kavaratzis (2004)</td>
<td>To explain the three levels of communications of a place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>The city branded house strategy</td>
<td>Zenker and Braun (2017)</td>
<td>To help place brand managers strategically communicate a place brand using a shared city umbrella brand communication and specific sub-brand communications</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Fan, H. (2014). Branding a place through its historical and cultural heritage: The branding project of Tofu Village in China. Place
Branding and Public Diplomacy, 10(4), 279-287.


Can hotel websites influence destination image? The case of Macao

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Abstract

This paper uses a parallel group design experiment to investigate the potential of hotel websites to enhance the image of a destination. The Macao Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China is used as the case-study destination due to its wealth of five star integrated hotel casino resorts and corresponding state of the art property websites. Some of these hotel websites include extensive destination information, while others focus on individual hotel offerings. Two high quality websites at the opposing ends of these extremes were identified. Three groups of potential visitors to Macau from the same city in mainland China were selected for the experiment. Two of the three groups received the experiment treatment, that is, exposure to either the destination rich hotel website (group 1) or to the hotel focused website (group 2). The third group was used as the control. Post experiment testing for destination image perception revealed the groups exposed to the website with rich destination information had a broader and less gaming centric image of Macau relative to the other two groups. This is a pilot study only, being based on three small groups of ten from one origin market city in mainland China. Nevertheless, it demonstrates the potentially important role of one specific stakeholder group in destination image enhancement.

Full paper

The importance of a positive image for tourism destinations is well established in both the academic literature and for destination marketing organizations (DMOs). In an increasingly competitive global tourism market individual locales need to portray themselves well to retain sufficient visitor numbers (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Ekinci, 2003; Jenkins, 1998). Many aspects of destination image have been studied over the past several decades. Early papers, for instance, examined destination formation, seeking to build theoretical frameworks in order to categorize and better understand the factors contributing to destination image perception (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Jenkins, 1998). Such frameworks or models typically identified some combination of social and demographic factors of visitors or potential visitors, destination features and information sources as the primary influences on destination perception. Later studies were then able to hone in on the relative importance of one or more of these factors, or to identify new sources. For instance, McCarthy, (2008) examined the importance of culture in destination image formation.

Information has been a particularly important area of study due its practical importance. Tourism authorities can potentially enhance or modify the image of a destination through clever use of appropriate information sources. While early
research focused on the influence of brochures and travel magazines, more recent studies have centered on the internet as an influence on destination image. Attention has concentrated on DMO websites and social media, examining the information conveyed from the destination and reflected by visitors (or potential visitors) respectively (Choi, Lehto & Morrison, et al, 2007; Jeong et al., 2012; So and Morrison, 2003). Little attention has been given to the potential contribution of hotel websites, although Dioko & So (2012) explored the co-branding impact of big brand hotels in the Macau special administrative region (SAR) of mainland China.

This study similarly takes Macau as the case study destination. As noted by Dioko and So (2012) the SAR hosts some of the world’s largest and best known integrated casino resort hotels. The Sheraton Macau, for example, with 4,000 rooms is the world’s largest Sheraton and the Venetian Macau houses the world’s largest casino inside the world’s seventh largest building. Macau’s large integrated casino resort hotels are owned by the city’s six gaming concession holders, including MGM Macau, Sands China and Wynn Macau (Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau, Macau, 2018). These six firms contribute close to eighty percent of government revenue through a tax on gaming revenue, employ a large proportion of the workforce and contribute substantially to the city’s economic growth (Financial Services Bureau Macau, 2018). In consequence, they have access to marketing budgets far exceeding that of the local tourism authority, and are therefore potentially better placed to influence the city’s destination image than the official DMO. In recent years local authorities have sought to broaden the city’s image away from that of the “Las Vegas of the East” towards a more diversified brand. Private sector entities, such as the hotels are encouraged to be part of this endeavor. A perusal of the hotel websites shows some are actively promoting the broader Macau brand while others are more focused on their individual property. This study takes advantage of these two extremes to examine the potential of hotel websites to influence destination image using an experimental research design. In other words, the aim of this research is to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Test group participants exposed to a destination content rich hotel website will have a significantly different perception of the destination relative to test group participants exposed to a hotel focused hotel website.

Hypotheses 2: Test group participants exposed to a destination content rich hotel website will have a significantly different perception of the destination relative to a control test group (with no treatment).

In addition, experimental research is largely underutilized in tourism research (Jeong, et al., 2012). This study therefore adds an additional case study to the limited literature using this approach.

Main approach

When testing across two groups with different treatments a parallel group design experiment is the appropriate choice. In this method the treatments are applied to two groups and a third control group receives no treatment. This approach is used in areas such as medicine and social science where more than one alternative option is trialed against a control group. This may include, for example, testing differing teaching styles or different doses of a new drug. In this instance the two treatments are (a) exposure to a hotel website content rich in destination information or (b) exposure to a hotel website focused on the hotel only. The first requirement of the study, therefore, was to identify two similar Macau hotels in terms of star rating, location, offerings (casino gaming, shopping malls, spa facilities and so on) and size, and with similarly high quality web sites but differing levels of information as to the broader Macau destination. After careful perusal the Venetian Macau website was selected as the destination rich exemplar, and Galaxy Macau was selected as the hotel focused exemplar.

A sample of thirty mainland Chinese residents of Fangchenggang in Guangxi Province of mainland China were selected to take part in the experiment. This city is reasonably close to Macau, with a number of transportation routes connecting the two locations. As a result it was expected that people in Fangchenggang would have some initial idea of Macau. At the same time it is sufficiently far away for it to be possible to find a sample that had not previously visited Macau, so that participants initial image of the destination would be uncolored by their own experience. No previous visits to Macau was therefore a precondition for inclusion in the study. The thirty participants were randomly allocated to the three groups. Participants in two of the three groups were given fifteen minutes to explore one of the two websites. Group A were allocated the destination content rich website and Group B the hotel focused website. The third group, Group C,
received no prior information. All three groups were then asked to complete a survey questionnaire designed to identify any differences in their perception of Macau that could be attributed to exposure to the hotel websites.

The questionnaire instrument included a total of 31 items relating to aspects of Macau’s destination image sub-divided into eight categories, plus three items reflecting Macau’s overall destination image. The items were adapted from the existing destination branding literature, particularly those from a similar study by Jeong, et. al, (2012), with suitable modifications to suit the Macau destination. Participants in the study were asked to measure their agreement with the items on a five point Likert scale, where 1 equaled strongly disagree and 5 equaled strongly agree. The same measurement scale was used to measure the three overall destination image items.

The thirty participants were all over 18 years of age. Most were between 31 and 40 years old (11 participants), with only one person being over the age of 41. Seventeen participants had completed secondary school, two had a bachelor level education and the remaining eleven had not completed secondary education. In terms of occupation, nearly 37 percent had clerical positions, with the remainder spread across professional occupations, still attending higher education or stay at home housewives. Seventy percent of the sample earned less than 10,000 Hong Kong dollars per month, with the remaining thirty percent earning between 10 and 20 thousand Hong Kong dollars.

Data Analysis

Mean values were calculated for all items and then analyses were conducted to test the two hypotheses, that is, whether the sample who viewed the website rich in destination information scored differently to the sample viewing the hotel focused website and the sample which received no information. The ANOVA test is the appropriate initial test in this type of parallel group design experiment to find whether significant differences exist between the mean values between the three groups. Where differences are found, post hoc tests are used to identify which groups differ. However, with such small samples, the assumptions of normality and equality of variance which underlie the ANOVA test are likely to be violated. Hence, a non-parametric test, the Kruskall-Wallis test was conducted in addition to the ANOVA test. Tests for equality of variance were also conducted, with results suggesting this assumption was violated in the case of 10 of the 31 items. The results of the ANOVA and Kruskall-Wallis tests are shown in Table 1. Both tests produced the same results and show that the mean values for the three groups differ significantly on all 31 individual destination image items, as well as the three questions relating to Macau’s overall image.

A perusal of the mean values in the table indicate that those for the sample exposed to the Venetian website have higher mean values for all items relative to the other two samples. In order to test where the significant differences in mean values lay, and specifically to see if exposure to the Venetian website resulted in higher mean values relative to the two other groups the post hoc Games-Howell (G-H) test was used. The G-H test is appropriate where the homogeneity of variance assumption is not met and is also suitable for small samples (Field, 2012). The results are shown in Table 2.

The number of items, including the overall destination image items, where significant differences were found in the mean values of Group A relative to the Group B group is 26, or 76 percent. Significant differences exist in all items some sub-categories including Local Attractions and Cultural and Heritage Attractions as well as Convenience and Safety of the city of Macau. With respect to Macau’s overall image as a gaming city, there is no significant difference between the two groups. In comparing Group A with Group C there are significant difference in the mean values for all 31 individual items and the three overall destination image items. To summarize, the group exposed to the destination rich hotel website had significantly higher mean values with respect to Macau’s local attractions, cultural and heritage attractions, nightlife, safety, shopping opportunities and overall image, suggesting exposure to the destination rich website has an impact on destination perception. This suggestion is further supported by there being a comparatively smaller number of differences in the mean values between Groups B and C, that is 13 out of 34 or 38 per cent.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination Image Items</th>
<th>Mean Values</th>
<th>Anova</th>
<th>Kruskal-Wallis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Attractions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean environment</td>
<td>4.9(0.32)</td>
<td>3.1(0.57)</td>
<td>3.1(0.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality hotels</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>4.0(0.47)</td>
<td>3.2(0.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive city</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>3.8(0.42)</td>
<td>3.8(0.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restful and relaxing</td>
<td>4.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.8(0.63)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascinating city</td>
<td>4.6(0.52)</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting sights</td>
<td>4.5(0.53)</td>
<td>3.5(0.71)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Scenic Beauty</td>
<td>4.5(0.53)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
<td>2.8(0.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant weather</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>3.2(0.63)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting festivalsa</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>3.1(0.32)</td>
<td>2.8(0.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural &amp; Heritage Attractions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique architecture</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
<td>2.8(0.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural &amp; heritage sites</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>2.9(0.32)</td>
<td>2.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information for touristsa</td>
<td>4.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.0(0.00)</td>
<td>2.6(0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain cultural knowledge</td>
<td>4.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
<td>2.8(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important museumsa</td>
<td>4.6(0.52)</td>
<td>3.0(0.47)</td>
<td>2.4(0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage &amp; culture toursa</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>2.9(0.32)</td>
<td>2.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nightlife</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other entertainment</td>
<td>4.5(0.53)</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>2.7(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming entertainment</td>
<td>4.4(0.70)</td>
<td>3.9(0.57)</td>
<td>3.0(0.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting nightlife</td>
<td>4.3(0.48)</td>
<td>4.2(0.63)</td>
<td>2.8(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prices</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good value vacationa</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>3.9(0.32)</td>
<td>3.4(0.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of hotel prices</td>
<td>4.7(0.48)</td>
<td>4.2(0.42)</td>
<td>3.1(0.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily products availablea</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>3.5(0.53)</td>
<td>3.0(0.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local quality of life</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High SOLa</td>
<td>4.5(0.53)</td>
<td>4.1(0.32)</td>
<td>3.3(0.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local shopping facilitiesa</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>4.0(0.00)</td>
<td>3.0(0.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean city</td>
<td>4.2(0.42)</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Convenience &amp; Safety</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe Citya</td>
<td>4.6(0.52)</td>
<td>3.6(0.52)</td>
<td>3.0(0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient air routes</td>
<td>4.4(0.52)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
<td>2.5(0.71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good transport Macaua</td>
<td>4.1(0.32)</td>
<td>3.0(0.00)</td>
<td>2.4(0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar languagea</td>
<td>4.1(0.32)</td>
<td>3.4(0.52)</td>
<td>2.7(0.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Similar to home</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similar food</td>
<td>4.5(0.53)</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similar lifestyle</td>
<td>4.2(0.63)</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similar architecture</td>
<td>3.7(0.48)</td>
<td>3.3(0.48)</td>
<td>2.8(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Macau’s main image</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming city</td>
<td>5.0(0.00)</td>
<td>4.6(0.52)</td>
<td>4.3(0.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping city</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>3.6(0.52)</td>
<td>3.2(0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural heritage city</td>
<td>4.8(0.42)</td>
<td>2.9(0.32)</td>
<td>2.6(0.52)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = 0.05; Figures in brackets indicate standard deviations; a Levare test indicates unequal variance.
Table 2
Post-hoc Games-Howell test results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Attractions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Quality Hotels</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean Environment</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
<td>A - 0.00* G 0.00* C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive City</td>
<td>A B 0.00* C 1.00</td>
<td>B 0.00* C 0.00* C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascinating City</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
<td>A - 0.01* C 0.00* C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenic Beauty</td>
<td>A B 0.00* C 0.00*</td>
<td>B 0.01* C 0.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting Festivals</td>
<td>A B 0.00* C 0.00*</td>
<td>A - 0.00* C 0.00* C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A 0.00* - 0.40</td>
<td>B 0.00* - 1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural &amp; Heritage Attractions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Cultural sites</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Architecture</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Info for tourists</td>
<td>A B 0.00* C 0.15</td>
<td>B 0.00* C 0.01*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
<td>A - 0.00* B 0.00* C</td>
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</tr>
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<td>A B 0.09 C 0.00*</td>
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<td>High SOL</td>
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<td>A - 0.09 C 0.00*</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Clean City</td>
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<td>B 0.09 C 0.00*</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>A - 0.06 B 0.00* C</td>
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|                       | B 0.06 C 0.06               | }
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<th>Similar food</th>
<th>Similar architecture</th>
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<th>Cultural heritage</th>
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<td>0.00*</td>
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<td>A B C</td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>A B C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>B</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.00*</td>
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<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
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<td>B</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.06</td>
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<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td>- 0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
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<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>- 0.07</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td>A B C</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>- 0.07</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macau’s main image</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td>A B C</td>
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<td>Gaming city</td>
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<td>A B C</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>- 0.01*</td>
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<td>A B C</td>
<td>A B C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td>- 0.00*</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
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<td>- 0.17</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- 0.17</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>- 0.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = 0.05

Conclusion

The results suggest hotel websites have the potential to positively influence a destination’s image, in other words, the two hypotheses are supported by the findings of the experiment. However, these findings should be interpreted cautiously as this is a small exploratory study only. A larger sample, preferably from more than one tourist origin market could help confirm these exploratory outcomes. In addition, further investigation into the extent to which travelers make use of hotel websites is needed. If hotel websites are not part of the everyday destination decision making process the destination information they provide would be irrelevant.

References


City image advertising in China: A review of the Chinese-language literature

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University of Leicester
UK

Abstract

City image advertising is one of the most frequent means employed by the Chinese government in order to cope with the increasing competition among cities. Despite the extensive scholarly discussion on city image advertising in China as a city branding communication/a city marketing mix tool, existing studies have dedicated limited attention to city image advertising. Moreover, considering the fact that the most prestigious international journals are written in English, and most Chinese scholars in this research field publish in Chinese-language, international academia has limited access to current knowledge on city image advertising in China. Hence, a review of the published academic works in Chinese language about city image advertising in China is necessary.

This paper critically reviews studies published in mainland China on the topic of city image advertising from 2006 to 2018. Firstly, this paper presents a quantitative content analysis on existing publications in order to identify the main features, such as the over-time distribution of publications, types of topics, research methods, etc. Secondly, this paper qualitatively examines current knowledge about city image advertising in China. Lastly, it summaries and evaluates the current status of and challenges to Chinese-language studies on city image advertising in China, and suggests some directions for future research.

By analysing the Chinese-language literature on city image advertising in China, this paper contributes to a better understanding of the phenomenon in China, which remains marginal and in need further academic attention at international level.
Measuring the effectiveness of place advertisements - From the perspective of place branding

Chunying Wen and Yingying Wu
The Asia Media Research Centre
China

Abstract

Advertising is one of the most common and noticeable vehicles used by places to express themselves through visual and audio messages and to communicate the brand to the target audience. However, the huge input for media outlets usually accounts for the bulk of the place branding budget, the evaluation of the effect remains vague. There are still many disputes about whether advertising work in building the place brand. This study tries to look beyond the cognition perspective, instead of the perspective of place branding, and find some relationships between the advertising volume and the related benefits of place brand. Through real data analysis, this study has first verified a positive correlation between regional advertising and tourism as an important facet of place brand. Second, considering advertisements as an important channel of place brand communication, this study draws on quantitative methods of advertising effectiveness assessment, and provides a new perspective for researchers to grasp place brand measurement and a decision basis for practitioners to choose methods of place brand communication, especially in budget design.

Full paper

It has become common practice that cities and regions practice place branding for self-promotion and marketing via landmark buildings, slogans, holidays and celebrations, sports events, and advertisements. In such practices, it has been gradually accepted that marketing and branding strategies for products or persons can also be applied to cities and regions(Keller KL, 1993). By reassembling, packaging, marketing and promoting their key resources, regions build their brands to attract investments, tourists, talents, to promote exports, and to improve their public diplomatic environment (Rainisto, 2003).

The rise of place branding is driven by the inner logic of regional development. First, cities and city groups have started to replace countries as the main actors in regional competition due to economic globalization; Second, it has become imperative for cities in a region with high homogeneity in resources, culture and economic sectors to seek unique profiles and recognitions due to fierce intra-region competition(Anholt, 2006); Third, the structural transformation of global economy gave rise to new development value concepts such as experiential economy and green GDP. Facing such post-industrial challenges, places that once thrived on large-scale manufacturing find it urgent to seek broader means to illustrate and illuminate their idiosyncrasies via structural adjustment and reassemble of resources. As a result, places are no longer satisfied with traditional strategies of destination image promotion and marketing. Instead, new attempts that better integrate regional economy with socio-cultural fabrics have burgeoned.
such as idiosyncratic towns, cultural and creative parks, and theme parks.

Against this background, place branding has become a novel choice for regions to promote their idiosyncrasies to market. Research on place branding also provides knowledge support for regional development studies. Take the “Hospitalable Shandong” campaign as example, Shandong province had consecutively published advertisements on China’s Central Television channels for three years since the inception of its holistic branding strategy in which province branding spearheaded before county and city branding. In particular, “Hospitalable Shandong” advertisement had been played 7510 times with a total playtime of 60 hours, 43 minutes and 30 seconds. The annual total cost of this campaign is estimated to be at least 450 million RMB, based on the 2011 advertising rate of CCTV-1 channel. One might ask if such extensive advertisement campaign would actually translate into place brand boost. Apparently, managers and researchers of regional development are more concerned with effectiveness and implications of branding strategies. Thus, as a typical place branding strategy, whether TV advertisements prove to be an effective effort is, without doubt, one of the most remarkable issues in place branding practice and research.

**Literature Review**

1. Measuring the Effectiveness of place branding

   1) Place Branding

   Brand is a marketing concept. It can be products or services of a business, and can also be a location or space. Although place branding research borrows a lot from branding literature, place is a complex synthesis that not only entails the quality of product and service but intangible emotional connections due to its special and relational qualities. Rainisto identified identity building as the core issue of place branding. Aaker (1997) defines place brand as the symbol of place identity. Zenker and others argue that place brand is constructed by diverse audiences with their respective viewpoints and interests. Therefore, constructing a coherent internal identity (among stakeholders from public, private and civil society spheres) and external image (shaped by tourists, investors, businessmen and immigrants) (Aaker, 1997).

   Informed by these findings, building place brand is more than establishing unique brand recognition to maximize market competitiveness. First, branding a place aims to enhance competitiveness in terms of resources, economic power, talent, and culture. Second, branding a place offers viable solutions for places to attract tourists, investments, plan and cultivate sustainable projects. Third, place branding is the key to the impression of consumers including residents, tourists and investors in order to shape and maximize their urban experience.

   2) Measurement of place branding

   It is difficult to measure the effectiveness of place branding due to the complex process of brand production. There are three main ways to measure place branding effectiveness: First, it can be measured qualitatively based on target audience’s perspectives on brands via focus group discussions and free brand association; Second, it can be measured quantitatively using standardized multidimensional survey to reveal brand qualities. Anholt’s six-dimension city competitiveness model and FutureBrand’s hierarchical decision model both use such method (Anholt, 2006). Third, fused measurements such as multidimensional, network analysis, brand conceptual map, and target chain theory are also used to measure place brand.

In addition, many place brand managers find it necessary to apply more market data analysis in place branding research to offer quantitative benchmark (Dinnie 2001). One way is to measure brand effectiveness based on indicators such as import/export trade, tourist arrival, tourism income, migration flow, and economic impact (Gertner, 2011; Morgan, 2002).

However, there hasn’t been a consensus of indicators of branding effectiveness. The main reason is that, on one hand, measurement hinges on data accessibility once a theoretical model of brand elements or dimensions. On the other hand, various stakeholders that share the brand value would evaluate branding effectiveness differently based on their respective vantage points.

2. Impacting factor on tourism income

In quantitative studies of branding effectiveness, Kavaratzis and others added resident satisfaction, tourism income, and financial performance in the explaining factors in addition to destination image. Tourism income has long been the key indicator of destination attraction in destination marketing scholarship. However, tourism is a highly dependent sector, shaped by seasonality, holiday schedule, distance, economic conditions, etc. Correspondingly, tourism income dynamic hinges on full range of factors such as political, economic,
natural conditions, service level, business qualifications, professionalism of service personnel, etc.

Current studies of tourism, regional development and destination marketing pinpoint four factors influencing tourism income: First, tourism resource condition. Destinations that have rich tourism resource are generally more attractive. Second, number of tourist arrivals. Yuan et.al (2011) finds a positive correlation between number of tourist arrivals and tourism income based on regression model and factor analysis. Third, level of economic development. Li and He (2010) attribute tourism development to fast GDP growth, higher disposable leisure time, and more holidays. Tourists are more willing to purchase experiences such tourism with higher disposable income. Four, transportation. Development of public transportation reduces temporal and spatial distance for tourists and offers more flexible and diverse choices. Transportation paves the way for tourism development and income.

However, most current studies approach explaining factors of tourism income from macro-level perspectives of the industry. Micro-level observations reveal the interconnectedness between personal consumer decision-making and tourism income of a place. Consumer decision-making is often shaped by marketing, image promotion and media exposure channels. The inclusion of perspectives from media and communication studies can offer new insights for studies of impacting factors of tourism income.

3. Advertisement effectiveness research

Placement of image advertisement of places is considered one of the efforts of place branding. The debate over whether advertising is effective still exists. From the perspective of product advertising effectiveness theory, the answer is yes.

The effectiveness of advertising is the impact of advertising campaigns or advertising works on people and society. Advertising effectiveness is a results-driven process and is the purpose of advertising. The evaluation of advertising effectiveness encompasses all the factors that shape consumers impression of products when ads are placed through the media. The advertising effectiveness has experienced different stages of development: from focusing on psychological effects to examining the effects of mass media; from focusing on advertising sales to focusing on the comprehensive effects of advertising. Research on advertising effectiveness can be divided into two directions: focusing on consumer cognitive response and focusing on consumer market reaction.

In 1925, Strong argues that advertising effect should measure four dimensions of consumer’s "attention," "interest," "desire," and "action" (AIDA). Later, Collie proposed the DAGMAR evaluation model, arguing that consumers' response to advertising was a chain reaction that include stages including never known, Awareness, comprehension, convinced, and Action. The L&S model built by Robert and Steiner believes that consumer response to advertising consists of three parts: cognitive response, emotional response and intentional response. Later researchers based on existing cognitive response models, based on different media channels or market environment, to correct the model. Consumers' cognitive responses are difficult to measure directly and are usually studied using questionnaires or interviews.

Regarding consumer market response, focus on the measurement of the effectiveness of advertising sales. Promoting sales is one of the most important purposes of product advertising, and research on advertising effectiveness has never neglected the sales effect. Studies of advertising sales effect usually attempts to establish a regression model by comparing the year-on-year sales, ring sales, sales completion rates, and the degree of brand impact improvement in order to study the influence of advertising, price, and promotion activities on sales and market performance.

4. How to evaluate the elevating effect of TV advertising in place branding

The classic advertising effect theory believes that large-scale advertising placement can help enhance product and brand recognition, stimulate consumption, and improve product sales and brand awareness. However, can advertisements that work in the field of brand marketing be equally effective in promoting destination image?

Advertising for place branding mainly draws on relevant advertising research. Similar to product advertising effect research, studies of destination image advertising effect can be divided into two categories: one is the psychological effect and communication effect of advertising itself, specifically the impact and influence of image advertising on audience psychology, culture and language. Domestic scholar Lv Hongjiang and others built a
network advertising psychological effect evaluation index system through questionnaire survey; Cui Fengjun conducted a questionnaire survey on the effect of specific city image advertising, and tested the correlation between advertising policies and economic effects based on a small sample. However, because the impact of advertising on the audience does not necessarily translate directly into travel behavior, and it is difficult to measure tourist behavior. Empirical research conducted by Wang Siyu and Xue Ke et al. found that the public's perception, attitude and behavioral trend of city image are minimally affected by destination promotion films in the short term. Therefore, these methods are still controversial.

The other type of research investigates the economic effect of advertising, which usually measures the output performance of advertising inputs. The evaluation methods include advertising tracking, conversion studies, and so on. These methods mainly focus on the target audience's advertising response, destination image, travel possibilities and their estimated expenses. Based on this, the indicators such as ROI are used to measure the performance of advertising. Based on the advertising war situation in Ontario, Canada from 1987 to 1988, Butterfield et al. constructed a tourism advertising effect framework that affects the cost of tourists, and laid a theoretical foundation for the evaluation of the economic effect of destination tourism image advertising. Other researcher respectively carried out empirical analyses of the efficiency and effect of local government tourism promotion, and carried out actual measurement of destination marketing efficiency, broadening the previous quantitative research.

Method

1. Research Objectives

As mentioned above, many scholars have contributed to the measurement of regional brand, such as in advertising effect research, destination marketing research, and tourism research. However, whether advertising can be applied to the promotion of regional brand still deserves a broad range of case studies and testing. Based on the review of existing research, this study uses factual data, with a focus on tourism revenue, to analyze whether television advertising can effectively promote regional branding. The research topic deals with two layers of research objectives. First, it is necessary to discuss whether advertising contributes to the building of regional brand, and second, whether advertising has an impact on regional tourism revenue.

2. Variables

First of all, based on advertising effect theory, image advertisement or product advertisement delivered by the destination may enhance image recognition of the destination and help to increase the sales of regional products, such as tourism-related services. In general, existing literature uses factors, such as advertising sales and advertising budget, as indicators to measure the size of advertising. In fact, the expense of advertising includes not only the actual cost of advertising, but also other expenses for advertising-related activities. Therefore, in order to highlight the practical situation of the scale of advertising, this study employs the total amount of advertising, that is, the multiplication of the total frequency of advertising and the total duration of advertising.

Secondly, based on the nature of regional brand, a regional brand is not only its external cognition, evaluation and reputation, but also a multi-dimensional construct involving regional characteristics, spiritual appearance, behavioral representation, historical culture and economic development. Therefore, from the perspective of elementalism, the study suggests that the nature of regional brand includes specific dimensions, such as economy, investment, immigration and talent, tourism, and transportation. Therefore, the study uses local GDP as a variable to measure the overall economic development of the region. The total amount of imports and exports is used to reflect the degree of openness of a region. The total tourism revenue acts as an important indicator of the development of regional tourism.

The volume of passenger transportation is used to measure regional traffic conditions. The population mobility ratio is used as a variable to reflect regional population movements and immigration conditions.

Lastly, the factors that influence tourism revenue mainly include the number of tourists, economic development level and traffic status. Therefore, the number of A-level tourism attractions, the total number of tourists, gross regional product, per capita disposable income, passenger turnover, and advertising volume are also included in the analysis as independent variables.

3. Data Source

The data set consists of two parts. First, the study uses China Central Television (CCTV) advertising data to calculate the annual advertising
Table 1

Pearson correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertising Volume</th>
<th>Local GDP</th>
<th>Volume of Imports and Exports</th>
<th>Tourism Revenue</th>
<th>Passenger Traffic Turnover</th>
<th>Population Flow Ratio</th>
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<td>.226**</td>
<td>.223**</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

volume of 17 main channels of CCTV in 31 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities in mainland China from 2005 to 2015. Second, from statistical yearbooks, such as the National Economic Development and Tourism Development, we collected various indicators of social and economic development for the 31 regions from 2005 to 2015, including GDP, annual population flow, total import and export, and tourism revenue, and passenger traffic turnover.

Findings

The result of the correlation analysis shows that the correlation between the advertising volume and the total import and export volume of the region is not significant, but it has a significant positive relationship with the regional GDP, total tourism revenue and passenger turnover at the significance level of 0.01, and is negatively correlated with the population flow ratio at significance level of 0.05. The correlation coefficients are 0.244, 0.226, 0.223, and -0.148, respectively. This shows that during the year of 2005, the advertising volumes for the 31 provinces on CCTV have an impact on the economic development, tourism development, traffic conditions and population movement of these regions. The results reflect the relative impact of television advertising on the construction and development of regional brand. It thus answers the first question we raised.

2. Regression Analysis

1) Modeling

The study uses multiple regression analysis to explore whether advertising is a factor for tourism revenue. First, the stability and cointegration tests were conducted on the various variables that may affect tourism income prior to the model was established. Since the double logarithmic form cannot only reduce the single integer order of the variable, in the co-integration analysis, the estimated coefficient of the independent variable in the double log-linear model can directly reflect the income elasticity. Therefore, in studying tourism income, the authors employs the double-logarithm linear regression widely used by scholars. Based on this, this paper establishes the following model:

\[
\ln Y = \alpha + \beta_1 \ln X_1 + \beta_2 \ln X_2 + \beta_3 \ln X_3 + \beta_4 \ln X_4 + \beta_5 \ln X_5 + \beta_6 \ln X_6 + \mu
\]

In the model, \( Y \) represents total tourism revenue (100 million yuan), \( X_1 \) indicates the amount of advertising, \( X_2 \) the regional GDP (100 million yuan), \( X_3 \) the total number of tourists (10,000 people), \( X_4 \) per capita disposable income (yuan), \( X_5 \) the number of A-level scenic spots, and \( X_6 \) the passenger turnover (100 million X km). \( \mu \) is the residual term.

It is important to note that the independent variables may partially influence the dependent variable. Also to detect possible multicollinearity between the independent variables, it is necessary to perform collinear
Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Conditional Index</th>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Advertising Volume</th>
<th>Number of Tourists</th>
<th>Per Capita Disposable Income</th>
<th>Passenger Traffic Turnover</th>
<th>Number of A-level Tourism Attractions</th>
<th>Regional GDP</th>
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Table 3

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Advertising Volume</th>
<th>Local GDP</th>
<th>Number of Tourists</th>
<th>Number of A-level Tourism Attractions</th>
<th>Passenger Traffic Turnover</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>-2.984</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>1.029</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>-0.318</td>
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<td>0.870</td>
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<td>15.418</td>
<td>5.388</td>
<td>-4.941</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>M2</td>
<td>-0.407</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.730</td>
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<td>1.834</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Significance: *p <0.05

analysis on the independent variables: The table above shows that the eigenvalues have multiple values of zero, and the conditional index has multiple values greater than 10. It signals multicollinearity between the independent variables. The correlation coefficient matrix also shows that the values of per capita disposable income and regional GDP are both close to 1. In fact, these two variables represent the level of regional economic development and consumption power, both of which are economic factors. Therefore, in the following modified model, we only select regional GDP as a variable representing economic factors. Based on this, the following is the corrected model:
\[ \ln Y = \alpha + \beta_1 \ln X_1 + \beta_2 \ln X_2 + \beta_3 \ln X_3 + \beta_4 \ln X_4 + \beta_5 \ln X_5 + \beta_6 \ln X_6 + \mu \quad (2) \]

2) Regression results

Based on Model 1, regional GDP significantly influences tourism revenue. In the model with regional GDP, other independent variables do not show significant effect on tourism revenue, especially advertising volume. Therefore, Model 2 is re-established, while the total regional production value is controlled.

The regression result of Model 2 provides important insights. First, the F-test shows significance, indicating the validity of the model. The adjusted R-square (0.725) indicates that the model explains about 72% of the sample data, and the model has a high degree of fit.

Furthermore, advertising volume, the total number of tourists, and the number of A-level tourism attractions were significant at \( p < 0.05 \), while the passenger traffic turnover was not significant at \( p > 0.05 \). Therefore, while the economic-related variables are controlled, factors such as advertising volume, total number of tourists, number of A-level tourism attractions, and passenger traffic turnover significantly affect tourism revenue. This shows that between 2005 and 2015, given the steady economic development of the 31 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions in China, tourism revenues had increased correspondingly with the increase in advertising volume, total number of tourists and the number of A-level tourism attractions. Among them, the coefficient of elasticity of the A-level tourism attractions is the largest (0.858). It shows that tourism resources have a strong pulling effect on tourism revenue. The elasticity coefficient of the total number of tourists is second (0.164). The increase of tourist population is also important for tourism revenue. The elasticity of advertising volume is the smallest, only 0.032, yet the result is still significant. This shows that the increase of advertising volume may also significantly increase tourism revenue.

Discussion and Conclusion

The research results show that advertising volume may effectively influence place and regional branding, especially in promoting local development and attractiveness. First, the result is a widely accepted view in existing tourism research. For example, Wang Zhanxiang used the ridge regression analysis method to show, that per capita GDP, tourist volume and domestic price level were positively correlated with domestic tourism income. Huang Xiujuan used Shanghai as an example, and concluded that building tourism attractions created more opportunities for Shanghai’s international arrivals. This paper further verifies, from the empirical point of view, that both Chinese domestic and international scholars have demonstrated the local economic development and consumption level, the number of tourists, and tourism resources are the main factors affecting tourism revenue at a place.

Many scholars believe that the convenience of transportation and the quality of transportation facilities are important considerations when people make tourism decisions. However, in the regression model of this study, the role of traffic variables is not significant. In previous studies, road/rail mileage, number of routes, and traffic hub throughput were used as indicators to reflect traffic conditions. However, these indicators have their own geographical limitations. Therefore, the highlights of traffic factors in past studies are more representative of the characteristics of a particular research area. In contrast, this study used passenger turnover to indicate the total amount of passenger transportation work in a certain period of time. For areas without extensive transportation network, ease of access is an important factor to promote tourism development and increase tourism revenue. On the other hand, for areas with developed tourism environment, easy access and transportation network is not necessarily a significant advantage in attracting tourists.

Secondly, as a major independent variable in the study, advertising has a pulling effect on tourism revenue. Specifically, in the double logarithmic model, while other conditions remain the same, every 1% change in advertising is likely to result in a 3.2% change in tourism revenue. Existing studies on destination advertising mainly focus on assessing consumer’s response to destination advertising campaigns, including one’s destination image perception, willingness to visit, and actual visit behavior. However, for the advertising agency at a certain region, the evaluation of advertising effect is not limited to the perception and behavior of the target market; rather, it extends to how advertising affects the marketing effort, reputation and economic benefits of the extended region. Therefore, international researchers set out to use a “buyer-purchase approach” to conduct advertising evaluation. They suggest that policy makers and researchers should focus on the impact of advertising on actual tourist volume and local economic benefits. This approach adopts a general
econometric perspective to the
destination state is a function of the
size and nature of the visitor
market, distance to the state, and
the size and nature of the
advertising campaign, as well as its
effectiveness. This study has made a
response to this perspective, using
China as an example.

Thirdly, in the past, the
understanding of “region” as
a brand mainly focused on
communication and marketing
attributes. It has led researchers to
measure and evaluate regional
brands in the framework of
communication and perception.
One important characteristic of
products and services is that a
region may be a state, city, or village.
Its distinction from a product or
service is its physical attributes and
spiritual traits. The authors suggest
that a regional brand is neither the
objective reality of the region nor
the material attribute itself, but the
combination of both in the
reproduction of the region through
communication. In addition, from
the methodological level, the nature
of regional branding study is
interdisciplinary. The evaluation of
its effects also requires different
disciplines to break the inherent
framework and establish an
experiential design and assessment
method that integrates the objective
characters of the region and its
image reproduction through
communication. This study is
intended to break the traditional
communication or marketing
perspective based on factual data,
and provide a possible direction for
regional brand effectiveness
evaluation under the framework of
“regional development”.

In addition, the study also has
practical significance for regional
branding practices. For regional
brand managers and decision
makers, the pull effect of advertising
can provide a factual reference for
their regional brand strategy
development and marketing.
However, television advertising as
one major branding effort is not
only an important measure to
coordinate regional development
strategies, but also an effective
means to enhance regional
competitiveness. At the same time,
it also undertakes the mission of
cultural exchange and public
diplomacy. Therefore, television
advertising is more than a
marketing tool, and should not be
used as a requirement for policy
making and public diplomacy
building. Developing a regional
brand and realizing the effective
dissemination of regional brands
requires the collaboration of various
stakeholders and social groups. It is
a strategic, continuous and
systematic process. Within the scope
of a strategy, tactics, goals and
specific objectives need to be
supported by comprehensive
research and professional
operations.

The study sheds light on the
evaluation of destination
advertising effectiveness,
regional brand-building and
evaluation. However, a few
imitations needs to be addressed.
Firstly, the study only adopted a few
dimensions to explain local
development and attractiveness.
Other variables that can improve
the effectiveness of the model need
to be considered in the future.
Secondly, the television
advertisement data from 2005 to
2015 are essentially panel data. Yet,
the developed model did not
include time-related conditions.
Therefore, future studies should
develop analysis using time series
methods.

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The dynamics of place brands: an
identity-based approach to place
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marketing to city branding: an
interdisciplinary analysis with
reference to Amsterdam, Budapest
and Athens. PhD thesis,
Rijksuniversiteit Groningen,
Groningen
An empirical study on the mechanism of negative event restoration strategy on the quality of city brand relationship

(Wenxin Yu, Chao Liu, Siyao Sun, and Jinping Li)

School of Journalism & Communication, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

China

Abstract

By controlling brand image restoration strategies (affective repair, corrective repair, no repair) and negative event types (human error negative events, management decision-making negative events), this paper adopts a 3 * 2 experimental design to explore the impact of public satisfaction, trust and commitment to the city and the main effects of the repair strategy and the city's negative events under two types of negative events and different brand image restoration strategies. The results show that the main effect of brand repair strategy is obvious. When there are negative events in the city, the use of emotional repair strategy and corrective repair strategy can significantly improve the public's satisfaction, trust and commitment to urban brands. Further more, the use of corrective repair strategy would be better. For the negative events of man-made faults, the use of corrective repair strategy can enhance the public's satisfaction and commitment to urban brands compared with emotional repair strategies. For the management decision-making negative events, the use of emotional repair strategy can improve the public commitment to the city brand. While for urban brand satisfaction, the use of corrective repair strategies is better. This study is enlightening to the practice of urban brand management. When negative events occur in a city and affect the brand image of the city, if managers adopt appropriate image restoration strategies according to the type and characteristics of the negative event, the maintenance of the quality of public-city brand relationship can be more targeted and effective.

的承诺度，但是对于城市品牌的满意度来说，使用情感性修復策略并没有使用纠正性修復策略的效果好。本文对城市品牌管理实践具有启发性，当一个城市中有负面事件发生并影响到城市的品牌形象时，管理者根据负面事件的类型特点采取适当的修復策略，对于公众城市品牌关系品质的维护更具针对性与效力。

基金專案:廣東省普通高校省級重大科研項目(2016WZDXM025)、廣東省高等教育創新強校工程項目(GWTP-GC-4-07)、廣州國際城市創新傳播研究中心項目。
New sales and promotion channels for traditional and regional products: The example of gas stations in Poland

Tomasz Zawadzki
Poznan University of Economics and Business
Poland

Abstract

This article first discusses the protection system of traditional and regional products in Poland. The awarding of "regional marks" increases the competitiveness of products and it is an important element which influence customer behavior (Gulbicka 2014). The article analyzes regional products origin from different voivodships of Poland. It is based on the list of traditional products published by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development in Poland and on the basis of other accredited, related indications such as "Quality and tradition". The principal aim of the article is to present changes in the accessibility of regional products understood as introducing them into trade formats in which they have not previously occurred. One of the examples of such a channel are gas stations in Poland where the category of regional products is new from the point of view of this trade segment.

The gas station segment as a part of trade is becoming more and more vital in Poland (Suszyńska, Zawadzki 2017) and new functions are being added to gas stations that aim to diverse their offer. The gas station store is already considered as a type of typical convenience store, a kind of place of meetings and everyday shopping. There are two main reasons that influence such an evaluation: the change of shopping habits and the statutory prohibition of trading on Sunday (recent Polish government regulations). The article presents two case studies - the Citronex Gas Station chain which successfully introduces a regional product to its offer and comprehensive case study of the PKN ORLEN gas station chain who is a market leader in Poland. PKN ORLEN recently introduced, on selected gas stations (around 500 places), special shelves marked as "Spirzarnia Regionów" ["Pantry of Regions"] where food products from regional suppliers (mainly food and craft beer) are highly promoted. There are more than 70 regional products available for customers, from 23 Polish farmers and entrepreneurs, in 4 regions.

To analyse the demand side of the phenomena, author carried out the survey on a representative group of Poles (CATI method).

The results of the survey show that it is desire among customers to have regional goods in the offer of a gas station store. One may observe an increasing interest in the traditional and regional products and the willingness to pay for them.

Full paper

This article deals with the subject of regional food product marking and new ways of distribution. The principal aim of the article is to present changes in the accessibility of regional products understood as introducing them into trade formats in which they have not previously occurred. The primary aim of the article is to present a case study of regional goods sales at gas stations
as an example of a new distribution channel for these products. The secondary aim is to present the situation of food producers from Wielkopolska in terms of significant indications provided for regional food products.

Agriculture and the food industry have occupied a unique place in the Polish economy over many years. Referring to report data prepared, commissioned by BGŻ BNP PARIBAS¹, agriculture is responsible for a total of around 7% of GDP and a considerably higher percentage of employment. The food industry receives public administration support at the national and EU level as well as numerous non-governmental organizations. One of the important forms of the support obtained is the institutional promotion of food. This promotion can be deemed as the involvement of public institutions in the promotion of a brand or product category taking various forms for example, including quality certificate awards. The awarding of "regional marks" increases the competitiveness of products and it is an important element which influence customer behavior (Gulbicka 2014).

The promotion of Polish food is handled by many state institutions as well as industry organizations, foundations and associations including the Institute for Market, Consumption and Economic Research, Polish Agency for Enterprise Development, and the Polish Chamber of Commerce.²

FoodBiz and marking

The author of this article is a member of an international project entitled "FoodBiz - University and business learning for new employability paths in food and gastronomy". FoodBiz is an international project aimed at integrating the academic community with enterprises from the food sector including local farmers, restaurateurs and food producers. As part of the project, a workshop was organized in Poznań on 26.06.2018, the aim of which was to diagnose the needs of local entrepreneurs. There were local representatives from Wielkopolska including FMCG producers (e.g. Xawery Miodowy, Chias), food producers (e.g. Grodzki cheese, Inna Piekarnia, Grysczeniówka) and law making representatives among the invited guests. Two conclusions were convergent with the subject of the article:

- There are no characteristic products for Wielkopolska. This situation is perceived by food producers sector representation, both as a negative phenomenon (lack of unambiguous recognition of the region as is the case, for example, of Oscypek cheese and the Podhale region), and an opportunity to use a kind of carte blanche to promote the product.

- There are too many unreliable certifications. At the moment there are too many certificates, markings and contests to guarantee the quality and regional character of a given product. The food producers gathered during the workshop indicate the need to create one official certificate confirming the regional character of the product.

Ideally, a reliable certificate should be issued only by a local government unit as a solution.

In order to verify how products originating from Wielkopolska 'compare' to regional products from other regions of Poland, comparison was carried out using the "Wielkopolska and the rest of the country" method. It is based on the list of traditional products published by The Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development in Poland and on the basis of other accredited, related titles such as "Quality and tradition". These two institutions providing the marking were chosen mainly due to the authenticity of the publication body.

List of Traditional Products

The List of Traditional Products, published by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, is an example of the implementation of the quality policy in the Community (Quality Policy)³. It is a list of products whose quality or unique features and properties result from the use of traditional production methods. It was created under the Act of 17 December 2004 pertaining to the registration and protection of names and designations of agricultural products and foodstuffs and on traditional products (methods used for at least 25 years are considered traditional). Table 1a presents a summary of products entered into the list, broken down by individual voivodeships. In addition, table 1b presents the breakdown of products originating from Wielkopolska by categories.

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¹ A reference to the report: http://promoczajazywnosci.pl/index.html
² A reference to the report: http://promoczajazywnosci.pl/index.html
³ https://www.gov.pl/rolnictwo/produkty-regionalne-i-tradycyjne1
Table 1a
Products included in the list of traditional products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line no.</th>
<th>Voivodeship</th>
<th>The number of products included in the list of traditional products - in total</th>
<th>The size of the voivodeship in ha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Podkarpackie</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>1 784 576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Małopolskie</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1 518 279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lubelskie</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>1 398 789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pomorskie</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>1 831 034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Śląskie</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>1 233 309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Łódzkie</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1 821 895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Małopolskie</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>3 555 847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Wielkopolskie</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>2 582 650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Świętokrzyskie</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>1 171 050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Kujawsko-pomorskie</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1 797 134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lubelskie</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2 512 246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Podlaskie</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2 018 702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Opolskie</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>941 187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Warmińsko-mazurskie</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2 417 347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Zachodniopomorskie</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2 289 248</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study based on BGŻ BNP PARIBAS report and GUS¹.

Table 1b.
Products originating from Wielkopolska by categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voivodeship</th>
<th>The number of products included in the list of traditional products - in total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wielkopolskie</td>
<td>Fresh meat and meat products: 33  Ready meals and dishes: 20  Beverages (alcoholic and non-alcoholic): 10  Nuts, seeds, cereals, vegetables and fruits (processed or not): 7  Bakery and confectionery: 6  Oils and fats (butter, margarine, etc.): 6  Cheese and other dairy products: 6  Honey: 2  Other products: 2  Fishery products, including fish: 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study based on BGŻ BNP PARIBAS report.

Wielkopolska is in eighth place in the regional ranking in terms of the number of products entered into the List of Traditional Products - there are 93 products. An additional column with the size of the voivodeship in hectares is attached in table 1a. The presented data show that Wielkopolska is located in the middle of the voivodeship table and the number of entered products is not directly proportional to the area of voivodeship. The most numerous category of products are fresh meat and meat products (e.g. Rokitnicka Juniper sausage), ready meals and dishes (czernina), beverages (alcoholic and non-alcoholic, e.g. beer from Bojanów).

Quality Tradition

Another notable system of regional food marking is the 'Quality Tradition' system, which by the decision of the Minister of Agriculture and Rural Development from June 2007 is considered as a national food quality system1. This system is used to distinguish high-quality food products, including traditional products, and consists of three pillars - three product marking systems: Protected Designation of Origin, Protected Geographical Indication, and Guaranteed Traditional Specialty. Products with the Protected Designation of Origin mark are of outstanding quality directly related to the area in which they are produced. This marking is awarded by the European Commission. The domain of such products is the fact that all raw materials come from a given geographical area, all production takes place within one area, and the quality of the products exceeds the remaining products in the category. Presently, 9 products are registered; however, there is no product from Wielkopolska. Table 2 contains a list of products with the Protected Designation of Origin mark.

The second designation under the title 'Quality Tradition' is the Protected Geographical Indication marking, which is awarded to products whose single production stage at least takes place in the defined geographical area. Currently, 18 Polish products are registered, including two from Wielkopolska. Table 3 contains a list of products bearing the Protected Geographical Indication marking.

The third designation awarded by the "Jakość Tradycja" (Quality Tradition) is the Gwarantowana Tradycyjna Specjalność (Traditional Specialty Guaranteed) mark. The products so marked are made from a specific raw material, they are distinguished from the competition and their traditional character results from the use of traditional raw materials, recipe or technology. According to the regulation of the European Parliament and the EU Council (1151/2012), a "traditional" product should have at least 30 years of proven history and market presence. Table 4 contains a list of products with the Gwarantowana Tradycyjna Specjalność mark.

Summarizing the above statements, products from the Wielkopolska region can be found both on the list of traditional products and on the list of products marked with Protected Geographical and Traditional Specialty Guaranteed mark. Table 5 contains a summary of the share of products from Wielkopolska in individual product lists with markings.

The author of this article carried out market research in order to look at the subject of regional products from the demand side. In the month of June 2018 shopping preferences of Poles were examined. The study was carried out using the CAWI internet interview technique on a nationwide, representative sample of adult Poles2 (N=603). Research shows that almost 60% of respondents eagerly buy regional products regardless of the format of the store (15% of responses for definitely yes, 44% for probably yes). The distribution of responses is presented in Table 6. While answering the question about purchasing regional products, 15% of the respondents answered "definitely yes", while 44% answered "probably yes", which in total gives Top2Boxes results at 59%. As a result of the nature of the article and the author’s scientific interest during the study in question, they were also asked about the purchase of regional products at gas stations. Table 7 contains a summary of the response to the question: Would you buy regional products if they were available at gas stations (e.g. juices from regional producers, local craft beers, healthy snacks)?

The study shows that definitely over 50% of respondents would be happy to buy regional products at gas stations. 15% of respondents answered "definitely yes", while 40% answered "probably yes", which in total gives Top2Boxes results at 55%.

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1 http://wwwproduktyregionalne.pl/jakosc.html

2 The shares for the following characteristics of respondents were checked: gender, age, place of residence in order to ensure the representativeness of the sample during the implementation. N=603. The study was commissioned and designed by the author and carried out by the ARC Rynek i Opinia research agency.
Table 2
List of products with the Protected Designation of Origin mark.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line no.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Production region (Voivodeship = Woj.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bryndza podhalańska (cheese)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Osypek (cheese)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Redykołka (cheese)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Wiśnia nadwiślanska (cherry)</td>
<td>Woj. świętokrzyskie and mazowieckie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Podkarpacki Miód Spadziowy (honey)</td>
<td>Woj. podkarpackie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Miód z Sejneńszczyzn/Łożdziej (honey)</td>
<td>Woj. podlaskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Fasola wrzawska (beans)</td>
<td>Woj. podkarpackie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Fasola „Piękny Jaś” z Doliny Dunajca (beans)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Karp zatorski (carp)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own own study based on ‘Quality Tradition’ list.

Table 3
List of products with the Protected Geographical mark.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line no.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Production region (Voivodeship = Woj.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Cebularz lubelski (bake)</td>
<td>Woj. lubelskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Wielkopolski smażony (fried cheese)</td>
<td>Woj. wielkopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Koryckiński swojski (homemade)</td>
<td>Woj. podlaskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kiełbasa liściańska (sausage)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Miód wzrosowy z Borów Dolnośląskich (heather honey)</td>
<td>Woj. dolnośląskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Miód drahimski (honey)</td>
<td>Woj. zachodniopomorskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Miód kurpiowski (honey)</td>
<td>Woj. mazowieckie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Andruty kaliskie (wafers)</td>
<td>Woj. wielkopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Rogal świętomarcini (croissant)</td>
<td>Woj. wielkopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Kołocz jałki (cake)</td>
<td>Woj. opolskie, jałki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Chleb prążnicki (bread)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Obwarzanek krakowski (bagel)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Truskawka kaszubska (strawberry)</td>
<td>Woj. pomorskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Jabłka grojeckie (apples)</td>
<td>Woj. mazowieckie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Jabłka jałkie (apples)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Suska sechloska (plum)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Śliwka szydłowska (plum)</td>
<td>Woj. świętokrzyskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Fasola korczyńska (beans)</td>
<td>Woj. świętokrzyskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Jagnięcina podhalańska (lamb)</td>
<td>Woj. małopolskie and jałki</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own own study based on ‘Quality Tradition’ list.
Table 4
List of products with the Traditional Specialty Guaranteed mark.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line no.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Production region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pierekaczewnik (bake)</td>
<td>Woj. podlaskie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Meads: półtorak, dwójniak, trójniak and czwórniak</td>
<td>whole of Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kabanosy (sausage)</td>
<td>whole of Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kiełbasa jałowcowa (Juniper sausage)</td>
<td>whole of Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kiełbasa myśliwska (Hunter sausage)</td>
<td>whole of Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Olej rydzowy (Grain oil)</td>
<td>Woj. wielkopolskie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own own study based on ‘Quality Tradition’ list.

Table 5
List of products with a marking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>List of traditional products</th>
<th>Protected Designation Of Origin mark</th>
<th>Protected Geographical mark</th>
<th>Traditional Specialty Guaranteed mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wielkopolska</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1743</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share</td>
<td>5,4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11,1%</td>
<td>83,3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The response „Whole of Poland” was also added to the Wielkopolska region
Source: own study based on ‘Quality Tradition’ list.

Table 6
Purchase of regional products - general overview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Percentage response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably yes</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult to state</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably no</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely no</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own own study based on ‘Quality Tradition’ list.
### Table 7
**Purchase of regional products at gas stations - research study.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably yes</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult to state</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather no</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely no</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *own study based on the results of the research.*

### Table 8
**Purchase at gas stations - research study.**

**Q1: Have you used the store, catering facility, WC and seating places in the gas station in the past month.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Q2: What was the direct reason for you visiting the gas station.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of gas</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using the WC</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of catering items (e.g. hot dog)</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of goods (e.g. beer)</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle wash</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking the technical state of the vehicle</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social meeting</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *own study based on the results of the research.*

### Table 9
**Structure of the gas station sector in Poland between 2015-2018.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2018*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of gas stations</td>
<td>6591</td>
<td>6803</td>
<td>6835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PKN Orlen</td>
<td>1749</td>
<td>1766</td>
<td>1778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BP</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lotos (including Lotos Optima)</td>
<td>476 (194)</td>
<td>487 (205)</td>
<td>489 (203)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shell</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CircleK (Statoil)</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amic (Lukoil)</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent operators (including stations in independent operators’ networks with a common logo)</td>
<td>2750 (818)</td>
<td>2900 (900)</td>
<td>2895 (986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other remaining</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10
The structure of average retail prices in Poland in 2016 and 2017.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Retail price</th>
<th>Excise</th>
<th>VAT</th>
<th>Fuel surcharge</th>
<th>Margin</th>
<th>Net price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pb95 Unleaded gasoline</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for year 2016</td>
<td>4,34</td>
<td>1,54</td>
<td>0,81</td>
<td>0,13</td>
<td>0,13</td>
<td>1,73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average 11 months 2017</td>
<td>4,58</td>
<td>1,54</td>
<td>0,86</td>
<td>0,13</td>
<td>0,13</td>
<td>1,92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diesel</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for year 2016</td>
<td>4,12</td>
<td>1,17</td>
<td>0,77</td>
<td>0,29</td>
<td>0,08</td>
<td>1,81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average 11 months 2017</td>
<td>4,42</td>
<td>1,17</td>
<td>0,83</td>
<td>0,29</td>
<td>0,11</td>
<td>2,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LPG gas</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for year 2016</td>
<td>1,80</td>
<td>0,38</td>
<td>0,34</td>
<td>0,09</td>
<td>0,18</td>
<td>0,82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average 11 months 2017</td>
<td>2,08</td>
<td>0,38</td>
<td>0,39</td>
<td>0,09</td>
<td>0,19</td>
<td>1,04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Image 1
A glimpse at the “Regional pantry”

Source: Author
### Table 11

**List of products, at the Spiżarnia Regionów (Regional Pantry) stand**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line no.</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mushrooms in jars</td>
<td>Preserves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Meat in jars</td>
<td>Meat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Wafers</td>
<td>Confectionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cupcake with seeds</td>
<td>Confectionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Oatmeal cookies</td>
<td>Confectionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bee honey</td>
<td>Honey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Pressed juice</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Pressed juice – O! own jams</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Jam</td>
<td>Preserves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Craft beer</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Highly mineralized water</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Orangeade</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Craft beer</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Juice - concentrate</td>
<td>Drinks and juices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: own study.*

### Table 12

**The schedule of the „Spiżarnia Regionów“ project.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>September 2017</td>
<td>Spiżarnia Regionów pilot project at 400 facilities, 4 voivodeships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring 2018</td>
<td>Expansion of the number of stations by another 150 facilities and subsequent voivodeships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 2018</td>
<td>Spiżarnia Regionów pilot project in 590 facilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: own study.*

### Table 13

**Sources of information used in implementing innovations.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competitors</td>
<td>4,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal sources of information (e.g. employees, including management)</td>
<td>4,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benchmarking, that is, copying solutions used in other countries</td>
<td>3,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic network information (Internet and databases)</td>
<td>3,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers</td>
<td>3,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial condition of the company (bad or good)</td>
<td>3,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairs and exhibitions</td>
<td>3,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences, professional press</td>
<td>2,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>2,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppliers of goods</td>
<td>2,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppliers of equipment, materials and software</td>
<td>2,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consulting companies</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities / research institutes</td>
<td>1,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology development support organizations (incubators, chambers, associations, etc.)</td>
<td>1,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The respondents had the opportunity to answer on a scale of 1-5, where 1 - is irrelevant at all, and 5 - very significant. Source: own study based on research.*
The discussed study of a representative group of Poles was relatively extensive, and from the point of view of this article and the research in the form of searching for new sales channels for regional products. The study also asked about the use of a broad range of the gas station commercial facility, and more specifically the immediate reasons for visiting a station. The results are presented in Table 8.

The research demonstrates that 89% of respondents benefited from gas stations during the last month and 28% purchased goods. Despite the changing function of gas stations as a commercial facility, the main reason for visiting this type of retail outlet is the purchase of fuels for 91% of respondents. However, what should be noted is that about 1/3 of people visit the sanitary infrastructure and make purchases at the store.

Gas station sector in Poland

The gas station sector in Poland consists of about 6835 facilities (as at 31.03.2018) and the number of gas stations in the last seven years (2011-2018) has fluctuated on a relatively even level. The leader in terms of the number of petrol stations is PKN Orlen, followed by BP and Lotos. Table 9 presents the estimated number of gas stations by individual operators. Independent gas stations (2,895 facilities) play an important role due to the number of facilities.

It should be emphasized that the gas station margin constitutes 2.8% of the retail selling price of Pb95 unleaded gasoline and 2.5% of the retail selling price of diesel. By comparison, the sale of one cup of coffee is over 4 PLN net profit and the liter of Pb95 gasoline sold is only PLN 0.13 (Suszyńska, Zawadzki 2017, p.24). What is more, the gas station segment as a part of trade is becoming more and more vital. The customers’ shopping mission is changing. The gas station store is already considered as a type of typical convenience store, a kind of place for meetings and everyday shopping. There are two main issues that help in its purpose: the change of shopping habits and the statutory prohibition of trading on Sunday (recent government regulations).

PKN Orlen is the visible market leader in terms of the number of gas stations with 1778 facilities (over 1200 of its own, others under franchise agreements), which accounts for 26% of the share in the number of gas stations. It is worth noting that the second placed network (BP) has ‘only’ 534 properties, which accounts for 7.81%. During the reading of this article, 400,000 liters of fuel, 3 thousand hot dogs and 2.2 thousand coffees was sold at PKN Orlen stations

Polski Koncern Naftowy ORLEN was established at the end of the last century as a result of the state merger of CPN - Centrala Produktów Naftowych with Petrochemia Płock. PKN ORLEN is a State Treasury company, and has been continuously recognized as the most valuable Polish brand for the last nine years. It is included in the list of the largest companies in the world in the „Fortune 500” magazine as the only Polish company. PKN ORLEN has been listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange for 17 years as part of the WIG20 and WIG30 indexes and the Respect Index, which brings together socially responsible companies. At European level, PKN Orlen manages six refineries and a network of 2,700 gas stations in Central Europe: Poland (PKN ORLEN), Germany (Star), Czech Republic (Benzina) and Lithuania (Ventus).

When writing about PKN Orlen and the gas station operating under this brand, the idea of selling should be mentioned from the point of view of product sales in the O! Shop store, which are characterized by an extensive

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12. https://www.orlen.pl
Polish farmers and are more than 70 regional products (beer) are highly promoted. There where food products from regional "Regional pantry" at selected gas stations ORLEN has special shelves marked "Regional pantry" at selected gas stations. Such offer should be considered as a response to the current customer purchase needs. Currently, products at 590 stations, made by local producers are available: regional beer, juices and beverages from Polish fruit, honey, local pastries, and snacks. Products that are part of the interest in traditional, often original recipes from Polish producers are promoted. The project is implemented in cooperation with the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and the Agricultural Market Agency. As part of the store, special shelves have been designated and special stands have been created namely furnishing referring to traditional decor at the facilities with a larger store area. In addition, the purchase of products in the discussed offer is additionally rewarded as part of the Orlen loyalty program. Image No. 1 shows an exemplary stand located at a petrol station in Wielkopolska, and Table 11 shows product specification.

The "Spieżarnia Regionów" project was launched as a pilot in September 2017 and was warmly welcomed by customers. The number of outlets with the offer being discussed increased and it is planned to introduce it to other facilities. Table 12 shows the schedule of the project.

PKN Orlen press releases and the growing number of gas stations in the "Spieżarnia Regionów" offer confirm that this project will be expanded within the group. Another example of a gas station network that has introduced regional products into its facilities is the Citronex network (gas station facilities are located in South West Poland). Customers can buy, among others, fresh tomatoes (and whole crates), bananas or cold pressed juices from local suppliers at the Citronex gas stations. The solutions used by PKN Orlen, as a leader in terms of the number of gas stations and as the owner of a valued brand, are being emulated by other gas station networks. In the near future, the "Spieżarnia Regionów" solution will also be implemented in other gas station networks.

Benchmarking, a practice used in management, consisting in comparing and implementing best practices from competing enterprises, is mentioned as one of the main sources of innovation among companies in the gas station sector. In March 2018 the author conducted research among gas station experts, which indicate that the three most important sources of information used in implementing innovation are: competitors, internal sources of information (e.g. management), and benchmarking. Table 13D shows the distribution of responses to the question about sources of information.

Conclusions

The research shows that Poles are eager to buy regional products and look for them in places where they have never been available i.e. at gas stations. Both research results and the development of the "Spieżarnia Regionów" concept show that gas stations will be an important sales channel for regional products. The pilot program "Spieżarnia Regionów" at Orlen gas stations proved to be a success, and regional products are more and more widely available at the gas stations of the Polish concern. Considering the specificity of the sector and benchmarking as a method for changing the offer, it can be assumed that the remaining operators of the station network will introduce regional products to the offer shortly. Conclusion: regional goods are being chosen increasingly and desired by customers of gas stations in Poland.

14 https://www.orlen.pl

14 Survey among experts from the gas station sector (station owners, decision-makers of fuel concerns) carried out during the PetroTrend Petrol Forum 2018.
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Understanding Chinese place branding from government perspective: A case study of Chongqing

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UK

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China

Abstract

Due to the complexity and multi-disciplinary nature of place branding, there is no universal explanation and theory accepted commonly with decade commitments and research. This research aims to find answers and explanations that at least partly answer how place branding is conceptualised in China. Particularly, similarities and differences of Chinese place branding are presented in some research, however, theoretical foundation is still vague and weak since it either directly apply marketing theory or branding theory to local context or only focus on practices perspective such as mega events. Hence, this research try to merge this research gap and provide a path to better understand place branding. Research shows that place branding in China is influence and largely controlled by government. Therefore, it is reasonable and meaningful to find what place branding is from government perspective. Adopting a case study approach and interview as data collection method, this paper, firstly, answers why the government conduct place branding and how they conduct a place branding campaign. Then further conclude what is place branding from a government perspective. Special case is analysed as in reality, place branding has multi-aspects and government cannot fulfil every function.
Monitoring changes of destination image representations through mega sports events

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Abstract

This study highlights the advantages of a continuous and long-term monitoring of the influences of a mega-sport event on the autonomous and organic change agents (Gunn 1997) reflecting the image of a destination in the digital and public information space. This paper outlines the use of a Web intelligence portal for continuous monitoring of media news and social media coverage in the context of destination positioning (Scharl et al. 2016). The system relies on the webLyzard Web intelligence platform technology (Scharl et al. 2017; www.weblyzard.com) which aggregates, analyses and visualizes in real-time online sources like Twitter, Facebook, Google+ and YouTube as well as news channels, Fortune 1000 companies among others. This system showcased in the past applications such as UNEP Live Web Intelligence (unep.eco.research.net, online) developed for the United Nations Environment Programme, and the semantic search of the Climate Resilience Toolkit (toolkit.climate.gov, online) developed for NOAA, the U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration.

Marcus et al. (2011) demonstrated the usefulness of tracking user-generated content (TwitInfo) for event exploration (in this case: soccer game). The webLyzard platform goes far beyond that functionality. 1. It covers online media news as well as user-generated content of social media platforms. 2. It extracts factual and affective knowledge. 3. It explores contextualized information spaces. 4. It visualizes context along multiple semantic dimensions, for example relations among named entities based on co-occurrence patterns. 5. It includes the webLyzard Stakeholder Dialogue and Opinion Model (WYSDOM), which evaluates the degree of association between an organization with desired topics considered important and in line with evolving communication goals (Scharl et al. 2017).

Events leverage corporate brand development through sponsorship instruments in a similar way to destinations contributing to brand positioning and promotion. Cultural and sports
events are considered instrumental to this field of strategic destination marketing. A selection of published studies about the impact on destination image and reputation emphasizes this relevance: the Olympic Games in Beijing 2008 (Lai 2018), the Rugby World Cup in New Zealand 2011 (Werner, Dickson & Hyde 2016), The FIFA World Soccer Championship South Africa 2010 (Knott, Fyall & Jones 2015), European Cultural Capitals (de Rosa, Bocci & Dryjanska 2018 online), Marathon in the USA in 2009 (Chen, Ji & Funk 2014).

We propose using this technology for a use case like the 2018 FIFA World Soccer Championship in Russia. In contrast to concurrent (with the event duration) or post-hoc study approaches, a continuous media monitoring allows for longer time horizons and for tracking of relevant information sources, geographically and contextually. Theoretically, this allows for optimized public outreach and targeted interventions before, during and after an event. Since this showcase is not shared with stakeholders involved into the FIFA 2018, we cannot assume such a built-in feedback loop. However, this piece of research will follow the media representations for Russia and the involved venue cities over the period of May to November 2018 and exhibit the major positioning shifts together with tracking their causes and origins.

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