WELCOME from the Vice-Chancellor

Welcome to Middlesex University London and to the Inaugural Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA).

London is one of the world’s strongest brands for tourism, employment, business and education. Here in Barnet, London’s largest borough, we have the bright lights, theatres, shopping, historic sites and world-leading branding organisations on our doorstep, but without the expense and crowds of central London. And the London green belt is just a stone’s throw from our campus.

For more than 130 years Middlesex University and our founding institutions have been pioneers of professional education, innovation and creative practice. Today we are a global university with 18,000 students studying at our Hendon campus and 20,000 with our partners and campuses around the world. We are driven by the difference we make to people’s lives; open-minded, progressive, passionate about our vibrant diversity and embracing the new possibilities of technological, economic and social change.

Although our roots are in London we are truly international, ranked 109th among the world’s universities for our global outlook. Our founding institutions were drivers of teaching quality, industrial innovation, creative arts and design, strong foundations for our status today as a modern university ranked first in London and among the top 150 universities in the world under 50 years old.

Middlesex University is at the forefront of producing the next generation of skilled professionals, inventors and entrepreneurs, a university connected to the world in the most connected city on the globe, a pre-eminent knowledge hub and a cultural powerhouse. As the UK prepares to leave the European Union, London’s position as one of the world’s truly global cities, a city which is open, welcoming and cosmopolitan, will not change.

I therefore welcome the Inaugural Annual Conference of the IPBA, bringing together the success of earlier events in Aosta, Beijing, Cardiff, Corfu, Macau, Poznan, Stockholm and, of course, London. Our commitment at Middlesex to transformative learning and global research impact sits well with hosting such an important and prestigious event. We are proud to host you and enjoy the conference!

Professor Tim Blackman

Vice-Chancellor, Middlesex University
WELCOME from the Conference Chair and Local Organising Committee

In 2009, I and the Co-Chair of this Conference, Charles Dennis, invited academics and practitioners to the 1st International Colloquium on Place Marketing and Branding, held in London, UK. We are proud that the event has since become a series and eventually a forerunner component of this Inaugural Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA). Following that Colloquium, we commented that ‘In a world where the values and stability of our financial and work environments are threatened daily, one thing remains relatively stable through the years and even generations: our sense of place. The greater the chaos, the more the people seek security of the places that they know and trust – the place brands’ (Dennis and Melewar, 2010, p76). Those words were written in the context of economic chaos and downturn. In the intervening period, we have hosted the Colloquium on multiple occasions in the UK (mostly in London) and co-hosted with the University of the Valle d’Aosta in Italy. Many of the contributions have attempted to shed light on the how places can compete against growing competition in times of chaos and downturn (see, e.g., Melewar and Dennis, 2013). Place branding is in itself complex and chaotic due inter alia to the huge numbers of stakeholders and touchpoints (Dinnie, 2016).

Since the early colloquia, we have continued to explore the multitude of underlying dimensions of place brands (e.g., Melewar and Dennis, 2016; Dennis, Melewar and Mauri, 2016). Notwithstanding that the world economy may now be in better shape, chaos remains a central theme and continues as an often-unwelcome core dimension and context of place branding. We are delighted to bring our London/Aosta Colloquium under the wing of the IPBA whilst hoping for (yet not expecting) a little less chaos in the place branding environment!

Welcome to the Inaugural Annual Conference of the IPBA and to Middlesex University London. Enjoy the Conference!

Professor T C Melewar
Conference Chair
Middlesex University, London, UK

Also on behalf of:

Prof Charles Dennis
Conference Co-Chair
Middlesex University, London, UK

Prof Chiara Mauri
Doctoral Colloquium Chair
University of the Valle d’Aosta, Aosta, Italy

Dr Keith Dinnie
Local Organising Committee Chair
Middlesex University, London, UK

Dr Pantea Foroudi
Local Organising Committee Co-Chair
Middlesex University, London, UK

And the Local Organising Committee:
Cristina Fona
Elena Ageeva
References

The International Place Branding Association

The International Place Branding Association (IPBA) aims to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas around the theory and practice of place branding, linking the members of the international place branding community in a beneficial manner, bringing scholars and practitioners closer together and advancing the professionalization of the field. The establishment of IPBA in 2016 is a significant development in the field of place branding and the annual conference is the main vehicle to advance the aims of the association. The Inaugural conference organised by Middlesex University in London and its proceedings are a celebration of this development whilst building on the momentum it creates for the advancement of the discipline.

The conference stands on the shoulders of the collective success of the earlier International Colloquia on Place Brand Management (London and Aosta), the International Conference on Destination Branding and Marketing series (DBM Macau and Cardiff), the City Branding Symposia (Stockholm and Beijing), the Corfu Symposia on Managing & Marketing Places, and the Poznan Best Place Summit.

The members of the programme committee are the individuals that were involved in these past initiatives and the ones that have organised the conference tracks, programming and coordination of the submissions review processes for the 2016 inaugural conference, with the help of the local organizing committee at Middlesex University. We are all very much indebted to these fine colleagues and IPBA would sincerely like to thank them, as well as all the authors and delegates that have contributed.

On behalf of the IPBA Board,

Robert Govers

Chairman

www.placebranding.org
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The IPBA Board together with the IPBA Local Organising Committee would like to express their gratitude to all the people that have helped us during these months for the organization of the first IPBA conference.

First of all we would like to thank the Vice Chancellor of Middlesex University, Prof. Tim Blackman, the PVC Executive Dean, Anna Kyprianou and the Dean of the Business School, Prof. Joshua Castellino that have made possible for Middlesex University to host this inaugural conference. Secondly we would like to express our sincere thanks and appreciation to the Conference Scientific Committee for its work and dedication: Per-Olof Berg, Erik Braun, Charles Dennis, Keith Dinnie, Don Dioko, Hong Fan, Magdalena Florek, João R. Freire, Rich Harrill, Andrea Insch, Mihalis Kavaratzis, Chiara Mauri, TC Melewar, Nigel Morgan, Annette Pritchard, Heather Skinner and Sebastian Zenker. Special thanks also to the keynote speakers Mihalis Kavaratzis, Per Olof Berg, Bill Baker and Marit Høvik Hartmann, all the track chairs, Magdalena Florek, Hong Fan, Chiara Mauri, Mihalis Kavaratzis, Leonardo (Don) Dioko, Rich Harrill and all the reviewers that helped us during the review process: Robert Govers, Martin Boisen, Joao Freire, Sebastian Zenker, Massimo Giovanardi, Cecilia Pasquinelli, Andrea Lucarelli, Andrea Insch, Gary Warnaby, Greg Kerr, Anette Therkelsen, Alex Deffner, Jasper Eshuis, Eduardo Oliveira, Efe Sevin, Pawel Surowiec, Mihalis Kavaratzis, Jaroslaw Górski, Karolina Janiszewska, Ubaldino Couto, Veronica Lam, Elizabeth Cheng, Ali Bavik, Rich Harrill, Lancy Mac, Amy So, Jordi de San Eugenio Vela, Erik Braun, Eduardo Oliveira, Magdalena Florek, Ares Kalandides, Gary Warnaby, Maria Lichrou, Chiara Rabbiosi, Liu Yanping, Liu Xinxin, Isabella Maggioni and Chiara Mauri.

A big thank you to all the administrative staff of Middlesex University that worked with us to ensure you had a great event: Nicola Skinner, the students and GAAs and all the staff of the Middlesex Online Store. Finally, we thank the staff of the Hendon Hall Hotel for their hospitality and assistance.

The IPBA Board and

The IPBA Local Organising Committee
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<td><strong>Welcome</strong> – Committee Boardroom CG219</td>
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<td><strong>Keynote Mihalis Kavaratzis</strong> – Committee Boardroom CG219</td>
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<td>11:00-11:40 The impact of the 2015 refugee crisis on the international place brand of Hungary – Anna Maikova</td>
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<td>11:40-12:10 Expressions of creativity in the landscape and the role of place marketing: The regional unity of Magnesia, Greece - Sotiria Katsafadou, Georgia Lalou, Alex Deffner</td>
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<td>13:30-14:10 Tourist branding of the Colombian Caribbean: Caribbean sun or Andean culture? - Narcis Bassols</td>
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<td>14:10-14:50 Branding postcolonial nations: Consensus and disputes in Latin America - Felix Lossio Chavez</td>
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<td>14:50-15:30 Establishing external validity for consumer-based place brand equity scales: Mission impossible or a matter of approach? - Thomas Leicht</td>
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<td><strong>Session A</strong> – Pembroke 1</td>
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<td><strong>A1. Resident's participation and loyalty in place branding</strong></td>
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<td><em>What are the predictors of residents' loyalty to city and neighborhood?</em> – Shaked Gilboa and Eugene D. Jaffe</td>
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<td><em>Assessing participation in studies of place identity</em> – Jessica Oliver, Greg Kerr and Rodney J. Clarke</td>
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<td><em>Citizen involvement, place branding and mega events – insights from Expo host-cities</em> – Marta Hereźniak and Magdalena Florek</td>
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<td><em>Authentic lifestyle as place identity tool</em> – Natasha Grand</td>
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<td><em>Until the logo do us part: An assessment of residents' response to a city brand logo re-design</em> – Virimai Mugobo</td>
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<td><strong>B1. Nation &amp; city branding, sustainability and social progress</strong></td>
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<td><em>Sustainability justifications in nation branding communication</em> – Meri Frig</td>
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<td><em>Entrepreneurship and social progress: A configurational approach to nation branding</em> – Zhongqi Jin and Richard Lynch</td>
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<td><em>Exploring the nature and dimensions of the social responsibility image of countries: A qualitative study</em> – Cristina Fona, TC Melewar, Charles Dennis and Keith Dinnie</td>
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<td><em>City branding: A tool for sustainable urban development</em> – Dalila Brosto</td>
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<td><em>Place branding and tourist places: Suggestions for a performative approach</em> – Chiara Rabbiosi</td>
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### Session C - Hogarth

**C1. Place branding counter-narratives and image restoration strategies**

*Challenges in marketing and branding of conflict-ridden destinations: Istanbul as a case study* – Erdinç Çakmak

*Redefining Cali: Cultivating a brand in post-conflict Colombia* – Jennifer Ashley McDevitt

*Exploring the dialogic potential of selected African nation brands* – Robert E. Hinson and Ellis L.C. Osabutey

*Counter narratives in place and city branding and their influence on brand management* – Marianne Wolff Lundholt, Ole Have Jørgensen and Marie Claire Andsager

*Chinese and American “First Lady diplomacy” and national branding* – Nina Wang

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### Session A – Pembroke 1

**A2. Regional branding**

*Desperately seeking regional development: The potential role of place branding in EU Smart Specialisation Strategy* – Chiara Rinaldi and Alessio Cavicchi

*Branding a functional region: Lessons from the Southern Randstad* – Gert-Jan Hospers and Wouter-Jan Verheul

*Discursive construction issues and interest by stakeholders in two regional level place marketing projects in Eastern Finland* – Juha Halme

*How does place brand construct? The case of longevity in Okinawa, Japan* – Sayaka Toyokawa and Toshio Takagi

*A tale of two rivers – How “region-based tourism” promotes the enhancement of a place’s cultural creative industry* – Randy Tung-Jung Hsiao

### Session B – Sheridan

**B2. City branding, culture, heritage and diversity**

*Place branding and cultural policy: An exploratory analysis* – Giannina Warren and Keith Dinnie

*Assessment of the Eskisehir 2013 Turkish World Capital of culture on the national press in the framework of city marketing* – Bayram Karakullukcu and Halil Semih Kimzan

*Cultural event and its effect on city image: The case of Constantine the Capital of the Arab Culture 2015* – Kamila Ghidouche Aït-Yahia and Faouzi Ghidouche

*How super-diverse cities position ethnic diversity in their place brand* – Warda Belabas,
**Jasper Eshuis and Peter Scholten**

*Branding Beijing as mega city through its vibrant start-up community* – Hong Fan and Anastasiya Poshinova

**Session C - Hogarth**

**C2. Nation branding, made-in and consumption**

*Gingando outside Brazil: The meaning of the consumption of brazilian capoeira in Germany* – Mariana Bussab Porto-da-Rocha and Vivian Iara Strehlau

*Communication strategies used to promote a made-in and ‘Terroir’ Culture – The Case of France* – Anne-Flore Maman Larraufie and Victor Ulrich

*The role of place brands in the development and marketing of cultural goods: A proposal for cross-regional examination of Japanese contemporary design projects* – Adam Johns

*Co-production in place marketing as the basis for tourism development* – Aleksandra Sazhina

*The effect of design-driven innovation for place branding: Evidence from Murano glass industry in Venice* – Eleonora Pantano and Charles Dennis

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<th>14:45-15:15</th>
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**Session – Pembroke 1**

**A3. Nation branding process**

*Causality or coincidence? An audit of Japan's nation branding* – Sven Palys and Christopher Pokarier

*Building national identity through the process of nation branding: The case of Cyprus* – Selen Mesutoglu

*Innovative approaches to stakeholder engagement: Branding Tasmania* – Laura Ripoll Gonzalez

*Branding and marketing strategies for combatting stereotypes and negative perceptions towards countries* – Eli Avraham

*The contribution of moving images to the building of nations as brands* – Shashwat Gupta, Suraksha Gupta, Pantea Foroudi and Len Tiu Wright

**Session – Sheridan**

**B3. City branding, marketing and communication practices**

*Indirect city-branding through the hyperreal representation of the city in advertising – The example of Venezia* – Anne-Flore Maman Larraufie

*Place branding in China. An analysis of 10-year TV advertisements for cities and*
tourism destinations – Chunying Wen and Liping A.Cai

Are cities communicating a consistent image? Analysis of the congruence between place and destination personality – Sara Vinyals-Mirabent and José Fernández-Cavia

Strategic marketing plans for nearby, but not similar, cities: A comparative analysis of Larissa and Kozani in Greece – Alex Deffner, Eva Psatha, Theodore Metaxas, Nikolaos Karachalis and Kleanthis Sirakoulis

Visual brand identity of the Polish towns and cities – Anna Adamus-Matuszyńska and Piotr Dzik

Session - Hogarth

C3. Stakeholders’ commitment and perceptions in place branding

Towards a new conceptualization of Place Branding through the analysis of Ambassadors’ networks – Cátia Filipa Cerqueira Rebelo

Participatory place branding, a delicate ‘business’. An analysis of the branding of Arctic Kiruna – Susanna Heldt Cassel and Andrea Lucarelli

Residents’ commitment to the city of residence as a consequence of city marketing – the case of City of Ljubljana – Katja Udir Mišič and Klement Podnar

Exploring residents’ perceptions of ‘a good place to live’ - value propositions and value-in-use in the place context – Lisa Källström and Jens Hultman

Place hospitality: A way to understand and improve place marketing approaches – Camille Chamard and Christophe Alaux

16:30-17:00  Keynote Marit Høvik Hartmann – Pembroke 1

20:00-22:30  Gala Dinner – Pembroke 1

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<td><strong>A4. Nation and city branding and public diplomacy</strong></td>
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<td>Selective information sharing of grassroots diplomats in Macao: Implications for public diplomacy 2.0 — Suh-hee Choi and Dong-min Lee</td>
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<td>Role of the state actors in the nation branding of the Czech Republic — Markéta Dianová</td>
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<td>The role of the ambassador or high commissioner in developing national interest through place brand promotion — Barry Tomalin</td>
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<td><strong>On the role of public diplomacy in Beijing branding: Dilemma and prospects</strong> - Ou Ya and Xiong Wei</td>
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<td>Doha as centre of Qatar’s public diplomacy policy - Alberto Priego</td>
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<td><strong>B4. Destination image studies and communication</strong></td>
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<td>The influence of place of residence on destination image: A case study of Czech images on London — Barbora Cherifi</td>
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<td>Destination image, event satisfaction and post-visit attitudes in event marketing. Results from a tourism experience — Giada Mainolfi and Vittoria Marino</td>
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<td><strong>Promising the dream: The changing destination image of London through the effect of website place</strong> — Pantea Foroudi, Tugra Nazli Akarsu, Elena Ageeva, T.C. Melewar and Charles Dennis</td>
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<td>Communicate the right way: The effectiveness of different communication activities for destination branding — Sebastian Zenker, Erik Braun, Jasper Eshuis and Erik-Hans Klijn</td>
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<td>Soviet heritage as a tool for a tourist attraction — Marina Ochkovskaya</td>
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<td><strong>C4. Place branding and social media</strong></td>
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<td>Social media in place branding: A review — Sonya Hanna and Jennifer Rowley</td>
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<td><strong>Does a fresh coat of paint cover the cracks? A critical examination of the role of social media in Ontario, Canada’s city branding</strong> — Evan Cleave and Godwin Arku</td>
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<td>A5. Aspirational place branding and culture</td>
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<td>Aspirational place branding – a study of the strategic transformation of a city narrative - Cecilia Cassinger</td>
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<td>Imagination and engineering to create the reality of dreams. The branding of Chinese mega-cities – Emma Björner</td>
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<td>Politics of museum representations in postcolonial Chinese destinations – Carol X. Zhang and Nigel Morgan</td>
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<td>Multiple identities in place branding: Embracing transculturalism – Eva Maria Jernsand and Helena Kraff</td>
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<td>Falling in love with a city: A sensory place branding framework – Clarinda Rodrigues</td>
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<td>B5. Place brand architecture, positioning and attractiveness</td>
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<td>Explicating place architecture, brand identity and identification triad – Mohammad Mahdi Foroudi, John M.T. Balmer, Weifeng Chen and Pantea Foroudi</td>
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<td>The importance of brand architecture for the place brand management: The case of Orvieto (Italy) – Fabio Forlani and Simone Splendiani</td>
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<td>Place brand architecture optimization. The case of Aosta Valley – Chiara Mauri, Isabella Maggioni and Lorenzo Turci</td>
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<td>City-district divergence grid: A multi-level city brand positioning tool – Viriya Taecharungroj</td>
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<td>Place brand effect regarding attractiveness for companies: An empirical study – Renaud Vuignier</td>
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### Session C – Hogarth

**C5. Stakeholders’ engagement and perceptions in city branding**

- *Developing an inclusive city brand identity: Stakeholder engagement as tipping or balancing the scales of stakeholder input?* – Laura Reynolds and Nicole Koenig-Lewis
- *Place Branding through multiple stakeholders: Medellín (Colombia) and Barcelona (Spain), two successful comparable profile case studies on urban regeneration and city brand transformation* – Norberto Muñiz Martinez and Juan Carlos Belloso Gil
- *Medium-sized cities: The analysis of internal stakeholders’ perceptions with relationship marketing* – Christophe Alaux
- *Place branding: A student perspective of the Liverpool experience* – Joe McGrath and Peter Simcock
- *The strategic role of sport, through stakeholder engagement, for an emerging African city brand* – Janice Hemmonsby and Brendon Knott

### 14:45-15:15

**Coffee Break**

### 15:15-16:30

**Parallel sessions (round VI)**

**Session A – Pembroke 1**

**A6. Original contributions and reviews**

- *Faux destination brands and counterfeit goods: A phenomenological approach* – Leonardo (Don) A.N. Dioko, Rich Harrill and Amy S.I. So
- *Bollywood in the Alps: Nonwestern popcultural placemaking* – Szilvia Giymóthy
- *Defining and delimiting the place branding construct: A state of the art literature review* – Heather Skinner
- *Teaching city branding: Involving students through game-based learning* – Massimo Giovanardi, Andrea Lucarelli and Patrick L’Espoir Decosta
- *Cornerstones of success in city branding: Practitioners’ understanding from a comparative study of 12 European cities* – Teemu Moilanen

**Session B – Sheridan**

**B6. The impact of mega events on nation and place brands**

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DOCTORAL COLLOQUIUM
Countries recognize the importance of building a positive image in the digital space (Dinnie, 2015; Hanna and Rowley, 2015), but what if this image is affected by intensive negative media coverage of an expected condition, such as a refugee crisis? Research suggests the effect of the crisis on a country’s image depends on how the country has dealt with the crisis (Govers et al, 2016), but the exact consequence is an empirical question. This study examines the short and long-term effect of the 2015 European refugee crisis on the image of Hungary, which was disproportionally affected by the crisis due to its geographic location and political decisions. Due to these conditions, Hungary received more negative coverage than nearby countries, creating a natural experiment with treatment and control groups. The studied dataset includes around 50,000 randomly selected tweets in English collected via Twitter API in the period from March 2015 to March 2016. The image of Hungary is compared with Romania’s image (control group), which had not experienced the intensive international media coverage at the same time period. The analyzed events included the increased inflow of refugees and the accumulative response of Hungary to the crisis, including closing the border with neighboring countries.

The study supports the application of quantitative methods, such as the dictionary-based sentiment analysis of tweets, to the discipline of place branding. The sentiment analysis is conducted with the lexicon-based polarity dictionary SentiStrength (Thelwall et al, 2010); and the tweets are divided into three distinctive topics (tourism, refugee crisis, and miscellaneous) through the Latent Dirichlet Allocation (Blei et al, 2003). The tweets likely published by media organizations are excluded from the analysis because media tweets tend to have a higher negative sentiment (Soroka et al, 2015).

Results of the analysis show a significant increase in negative sentiment in tweets during the crisis (July-October, 2015) due to a high number of tweets about the refugee crisis (probability of a negative tweet is 22 percent higher). After the active stage of the crisis (past October 2015), the probability of a negative tweet is still significantly higher, although the magnitude is much smaller (2.3 percent higher). This result suggests there was some persistent effect of the crisis on the place brand of Hungary, although the amount of negative sentiment seemed to reduce dramatically after the crisis. Future research with longer panel data is required to measure the long-term effect more precisely.

References

Branding postcolonial nations: Consensus and disputes in Latin America

Felix Lossio Chavez
Newcastle University
25 Grosvenor Place, Jesmond, Newcastle Upon Tyne. NE2 2RD
Email: felixlossio@gmail.com; Tel: 07462286103

Specialized literature in the field of nation branding underlines that far beyond “advertising campaigns” nation branding must be understood as a component of a national policy (Anholt, 2008) or as an implicit cultural policy (Varga, 2013) that aims to produce a (consistent) narrative of the nation capable to engage both the citizens and the different stakeholders involved.

This goal, whilst of crucial relevance, is particularly challenging in contexts where the narrative of the nation is still constantly disputed. In broader terms, where rather than an imagined and consented community built from a homogeneous time-space (Anderson, 1983) what exists are dissimilar communities built from heterogeneous times and spaces, as Chatterjee (1993) has described for postcolonial nations.

Latin America, a region characterized by deep economic inequalities, cultural hybridism (Garcia-Canclini: 2001) and permanent political conflicts rooted in a colonial background is illustrative about this. In fact, recent nation branding strategies as the ones carried out in Peru (Marca Peru, 2011 - ongoing) and Colombia (La Respuesta es Colombia, 2012 - ongoing) have been simultaneously enthusiastically embraced and actively contested. While many businesses, stakeholders and common citizens have celebrated the brand’s aims and strategies; others have criticized them by intervening the logos or creating parodies that far from the original purposes evidence issues such as violence, corruption or racism. In other words, through “design activism” (Julier, 2011), they have disrupted the narratives suggested by the nation brands in the aim to highlight that these are “simulacrum”: images of something that doesn’t exist. (Baudrillard, 1994).

Considering this, this paper focuses on the nation brand “counter-campaigns” of Peru and Colombia and within them, analyses the promotion of alternative discursive frames from where to narrate the nation. Particularly, this paper asks why and how the nation brand narratives in my selected cases have been contested and how do these cases intervene the continuous symbolic battles of the (postcolonial) national identities. By answering these questions, my ultimate aim is to fill a gap in the field, which is the understanding of the particularities of nation branding in Latin America and, broadly, in postcolonial nations; which has not been sufficiently addressed by academic literature. Finally, by the exercise of dialoguing nation branding literature (Dinnie, 2008; Govers and Go, 2009; Ollins, 2011), with the postcolonial perspective (Said, 2003; Bhabha, 1990) from the basis of two case studies, I aim to suggest future paths for research in the field.

I support my findings with the use of qualitative methods based upon primary and secondary sources. First, through the analysis of the interviews carried out to branding consultants of both countries directly related to the nation branding policy as well as to artists who have critically contested them. Second, through discourse analysis of some of the nation brand’s intervened visual devices and of the online interactions held on the official Marca Peru and Marca Colombia YouTube and Facebook sites. Finally, I will include the still reduced literature on nation branding in our cases as Cánepa (2013) and Sanin (2016) and on arguably alike scenarios as the one worked by Kaneva (2012) for post-communist nations.

References
Many tourist destinations are multiscale or multi-product places, in the sense that they contain different products some of which justify the trip to the destination. As far as Caribbean destinations are concerned, they have traditionally been seen as a sun and sand destinations with almost no other alternatives to offer to tourists. However, the Caribbean region is home to highly valuable built heritage like the fortresses erected by colonial powers in Havana, San Juan, Cartagena, Bermuda and other places. The policy of using cultural tourism as a form of a more sustainable and competitive tourism, and as an upmarket alternative to beach tourism, arrived in the Caribbean relatively recently. Cartagena, Colombia, has pursued this policy too. According to our research, this city has recently moved from promoting sun and sand as its main product to promoting ‘culture’ as the main one. However, tensions remain among different actors because of these promotional shifts. Besides, the results of these ‘new’ marketing initiatives do not have always the desired goals.

The tension in branding the Caribbean region can be specifically found in Cartagena. This city faces a critical problem in promoting itself in the sense that, apart from its geographical inconsistency, it has shifted its promotion from heritage to beach and back to heritage. For decades, the city was promoted as a national sun and sand destination but when it came to be on the international tourist arena, it hesitated as to ‘where it belongs to’ and couldn’t decide which of the two products to emphasise most. Clearly, the city’s built heritage gives it a competitive edge and heritage is a more unique product that sun and sand. But the city has struggled to define its own identity – and therefore how to market a coherent and consistent image. This problem is also evident in other Caribbean destinations like Puerto Rico or Mexico in the sense that they are geographically torn between different areas. But the Mexican Caribbean has performed really well in comparison, probably because it understood itself as ‘Caribbean’ from the onset.

These investigations suggest there is a need for destinations to have a clear geographic branding, i.e. a clear political and geographic affiliation as this helps the destination to better stand out. In the case of Caribbean destinations, it seems that the attractiveness of the Caribbean brand is always a good sell but it has to be clearly conveyed by the brand and being incorporated to it.

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Expressions of creativity in the landscape and the role of place marketing:
The regional unity of Magnesia, Greece

Sotiria Katsafadou
Department of Planning and Regional Development
University of Thessaly
Pedion Areos, 38334, Volos, Greece.
Email: katsafad@uth.gr; Tel: +302421074381; +306945943195.

Georgia Lalou
Department of Planning and Regional Development
University of Thessaly
Pedion Areos, 38334, Volos, Greece
Email: geo.lalou@gmail.com; Tel: +302421074381; +306980117424.

Alex Deffner
Department of Planning and Regional Development
University of Thessaly
Pedion Areos, 38334, Volos, Greece
Email: adeffner@uth.gr; Tel: +302421074428.

The notion of creativity and the analysis of senses have high impact on the perception of landscape and the promotion of place through place marketing procedures. The factors of creativity, sensoryscape and place marketing are analysed in this paper aiming at the quest of the identity of places that combine expressions of creativity, while sensoryscapes emerge. Additional aims are: the discovery of best practices in the Regional Unit of Magnesia, Greece, that combine creative activities in sensoryscapes—more specifically, the old town of Alonissos island, Agios Lavrentios and Anavra are analysed as a sightscape, a soundscape and a smellscape respectively, the quest of creativity in the medium-sized city of Volos and its connection with the developed sensoryscape, as well as the configuration of creative urban poles in correspondence with their sensoryscapes in Magnesia, in order to be promoted as a whole towards sustainable development.

Creativity is a highly attractive theme in urban planning and place marketing/branding theory (Evans, 2009·Florida, 2002/2012·Landry, 2000/2008). The diversity of the concept of creativity may concern the urban environment (creative city, creative milieu), creative policies or creative activities. This plurality of creativity can be located in different spatial units, though all of these expressions define local identity and landscape perception. More specifically, landscape can be perceived by senses (Landry, 2012·Manolidis, 2003·Simmel et al, 2004). Due to the importance of the developed sensory urbanism in the formation of a sustainable environment (Lucas and Mair, 2008·Zardini, 2005) as well as the contribution of creative activities in the sensorial perception of the landscape, the research focuses on the analysis of such ‘sensorial creative milieus’ in Magnesia.

Place marketing as a strategically planned process that requires actual place awareness aims at enhancing the overall image through the maintenance and promotion of the distinctive characteristics of the place (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2010·Castells, 2010·Kotler et al, 1999). The paper focuses on the selected landscapes investigating how creative activities can contribute to the sensorial perception of a landscape, and examining if the interaction between sensoryscapes and creative activities can be turned into an advantage for the promotion of a place’s identity. The methodology used follows the literature review in the field of the research and combines observational analysis and semi-structured interviews for the selected landscapes as well as questionnaires in Volos. The research is funded by an IKY scholarship through the program ‘RESEARCH PROJECTS FOR EXCELLENCE IKY/SIEMENS’.

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1 Corresponding author
Establishing external validity for consumer-based place brand equity scales: Mission impossible or a matter of approach?

Thomas Leicht
School of Business
University of Leicester
Email: thomas_leicht@gmx.de; Tel: 0049 176 40599135

Research in the field of place branding is searching for reliable approaches in order to quantify the impact of place branding activities. Recent publications (e.g. Bose et al, 2016; Kavaratzis & Florek, 2014; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Zenker, 2014) suggest using the concept of brand equity and especially focus on place brand equity from the consumer perspective. Since brand equity is a relative measure that needs to be compared with competing brands (Lassar et al, 1995), brand equity scales are not only supposed to have internal (content, construct, etc.) validity, but also external validity. The dynamic complexity and inherent particularity of places might however pose issues for the operationalisation of place brand equity. The main purpose of this paper is therefore to investigate 1) what external validity of statistical instruments for measuring place brand equity actually means; 2) if and why existing place brand equity scales could have limited external validity; and 3) how external scale validity for place brand equity measurement could be addressed by future research.

The paper starts with introducing the significance of validity for the development of statistical measures. Then, first attempts to develop scales for measuring consumer-based brand equity in the field of place (or destination) branding are presented. A systematic literature review of recent publications reveals that these attempts come short in proving the external validity of the measures. The reasons for this, which are examined in the following part of the paper, relate to the specificity and complexity of places, as well as the scope of the respective study. Drawing from previous research on place brand equity and the concept of place, new perspectives on the notion of external scale validity for place brand equity measurement are then explored. For ensuring external scale validity, the paper advances the argument that place brand equity measurement should include more than one place on 1) a comparable territorial scale (i.e. city vs city, region vs region, country vs country) but in 2) different spatial-cultural contexts (i.e. located in different countries and/or different cultural 'spheres') offering at least to a certain degree 3) comparable types of place product or service offerings (e.g. global finance hub vs global finance hub), as the assessment might otherwise have to deal with internal validity issues.

References

NATIONS AND REGIONS
BRANDING
The role of place brands in the development and marketing of cultural goods: A proposal for cross-regional examination of Japanese contemporary design projects

Adam Johns
Doshisha Business School
Doshisha University
Imadegawa-Karasuma, Kamigyo-ku Kyoto, 602-8580 Japan
Email: ajohns@mail.doshisha.ac.jp; Tel: +81-7-5251-4859

While a considerable amount of place branding research examines the factors that determine an attractive city, region, or nation, these brands in turn equally have the ability to become cogent indicators of values, tastes, and quality for goods and services from those places.

As both contributors to and beneficiaries of such place brands, this paper proposes that recent trends with traditional or heritage crafts in Japan (such as kyo-yuzen and nishijin textiles or kyo-yaki ceramics from Kyoto) can help to build understanding of how products that are often inextricably linked to their historical place of origin utilise place brands amid an imperative to internationalise. While cultural products have often been ignored in country of origin and place branding studies (Dinnie, 2004), Rausch (2008) suggests such ‘cultural commodities’ to be ideal for the examination of place branding.

Facing shrinking domestic markets, an emerging trend has been identified for heritage craft producers to work with European designers to produce contemporary products for global niche markets. With a resulting ‘hybrid’ country of origin (Chao 1993), to what extent do these producers maintain regional and national cultural heritage, incorporate cultural heritage into their brand heritage (Hakala, Lätti and Sandberg, 2011) and utilise corresponding place brands in their positioning and communication strategies?

This paper proposes a study of producers to determine the importance and role of place brands in reconceptualised and contemporised cultural products.

Cases from different regions in Japan are to be purposively sampled according to their regional brand attractiveness (based on Brand Research Institute survey data). Projects from prefectures with strong brands (Kyoto and Tokyo) are combined with those from moderately strong brands (Aomori and Niigata), and weak brands (Shiga and Saga). Projects associated with public and private initiatives to develop new contemporary design products from traditional Japanese cultural craft industries. In-depth interviews with managers and artisan/owners are proposed to identify how producers in different regions (i) implement ‘place’ into design and production, and (ii) communicate place brands – both region and nation – through positioning and product narrative, and (iii) how their efforts fit with regional place branding efforts.

This study aims to contribute to the understanding of the use of place brands and the relationship between place and product brands by examining (1) whether firms emphasise region brand or the nation brand, (2) the effect that the ‘hybrid’ origin of the product has on the use of place brands, and (3) the potential for these efforts to feedback into place branding efforts.

References

Consumer surveys show that generally speaking the made in is gaining importance in their consumption journey, with people displaying stronger and stronger positive feelings towards the locally-produced goods. If the CoO effect has been extensively studied since the 60’s (Maman Larraufie, 2013), most studies focus on the consumer side and few deal with how companies and/or official bodies do communicate on their Made In or ‘terroir’ towards the various audiences they aim at. Since communication is about building relationships (Peraya, 1998), it sounds key to master it to promote the locally-produced goods, and hence shape a particular country image. It is the objective of the present study to decipher the mechanism and strategies used to do so, in the specific case of France. The CoO effect being articulated around four types of effects (cognitive, affective, normative and identity-forming) (Bolliger, 2011), we expect seeing communication strategies focusing on the four, with probably different target audience and communication objectives. While cognitive, affective and normative values expect to be used for promoting ‘Made in France’, the identity-building value should fit more the ‘Terroir’ valorization. The literature also drives us towards thinking that visual cues will be used to attract consumers’ attention, and that communication strategies to promote Made in France culture and ‘Terroir’ rely upon feelings around some community of consumption (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001).

To test our hypotheses, we collected data from 13 organisms in charge of promoting ‘terroir’ and ‘made in’, representing half of the 24 product categories participating to the French Agricultural Contest. An inductive approach of content analysis was used to code the data, since few studies have already been made on the topic (Lauri and Kyngas, 2005).

Results show that the communication strategies for promoting a Made in France culture and a French ‘terroir’ use cognitive and identity-building values, esp. through the usage of labels (DOP…)/know-how/flavors (cognitive values) and of history-related links/product authenticity and logo creation (identity-building values). Affective and normative values are not that much used. Besides, we cannot find evidence that communication strategies do use visual cues to attract consumers’ attention, while we did find evidence that they rely upon the feeling around some community of consumption.

We conclude with the limits and future developments for the study, along with practical insights for managers and bodies actively involved in such promotion.

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¹ Corresponding author
Branding has been defined as “the process of designing, planning, communicating and managing the brand” (Anholt, 2007, p.4). For a nation, strategic brand management broadly concerns the enhancement of a country’s competitive position in the global marketplace (Anholt, 2010; Kotler & Gertner, 2011). Keller’s (2008) customer-based brand equity (CBBE) model proposed that brand equity occurs when the consumer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favourable and unique brand associations in memory. Pike (2010) explored the application of the CBBE model to destination management, conceptualising a hierarchy of destination brand development, where brands move through developmental phases from brand salience to brand associations to brand resonance and ultimately to brand loyalty. This paper builds on this foundation to discuss the context of a sport mega-event and the opportunities that it provides for nation brand equity development.

The case of South Africa was selected as it represented a nation that specifically stated its aim of using the 2010 FIFA World Cup (and future mega-events) to develop its nation brand. The experiences, lessons and insights of selected, definitive tourism and event stakeholders and experts were elicited using in-depth, semi-structured interviews (n=27) that took place two to three years post the event.

The paper draws heavily on branding theory and integrates this with the stakeholder responses to propose a set of branding opportunities that are created by a sport mega-event and to indicate their contribution to developing nation brand equity. These opportunities and their contribution to nation brand equity are discussed with reference to Pike’s (2010) model. The study proposes that a number of contemporary strategic branding elements can be applied to nation branding in the context of sport mega-events, such as: ‘Co-creation’ of nation brand identity; experiential branding theory; brand engagement; and brand attachment. The paper provides examples of other contexts at different stages of their brand development in commenting on the degree of transferability of these findings to other host nations and event contexts.

References


Corresponding author
Place hospitality: A way to understand and improve place marketing approaches

Camille Chamard
“Comparatives Studies in Management” Lab.
IAE Pau-Bayonne (University School of management)
University of Pau, France,
Email: camille.chamard@univ-pau.fr

Christophe Alaux
CERGAM-IMPGT
/Public Management and Territorial Governance Institute/
Aix Marseille University
Aix-en-Provence, France

Aim
The aim of this article is to focus on the concept of hospitality to enhance the understanding of place marketing strategies.

Findings
Attractiveness is considered very often by French local authorities as the unique target assigned to their place marketing strategy. We consider that Hospitality is a key concept to determine what are the levers of action to implement and develop a long-term place marketing strategy for a territory.

Abstract
Numerous articles have highlighted the importance for a territory to work on the increase of its attractiveness. Therefore, welcoming new publics such as tourists, companies, households would increase the economic development and thereby the place reputation. However, this vision seems too restrictive to be unique nowadays. Indeed, the concept of hospitality sets up itself as the corollary of place attractiveness. In that context, 2 strategies can be identified: either a strong focus on an external attractiveness which is voluntarily time-limited, as in the case of seasonal tourist activities, or a long-term vision by a strong focus on hospitality as the engine of a real policy to maintain place marketing targets and also to attract new ones. Defining the concept of Hospitality appears as an ambitious challenge because French approaches seem very different from Anglo-Saxon ones. In the French conception (Gotman, 2001; Montandon, 2004), hospitality is a temporary social interaction strictly codified. The Anglo-Saxons are more focused on the tangibles aspects of Hospitality, even if the social interaction is also included. For instance, according to Brotherton (1999), Hospitality is “A contemporaneous human exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation, and/or food, and/or drink.” In a territorial perspective, Hospitality can be defined, at least, by four elements: a situation (Montandon, 2004; Brotherton, 2006), persons in charge of welcoming, objects used for welcoming activities and a localization. According to Viard (2000), Place hospitality appears as a mix of 3 dimensions to manage: reality, imagination and atmosphere.

To base a territorial project on the hospitality means studying the levers of the preservation of the people and the activities on a territory. It also means how to improve hospitality to link it with the attractiveness of the place. Secondly, we present a conceptual framework including the place hospitality as the central element. Hospitality is simultaneously an objective for place marketing and an essential engine of a long-lasting territorial dynamics.

We shall end by proposing the levers of action allowing the local authorities with a measure of autonomy to implement a real hospitality policy for the places they are responsible for. Several examples among French local authorities are used to illustrate this article.
Place characteristics

Place attractiveness

Place hospitality

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1 Corresponding author
The idea that companies have a certain impact and thus certain responsibilities towards society has gained increasing attention in the last 50 years (Anholt, 2010; Malik, 2015; Carroll, 2015). High on the public and political agenda, as customers have raised their expectations towards companies, corporate social responsibility (CSR) is an organizational imperative (Pomerig and Dolnicar, 2008; Anoholt, 2010) providing a number of tangible and intangible benefits (Albinger and Freeman, 2000; Greening and Turban, 2000; Bauman and Skitka, 2012; Lee et. al., 2013). Acknowledged as a priority issue on many governments’ strategic agendas (Albareda et al., 2007; Government of The Netherlands, 2016; Sweden, 2016) and a key-factor for “Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth” (European Commission, 2011; Boulota and Pitelis, 2014, p. 349), CSR has also become part of various national narratives (Cozmiuc, 2012). Nevertheless, although much has been written about the social responsibility of companies, little has been said about the possibility of applying a similar framework to countries (Anholt, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012). In specific, little research has been conducted on what is and what constitutes the social responsibility of a country and how this could benefit nation branding strategies. This paper aims at covering this gap, first and foremost by examining the nature and dimensions of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) as it appears in the mind of its different stakeholders. To do so, an exploratory study (Malhotra and Birks, 2003; Saunders, 2007) has been initially conducted in two Western countries (UK and Italy). Data have been collected from groups of students and academic staff (Peterson, 2001) in the universities of London and Milan, between March and October 2016. Overall, four focus groups (two per country) have been carried out, followed by twelve interviews (six per country) (Churchill, 1979; Baker et al., 2012; Ritchie et al., 2013). Initial findings highlight the complexity of the concept, which seem to undergo similar criticisms to CSR (e.g. Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Bauer, 2014; Malik, 2015). Despite different interpretations, the majority of interviewees strongly believe that countries should be more responsible for what happens inside and outside their territories. In conclusion, by analyzing the nature, dimensions and measures of this new construct, SRIC, this research contributes to both nation branding and business ethics literature, paving the way for a new stream of research which focuses on the ethical role of nation brands.
References


1 Corresponding author
Towards a new conceptualization of place branding through the analysis of Ambassadors’ networks

Cátia Filipa Cerqueira Rebelo
Sustainable Places Research Institute,
Cardiff University, UK
33 Park Place, Cardiff, CF10 3BA
Email: cerqueirarebeloc@cardiff.ac.uk; Tel: +44(0)29206 888 44

Globalization drives society to a fierce competition to attract businesses, residents and visitors as well as to the need of standing out from the crowd through each place’s singularity and identity. Consequently, place branding strategies are more and more demanded. Place branding is a very dynamic, interdisciplinary and complex concept resulting in a wide range of inconsistencies between theory and practice, which urgently need theoretical clarification. Therefore, the present paper critically explores various conceptualizations of place branding with a special emphasis on how branding can act as a potential resource for local strategic planning and sustainable development by: a) strengthening the community identity; b) creating awareness about the special qualities of the place and endogenous resources; c) promoting networks and partnerships (improved entrepreneurship and business activities) and d) enhancing tourism and leisure activities. Consistently, assisting to achieve some of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. For that, a new conceptual model built on place branding theories, in particular, on the role of stakeholders in the branding process is here proposed. This model intends to evaluate how community networks can assist in the promotion of sustainable development of their territories. One of the examples, of the place-based multi-case study that is intended to be applied on the current research, is the Ambassadors’ networks. Ambassador’s networks are a conjunct of formal schemes provided by the Brecon Beacons National Park Authorities to the local community. To be part of this network people need to complete one of the major courses provided by the NP Authorities (e.g. core ambassadors). Nowadays, more than 200 people belong to this network, which intends to be a ‘brand of quality’. In order words, they claim that everyone who is an ambassador is passionate about the Park and, thus, will provide a more welcoming and authentic experience for its visitors. Hence, aiming to contribute to a broader clarification and advancement of place branding theory, the conceptual model intends to understand to what extent: the services provided by ambassadors are based in the endogenous resources and more authentic; ambassadors are, indeed, more welcoming and informative; the local image/identity is co-created by ambassadors; there is a stronger social cohesion between ambassadors; and to what extent ambassadors’ awareness regarding local cultural/environmental resources is enhanced.

Keywords: Place branding; Sustainable development; Stakeholders; Ambassadors’ networks; Brecon Beacons National Park.

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Place brand architecture optimization.  
The case of Aosta Valley

Chiara Mauri
Department of Economics and Political Sciences  
Università della Valle d’Aosta  
Aosta - Italy  
Email: c.mauri@univda.it

Isabella Maggioni
ACRS, Department of Marketing  
Monash Business School  
Monash University  
Melbourne - Australia  
Email: Isabella.maggioni@monash.edu

Lorenzo Turci
Oxford University  
Email: l.turci@gmail.com

Brand architecture, a concept and framework developed in conventional branding (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000, Keller 2014), is concerned with configuring and managing a portfolio of brands with the goal of maximizing the synergies between the brands and at the same time maximizing their differentiation so as to extract the highest potential of each brand (Keller and Lehman 2009). The aim of this paper is to apply the theory of brand architecture to the case of place branding in a specific geographical context: the Valle d’Aosta Region.

The topic of place brand architecture has began to develop in the last ten years, when academic journals, public administrations, and business consultants began to debate how to apply it in specific geographical domains, being them nations, regions, or other areas (Hanna and Rowley 2008, Dooley and Bowie 2005, Harish 2010, Datzira-Masip, Poluzzi 2014, Hanna and Rowley 2015). There is also the view that place brand architecture is one of the key challenges in developing a destination brand, and also one of the most difficult to understand and apply  (Buncle 2009). Literature on the topic is very scarce, only a handful of articles; it is descriptive and case-based, and does not contribute to build new theory.

While it is well accepted that the increased competition between places to attract tourists and resources makes branding one of the focuses of the policies of the stakeholders involved in managing a place, brand architecture cannot be left out from the debate, because it is a vital component of any strategic place brand management model (Baker 2007, Hanna and Rowley 2011.

Significant experiences in this respect are Südtirol (Italy) and Canton of Valais (Switzerland), and particularly the first, where the local government together with communication and consulting agencies have been involved on a deep rethinking of the whole local brand portfolio.

Our research is articulated in seven steps, which can be organized in two main areas. The first phase of the research is concerned with identifying and classifying all the existing logos existing in the same place, a step consistent with the suggestion of Hanna and Rowley (2011, p. 469), who advocate that “management should consider the existing inventory of brands to determine the driver role that each brand plays in influencing consumer intentions”. We identified 75 logos related to even a small place such as the Aosta Valley, and organized them in a database according to specific criteria: unit to which they are referred (i.e. mountain, monument), theme (i.e. tourism, anniversary), geographical area involved, year of birth, stakeholder owning the logo, etc. The same 75 logos have then been framed in an associative network (using the software Gephi) built through the visual hyperlinks that appeared in the homepage of the websites in which each logo
appeared. In this way, we have been able to visually identify clusters of place logos and the relationships between them.

The second phase of the study concerned the design and implementation of an empirical research, consisting of a qualitative part and a quantitative survey. In the qualitative part, we run 5 focus groups with residents, tourists and owners of second houses in which participants were stimulated to “play” with different place logos, declaring their awareness, perceptual associations, and relationships (Iversen and Hem 2008) and defining where each “piece” (or logo) had to be visually displayed. Should the logo of Mont Blanc be put above or below, right or left in relation to the logo of Courmayeur? Should the logo of the Region appear somewhere in the same puzzle? Could this hold for all villages of the same place or are there villages of different status that are to be managed differently?

The quantitative survey had the aim to measure the awareness of the various logos, to evaluate the image of the brands, and to state consumers’ preference for specific brand architecture configurations.

This work can be a significant contribution for all the stakeholders of a place owners of different place brands, who are more and more involved in defining the proper configuration of their place umbrella brands.

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Corresponding author
Desperately seeking regional development:  
The potential role of place branding in EU Smart Specialisation Strategy*

Chiara Rinaldi
School of Business, Economics and Law  
University of Gothenburg,  
Vasagatan 1, P.O. Box 610 SE-405 30 Gothenburg, Sweden  
Email: Chiara.rinaldi@gu.se; Tel: +46 (0) 31 786 1526

Alessio Cavicchi
Department of Education, Cultural Heritage and Tourism  
University of Macerata  
P.le Bertelli, 1 - 62100 - Macerata, Italy  
Email: alessio.cavicchi@unime.it; Tel: +39 07332585961

Aims and objectives
The Smart Specialisation Strategy (S3) represents the current European Commission approach to regional development. Smart specialisation is a place-based policy promoting economic transformation and innovative activities in selected areas of the socio-economic system, in order to realise Europe 2020 objectives for a smart, inclusive and sustainable growth. This approach entails the identification of strategic areas for intervention, emerging from analysis of strengths and potentials and on a process of entrepreneurial discovery process (EDP): an inclusive and interactive bottom-up process in which participants from different environments (policy, business, academia, etc) discover and produce information about potential new activities, identifying potential opportunities (Foray et al, 2012). The Research and Innovation Strategy (RIS3) was born to better position EU regions and make them more competitive in the global competition. The aims of positioning and differentiating a place in the global competition supports a potential role of place branding as a “market-led” approach aiming at stimulating local economic development in a context of global competition, where its application as a place management strategy is used to support inter-place competition (Giovanardi, 2012, Cleave et al, 2016). In this sense, it is argued that the role of place branding as a strategy able to leverage on reputational capital of places could support S3, but also how S3 policy implementation could pose new challenges.

Main approach
This paper will consider the potential role that place branding and place marketing disciplines could have in supporting regional development through the S3 approach, as it represents an open field for investigation (Pasquinelli, 2015). The paper will analyse how place branding could support S3 goals to address regional development challenges.

Key findings
Place branding and smart specialisation strategy share common objectives: increase place competitiveness (Giovanardi, 2012) and facilitate the development of cities, regions and nations. Several challenges as well as opportunities relevant to place branding discourse appear now that S3 is passing from theorization to implementation. The main aspects (Riva, 2016) concern: concentration of different working areas related to business-led development with strong outward dimension, where the capacity of cities and regions to attract investment, knowledge and firms is crucial. In this sense, leveraging on the soft dimension of competitiveness (Pasquinelli, 2015), related to images, values and network of associations (Zenker & Braun, 2010) that a place evokes, could contribute to place distinctiveness and support S3 territorial innovation patterns. According to Rivas (2016), there is also a need to rethink geographical articulation, as it appears that S3 has overlooked the role of cities for implementation of the regional strategy. To fill this gap, from the perspective of geographical unit of investigation and action, the city-region notion is proposed as system able to leverage on city competitive identity while supporting sustainable regional development. The notion of city-region food system (Jennings et al, 2015) will be introduced as example of how city region geographical scale, able to integrate and operationalize urban-rural linkages around a common topic.
(food, one of the S3 domains) could represent an integrated and comprehensive solution to address sustainable regional development issues.

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\(^1\) Corresponding author
The effect of design-driven innovation for regional branding development: Evidence from Murano glass industry in Venice

Eleonora Pantano
Department of Marketing, Branding and Tourism
Middlesex University
NW4 4BT London UK
Email: e.pantano@mdx.ac.uk

Charles Dennis
Department of Marketing, Branding and Tourism
Middlesex University
NW4 4BT London UK
Email: c.dennis@mdx.ac.uk

Prior studies largely demonstrated the extent to which enterprises and the production of products with a strong link with the territory actively contribute to the place branding building (Charters and Spielmann, 2014; Alamanos et al., in press; Marcoz et al., in press.). To date, almost everyone has heard (or even drunk) a champagne glass, produced in the namesake region in France, thus the Champagne Region is an example on the positive contribution of alcoholic beverage industry to the building and reinforcing for a strong territorial image (Charters and Spielmann, 2014). In fact, Champagne has shifted from being only the name of a particular place to become the brand of a place/product with unique characteristics able to influence tourism flows in that area of France (Charters and Menival, 2011).

Murano glass industry in Venice shows similar characteristics. These particular glass products acquire consumers all over the world, by fascinating of tourists who are largely attracted by the famous Murano artisans, artists and designers. These small producers to not follow either of the design industries norms “technology push” or “demand pull”, whereby the continuous innovation into the design tend to satisfy the demand for new products, towards a design-driven innovation approach as a key source for firm’s success (Verganti, 2006; D’Ippolito, 2014; Pantano, 2014). These producers created the talented glass artists and craftsmen association (A.M.A. - Associazione Maestri Artigiani del Vetro di Venezia). The aim of this paper is to identify the effects of continuous research on particular forms of innovations (design-driven innovation) applied by AMA members for regional branding development. To achieve this task research involved in depth interviews with the members of the association, combined with the direct observation of their work, stores, website and consumer behaviour. In the one hand this paper contributes to literature on (i) innovation management by providing evidence on how micro-firms adopt design-driven innovation process under an artist-cetered design and (ii) regional branding development by showing how the effects of the glass artisans continuous innovation contributes to the development of the Murano regional brand and to the reinforcement of Venice brand, highlighting the role of small-micro business in this process.

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Branding and marketing strategies for combatting stereotypes and negative perceptions towards countries

Eli Avraham
Department of Communication
University of Haifa
Mt. Carmel, Haifa, Israel 31905.
Email: eavraham@com.haifa.ac.il; Tel: 972-4-8249152
Fax: 972-4-8249120

Nearly every country and its people are associated with both positive and negative generalizations and stereotypes (Dinnie, 2015). As can be expected, these perceptions serve as a key mechanism to categorize and deal with the enormous quantity of information that flows from a wide range of sources regarding all of the world’s countries. But how do marketers and national leaders react when these stereotypes constitute a barrier to tourists, investors and international status? This issue is even more frustrating and challenging in cases where such officials feel that the negative perceptions of their destination—as “dangerous”, “primitive”, or “gray”, for example—has no connection to reality.

Despite of the fact that stereotypes can be a serious barrier to the arrival of tourists, comprehensive studies, focused on strategies that countries’ leaders and marketers have chosen to deal with the stereotypes, have rarely been conducted to date. In addition, most of the studies that have been conducted in this field have primarily focused on examining individual cases, used only qualitative analysis, and barely relied on the use of image restoration and crisis communication theories and models (Ritchie, 2009; Tarlow, 2005). The result is a shortage of wide, comprehensive studies that rely on the theory of image restoration and make use of both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Using the "multi-step model for altering place image," (Avraham and Ketter, 2016) the aim of this study is to examine the strategies that countries around the world have chosen to deal with stereotypes and negative perceptions towards them. This examination made use of quantitative and qualitative analysis of 70 ads, including print ads and TV commercials and videos that were uploaded to YouTube, produced by 47 countries. These ads address negative perceptions of countries created by two kinds of image crises: short-term crises (such as a terror attack, war or natural disaster) or the result of prolonged crises (involvement in ongoing violent conflict or social-economic challenges).

The quantitative analysis was done using a coding page that contained 15 variables, including name of the country/continent, kind of advertising, stereotype’s field/type, target audience, strategies used, and kind of regime. In the qualitative analysis, several specific case studies that used the strategies were analyzed. The analysis shows that marketers were creative in fighting such stereotypes. We mainly saw the use of three kinds of marketing strategies: source (such as personal testimonies, “Come see for yourself”, blaming the media for the distorted image), message (expanding the image, celebrities, confessing to the stereotypes, opposite message to the stereotypes, turning negative to positive, ridiculing the stereotype, promising a great future, softening the hard image, and association to prestigious places), and audience (target audience values and changing the target audience).

References
Branding a functional region: Lessons from the Southern Randstad

Gert-Jan Hospers  
Faculty of Behavioural, Management and Social Sciences (BMS)  
University of Twente  
Email: g.j.hospers@utwente.nl

Wouter-Jan Verheul  
TU Delft | Faculty of Architecture & the Built Environment  
Section of Urban Development Management (UDM)  
Email: w.j.verheul@tudelft.nl

In general, it is hard to brand functional regions, i.e. regions that are defined according to common functional characteristics, like a shared economic structure or an intensive commuting pattern. In contrast to historic or natural regions, functional regions are rather artificial. In Europe, however, more and more of these functional regions want to build up a profile. What works and what does not? What are the available options and how does this selection process take place? In the paper at hand this question is explored both from a theoretical and an empirical perspective. We start with a review of relevant insights from place branding theory, political science and human geography. This framework is used to analyse and discuss a case study of regional branding in practice: the Southern Randstad. Besides desk research we base our findings on 40 interviews with stakeholders in the region.

The Southern Randstad indicates the southern part of Holland. It is a functional region that consists of a diverse set of cities and towns. All the municipalities involved agree that a regional approach makes more sense than local branding actions to attract foreign direct investment and boost the regional economy. Due to the large amount of city, town and regional authorities and the diverse economy choosing a common profile is easier said than done. However, we suggest that two region-wide ‘ports’ and two ‘deltas’ could play a role here: the ‘Mainport’ (a large logistics and maritime industry cluster), the ‘Greenport’ (a large agro and food industry cluster), the ‘Medical Delta’ (an emerging health and life sciences cluster) and the ‘Security Delta’ (an emerging security and legal services cluster). As a matter of fact, every involved municipality in the region can relate to one or more of these two ports and two deltas. When it comes to the choice for a common brand name for the Southern Randstad we suggest that a term in which two of the largest cities (Rotterdam and The Hague) are expressed makes sense. For an international audience of investors and expats, the names of both well-known cities offer more distinction, recognition and associative impact than a new imaginary name – referring to for example one of the region’s ports or deltas – would do.

Our case study on the Southern Randstad provides clear lessons for other functional regions that want to brand themselves. These regions should take two notions into account. First, a common brand story for a large variety of municipalities and economic activities can be promising only if it enhances rather than replaces the existing local branding strategies. Second, branding functional regions always will be a ‘multilevel game’: depending on the relevant geographical scale level (local, regional, national, global), municipalities have to adapt their brand name and associated brand story to what is telling for the respective target audience. Such a chameleon like-branding approach asks for empathy, flexibility and coordination skills from the authorities involved.

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Discursive construction issues and interest by stakeholders in two regional level place marketing projects in Eastern Finland

Juha Halme
University of Eastern Finland
Apajakuja 1 C44 80140 Joensuu Finland
Email: juha.halme@uef.fi; Tel: +358 40 5244041

Summary of aims
This paper presents a case study of discursive dynamics of stakeholder collaboration in two regional place marketing projects in Eastern Finland. It brings focus to the communicative nature of the collaboration and looks into two aspects of collaboration: negotiation of issues and interests. Issues refer to accounts by stakeholders on what is the problem that place marketing activity trying to answer to, while interests on the other hand connect these accounts to actors, articulating how the place marketing activity could bring desired change for them. The paper looks into matter of why certain interests and accounts of the issues gain more support than other, and hence are more represented in the outcomes of the projects. Accordingly, paper contributes to recent discussions on non-symmetrical stakeholder relations in marketing or branding projects (Boisen, Terlouw and Gorp, 2011; Kavaratzis, 2012; Lucarelli and Giovanardi, 2014; Messely, Dessein and Rogge, 2015).

Main Approach
The paper applies theoretical framework discursive collaboration developed by Lawrence & al (1999) and utilises methodology of discourse analysis, which draws attention to the active role of the discourse in the construction of social reality. This approach gives insight to the discursive struggle beneath the collaborative process, where participants enter with different discursive and non-discursive resources. The empirical data of the study was collected from two regional level place marketing projects implemented between 2011-2015 in Eastern Finland. The first case is from region of North-Karelia and second from Northern-Savonia. Data consists of 24 interviews done for the representatives of the stakeholder organisations of the both projects. Interview data is supplemented with minutes of meetings of the stakeholder groups to provide more context for the personal interviews.

Key Argument/Findings
The paper proposes that negotiation of interest and issues is a key process within the stakeholder collaboration in place marketing projects, which has significant influence on the outcomes of the projects. It highlights that the interests and issues are not neutral matters but rather contestable and therefore highly political matters, which can manifest in discursive struggles that have to be resolved by the stakeholders. On basis of preliminary finding these struggles can concern for example target audience of place marketing activities, desired image of place and significance of different spatial levels within region. Finally, the paper underlines the significance of power in collaboration by looking into how certain interests and issues gain more ground in collaborations and by that are more represented in the outcomes of the projects.

References
Innovative approaches to stakeholder engagement: Branding Tasmania

Laura Ripoll Gonzalez
School of Social Sciences
University of Tasmania
Email: laura.ripollgonzalez@utas.edu.au; Tel: +61 3 63243254

Academic research on place branding emphasises the importance of stakeholder and community engagement in successful place branding practices (Klijn, Eshuis, & Braun 2012; Argiolas et al 2009). Since places are complex entities, often the success of branding campaigns concentrated on a single component or sector of the place are at high risk of failure if the component focused on experiences a crisis. Furthermore, place branding strategies are challenged by digital technologies and social media, disintermediating the capacity of governments to control the messages about the place brand and empowering other stakeholder groups to articulate alternative and often competing brand messages. Consequently, the current top-down, government-led, decision-making process is challenged by the latest developments in ICT technologies and the rise of the network society (Castells, 2008). In this context, successful management of place brands requires a more holistic and less instrumental approach, since the identities of places are conceptualised simultaneously and differently by many stakeholders, and negotiated through social relations (Kalandides, 2011) in two-way, horizontal communication networks.

This paper explores issues around stakeholder engagement for place branding from a regional governance perspective, through a case study of the Australian state of Tasmania. The paper reviews current practices and challenges, and explores the applicability of an alternative participant-led network governance approach, through a series of in-depth interviews and focus groups interventions with a range of stakeholders involved directly and indirectly in branding Tasmania. The research reflects specifically on the latest advancements in the fields of public diplomacy (Zaharna, Arsenault, & Fisher 2014), place branding (Kavaratzis & Kalandides, 2015), and policy networks (Provan & Kenis, 2007) to explore a new approach that ensures a higher degree of coordination among the diversity of messages being communicated about the place. The aim is to observe the challenges and opportunities for greater stakeholder engagement, and suggest a more inclusive governance arrangement for effective decision-making in branding for regional development. The research builds upon academic work on policy networks to argue that a participant-governed network, focusing on active dialogue and relational characteristics, as well as tensions and trade-offs, would allow for more coordinated and successful place branding strategies. It is further argued that, by sharing knowledge in a participant-led network setup, different and often conflicting brand interests will better engage and take collective ownership of actions and initiatives, transcending public-private divides in the process.

References


Interest in Place Branding and need to manage a country’s image have been increasing and the export of cultural products, loaded with symbolic meanings, can be definitive in the search for competitive advantage. Dinnie (2004) believes in the major part cultural products have to play in determining a country’s reputation and image, even though they’ve been “suprisingly ignored in the vast majority of country-of-origin and place branding research” (Dinnie, 2004, p.108).

The close relation among sociology, history, national and cultural identities and place branding have been already exposed (Dinnie, 2004; Skinner & Kubacki, 2007). Their understanding is key for the creation of a nation’s brand identity as a whole (Skinner & Kubacki, 2007). For the discussion of national and cultural identities, Mathews (2002) and Samuel Craig and Douglas (2006) add the globalization context: today one’s cultural identity is no longer defined by his own national identity. Cultural identity is influenced and formed by national identity, but it can gain extra “layers” that one can choose in the “global cultural supermarket” (Mathews, 2002).

Capoeira is a brazilian cultural expression currently present in over 150 countries. Its internationalization happens quickly, with great acceptance among foreigners (Falcão, 2008). The practice of capoeira opens for foreigners at least two channels of communication from Anholt’s Hexagon of Competitive Identity (Anholt, 2011): the culture itself, such as the portuguese language, music, values, history; and people, since the internationalization of capoeira follows the diaporic concept (Rocha et al, 2015).

The phenomenon of the internationalization of capoeira impresses for its size, history and potential impact on the construction of Brazil’s brand image bringing up the question: “why do foreign capoeiristas engage themselves in an activity originated and impregnated with brazilian culture and heritage?”. In other words, in the vast “global cultural supermarket” why have they chosen it? Therefore, the objective of the present study is to understand what attracts and keeps them in practicing and spreading capoeira around the world, and what are the resulting effects on the Brazil’s brand image.

The intention of the study is to seek the subjective experience of the capoeiristas, their own interpretation of the reasons for capoeira to come into their lives and to stay in it. Therefore a phenomenological research was conducted (Aguiar & Barbosa, 2013). Ten in-depth interviews were made both with german and brazilian capoeiristas. Content analysis was made with the support of ATLAS/TI programm. In order to triangulate results participant observation in two capoeira classes in Hamburg (Germany) and non participant observation in a capoeira event in Hannover (Germany) were conducted.

The main results showed that the two aspects of capoeira which attract the practitioners are the physical (sport) and the artistic ones (music). However, what keeps them continuously practicing it is the social aspect involved, the sense of community that is felt through the relationships with their masters, others members of the group and, going beyond borders, the global capoeira community.

The conclusion of the study is that capoeira is flexible enough to shape and please different types of people and cultures. Even though considered exotic (and therefore expressing an exotic identity) it fills universal needs explaining the worldwide acceptance of the practice. Recognizably brazilian, in its way to conquer the world, capoeira ends up spreading and increasing foreigner’s awareness, interest and knowledge about Brazil. As a consequence, because of capoeira there are 2 million estimated foreigners practitioners (Falcão,
2008) getting more aware of brazilian political and social situation, engaging themselves in portuguese language classes, consuming different types of brazilian products and stimulating their desire to visit the country. Even further, these foreigners, capoeiristas, can act as informal ambassadors increasing awareness and impacting on Brazil’s brand image among their other non-capoeiristas social circles.

References


1 Corresponding author
Soviet heritage as a tool for a tourist attraction

Marina Ochkovskaya
Marketing Department, Economic Faculty
Lomonosov Moscow State University
Email: marinn81@mail.ru; ochkovskaya@econ.msu.ru; Tel: +7 916 455 52 31

The aim of this paper is to investigate the attractiveness of Soviet heritage expressed in architecture style in Bucharest and Warsaw for foreign tourists. We decided to concentrate the research efforts on these cities as they both have communist heritage, experienced the dictatorship and have the architectural objects built during Soviet times. Moreover, both cities Bucharest and Warsaw have a deep history and cultural background that are highly appreciated by tourists seeking cultural tourism. Although Lisiak A. (2009) examined the role of communist heritage in Central European cities, the academic study of the tourists’ perception of the Soviet architectural objects in the cities of Bucharest and Warsaw has not been specifically carried out so far.

Our study focuses on two target audiences: 1) tourists from the western capitalistic countries, 2) tourists from the former Soviet Union. Each group was comprised of 250 respondents.

To reach the aim of the paper we conducted an online survey which helped us find out the perception and attractiveness of the Soviet heritage.

We asked the respondents about their interest in the communism past, which was peculiar to Romania as well as to Poland and the other countries of the Soviet bloc. The communism heritage does not seem to be very attractive for the Russian and the other post-soviet tourists. However for people from the western capitalistic countries communism heritage is one of the reasons to visit the place.

We chose several cultural objects of the cities, to estimate which of them cause the bigger interest. We listed there the Soviet objects as the Palace of the Parliament (People's House) in Bucharest and the Palace of Culture and Science in Warsaw. The results revealed that the most attractive cultural objects for the respondents from the former Soviet Union are beyond of communist heritage. They prefer to explore the old districts of the cities and the unique architecture which are specific to the place. The huge Palace of the Parliament as well as Palace of Culture and Science are not the key points among the touristic attractions for the tourists from the former USSR. These objects are on the last positions in the list of the cultural objects. Nevertheless, these symbols of the communist past are of big interest to tourists who are keen on this part of history and specifically search for the signs of the communist past which they did not experience (Ochkovskaya M., 2016).

This paper contributes to the understanding of the attractiveness of the Soviet architecture for different tourists in Bucharest and Warsaw. It gives some insights into factors that make western and post-soviet tourists choose touristic destinations. The study can be useful for touristic agencies and for the Ministry of Culture and Tourism which deal with the country image and touristic flow.

References


Role of the state actors in the nation branding of the Czech Republic

Markéta Dianová
Arts Management Department
University of Economics, Prague,
W. Churchill Sq. 1938/4, 130 67 Prague 3, Czech Republic
Email: marketa.dianova@vse.cz; Tel: +420 605 139 317

Summary of aims
The article focuses on relationships, structures and processes that fundamentally influence the implementation of the nation branding mechanisms to the scope of activities carried out by institutional actors (Scott 2013) and elucidates the extent of involvement of these actors in the process of nation branding of the Czech Republic. Although the nation branding is an activity carried out both by formal and informal actors whose extent of involvement was pursued in preceding studies (Szondi 2008, Jönsson et al. 2000, Olins 2002, Anholt 2005, 2007, 2011, 2014 and Scott 2013), the aim of the article is to analyze and summarize how the nation branding is carried out and perceived through the perspective of official representatives of the government, state institutions of the Czech Republic and their contributory organizations. It studies the activities they carry out in the nation branding sphere, and identifies what their priorities are in the integrated state presentation. These findings are a necessary precondition for any activity leading to advancement of the idea of an integrated state presentation both in the framework of state administration and public-oriented activities.

Main approach
The collection of primary data (gathered in 2015-2016) in the qualitative research and the selection of analyzed institutions (Dinnie 2008) is based on the logic of Nation brand hexagon (Anholt 2005), and reflects the thematic orientation of the activities of the surveyed actors of public, economic and cultural diplomacy. The scope of actors was selected based on the political-economic perspective (governance, export, investment) and socio-cultural perspective (people, culture, tourism). The questioning was carried out in a form of exploratory semi-structured interview with head representatives of the selected institutions. The issues explored through the interview covered the areas of activities and cooperation, priorities and competitors, and the integrated presentation. Institutions surveyed: Office of the Government, Ministry for the Regional Development, Ministry of Culture, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Industry and Trade, Czech Centres, CzechInvest, CzechTourism, CzechTrade.

Key arguments/findings
The qualitative research brings the insight into the environment in which the nation branding activities are carried out, assesses the means and impacts of such activities and defines the space for an integrated presentation of the Czech Republic. Although the positive effects of an integrated approach are widely understood and the will to cooperate on a shared agenda was explicitly expressed, there hasn’t been a clear agreement on its content yet, nor has been an agreement on the coordinating body in charge of such agenda. The research identifies the sources of double-track processes in the distribution of agenda and a level of involvement of public diplomacy actors and other institutions responsible for the presentation of a country. Based on the formal and informal level of relationships and interactions of official state actors, the paper uncovers thematic and process-related overlaps, identifies the relation between nation branding and public diplomacy (Szondi 2008) and draws attention to the critical obstacles preventing an integrated state presentation, primarily in the sphere of processes, ideas, and competences.

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Sustainability and nation branding are both important contemporary phenomena that are seen to have significant influence in current affairs (Anholt, 2010a; Anholt, 2010b; Cox and Béland, 2012; Garbowsky and Rahman, 2013; Mittelstaedt et al., 2014; van Ham, 2008). The present study analyzes the sustainability justifications presented in the nation branding communication of Denmark and Finland. Both countries aim to be portrayed as forerunners when it comes to solutions to sustainability problems and local governments actively invest in nation branding to pursue this aim. Conventionalist Theory, established by the sociologists Boltanski and Thévenot, is applied to shed light on the justification regimes present in sustainability claims (Boltanski and Thévenot, 2006; 1999; Finch, Geiger, and Harkness, 2016; Lehtimäki, Kujala, and Heikkinen, 2011; Patriotta, Gond and Schultz, 2011). The research question is addressed with a content analysis of corresponding print publications of each country, published 2008-2016. All claims in the material, including the term sustainability in any form, were collected in a coding frame and content analysis was employed to detect sustainability actors, topics, and justifications. The analysis revealed that the justifications made relate to the aggregate dimensions of green growth, national competences, and local solutions to global problems. Most justifications were presented from the perspective of the industrial regime, connecting the sustainability concept to efficiency, energy, science and research, and technology. The Finnish state claims to offer solutions to global problems due to national competences in technology and natural resources, promoting new sustainability-related concepts in their nation branding communication, Denmark due to competences in as well as shared ambitions towards a green future. The paper contributes to current knowledge on place branding by providing a better understanding of how sustainability justifications are employed by nations when communicating to important target groups internationally with the aim to influence how they are perceived thus increasing their soft power (Nye, 2004). It thereby advances the theoretical understanding of the place branding field by incorporating cross-disciplinary knowledge from the fields of sociology, business ethics, and communications.

References

Authentic lifestyle as place identity tool

Natasha Grand
INSTID (Institute for Identity)
24 Wandsworth Road, London SW8 2JW
www.institid.org
Email: N@instid.org ; Tel: +44 7511330144

Focus
The article addresses discussions on the nature of place identity, and the role local residents can play in defining and promoting their place brand.

Approach
Terms “place brand” and “place identity” are often used interchangeably, meaning a set of mental associations evoked by the place (Boisen et al 2011, Zenker 2011). We operationalize place identity as a mental state, a sense of belonging to a place that consequently influences behavior and choices. Place identity is expressed in an authentic way of life, which local and foreign people can choose to identify with (e.g. those who see themselves as Londoners behave in certain ways).
Place identity competes with other social and political identities for a person’s loyalty. More often that not, the local tradition is not well articulated, and even residents struggle to make sense of their place. Therefore, the purpose of a place branding programme is to actualize and strengthen the local tradition.

Method
Local residents’ engagement tends to mean that locals get responsibility to define the place (Kavaradzis and Kalandides 2015, Merrilees et al 2012, Braun et al 2013). Virtuous as it appears that the residents would know the place best, such approach has serious flaws: either diverse stakeholders agree on generic values and make the place indistinguishable from others, or the most active group monopolizes the project/agenda (Merrilees et al 2012, Boisen et al 2011, Zenker and Beckmann 2013). From experience, local stakeholders also tend to dismiss their core strengths as too obvious, and emphasise what they lack but want to compensate instead (fun for Siberians, warm for Russians, open for Belarusians).
An original “hourglass method” creates local ownership of the place brand in a different way. A place branding project is run as a public campaign from day one. It offers locals creative ways to work with the context: think about their place, control consultants’ findings, and produce brand communication tools. The onus to uncover and define place identity, however, falls on the consultants, who work in two stages.
First, the multitude of diverse expressions of the place tradition is distilled to one abstract notion. Through stakeholder workshops, open interviews with local experts, participant observation, studies of local visual culture, music, art, folklore, and architecture, researchers strive to grasp the fundamentals of the local way of life: attitudes to family, success, work, money, time, relevant symbolic systems and symbols – and distill these all to one abstract archetypal trait (narrowing down to the hourglass centre). Second, this abstract notion is materialized and given a multitude of interpretations (verbal, visual, audial etc) through communication tools to fit the language and the needs of target audiences (widening down from the hourglass centre).

Application
The method has been developed through 6 place branding projects. The paper draws on examples of all, with primary focus on “Visit Tatarstan”. It shows how the project helped give a shared goal and strategy to the region’s tourist industry, whilst creating tools to promote civic regional Tatarstan identity that received enthusiastic public embrace. Within a year, tangible economic benefits for the region emerged.

Value
The paper offers an original methodology for place branding, and practical evidence to arguments for a more complex understanding of place identity (Zenker and Petersen 2014) and the nature of “added value” place brands give to the local residents (Boisen et al 2011).
References

Public diplomacy has always played an eminent role in constructing a country’s image, thus promoting the national branding. In complimentary to the national leaders’ diplomatic activities which were always an authoritative representation of a country’s image, their spouses, the First Ladies, have been acting a vigorous role in this specialized field of national branding, though from different perspectives.

In the past decade, facing the increasing tension of global competition and western country’s containing and hostile attitude towards a fast rising China, how to improve China’s country image has become an imminent national strategy. Peng Liyuan’s timely debut in 2013 is mostly required to create a new China image in the global arena, which is defined as an effective complementary to Xi Jinping’s transformational, proactive and assertive “Big Country Diplomacy”. By her delicate Chinese stylish dressing, her elegant performance and the benevolent charity activities, each of her appearance causes the pursuit and admiration of the global media and the public. We can say that Peng Liyuan’s visibility has made some subtle and positive changes to the present busy and tense Chinese public diplomacy. Meanwhile, during the same period or even earlier, Michelle Obama has been playing the typical role of American first lady ever from 2007, who campaigned for her husband's presidential bid, delivering keynote addresses and become a fashion icon, role model for women, and an advocate for social issues. It can be said that she has successfully construct an ideal American country image.

Moreover, in this information globalization age, media serves as an advocator, an escalator and a image shaper to the world events, and national leaders’ diplomatic activities, especially their state visits has always been the favorite issues of media, through which the national public diplomacy efforts can test their influences and achievements. With the hilarious praises from the Chinese domestic media and honored as the “new Chinese diplomatic name card”, it’s been repeatedly reported that Peng Liyuan’s elegant and stylish diplomatic performance has obviously changed to some extent the traditional totalitarian and rough country image in the global public affairs. However, do the western media write the same comments or tell a quite different story? What’s the Chinese national image reflected from the western medias’ reporting of Peng Liyuan? What are the differences between western media’s framing of Michelle Obama and Peng Liyuan’s diplomatic excursions?

Based on the above observation, this paper aims to analyze Chinese First Lady Peng Liyuan and American first lady Michelle Obamas’ roles in the domain of national branding from the western media’s perspective, in order to research on their real effect on how far it can contribute to enhance the national image.

The study will mainly apply content analysis assisted by media framing and agenda-setting theory to find out and evaluate the western mainstream media’s topics, issues, tones, attitudes and other salience of attributes when telling American and Chinese first lady diplomatic news. The qualitative final findings will be supported by the quantitative coding and decoding of the overall news reportage. The samples will be from the Factiva News Database, with the time period from 2013 to 2015 and the western mainstream media as The New York Times and The Washington Post from the US and The Times and The Guardian from the UK.

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Selective information sharing of grassroots diplomats in Macao: Implications for public diplomacy 2.0

Suh-hee Choi
Tourism College
Institute for Tourism Studies
Colina de Mong-Ha, Macao, China
Email: suhhee@ift.edu.mo; Tel: + 853 8598 1360

Dong-min Lee
Department of Geography
Catholic Kwandong University
Gangneung City, Gangwon Province, Republic of Korea
Email: dr.dongminlee@gmail.com; Tel: 82-10-4140-3849

New public diplomacy highlights the role of diversified actors and especially individuals with international mobility. As such grassroots diplomats are actively involved in international communication of local information, they have potential to enhance or degrade the soft power of both the host and the guest countries (Fitzpatrick, 2007; Payne, 2009; Payne et al, 2011). Furthermore, extant discussions about Public Diplomacy 2.0 has mainly focused on the communication visible on openly-shared social media, which might be the tip of the iceberg. The present qualitative study attempts to disclose the selectiveness of media platforms in sharing certain types of local information, and it further reveals risk perceptions and other constraints which may cause such a selective information behaviour of the foreign temporary residents in Macao. Based on the situational theory of problem solving (Kim and Grunig, 2011), this study develops the notion of constraint recognition, which hinders activeness in communication, and it further explores how it affects the selectivity of the content and the platform as well as the degree of activeness in communication among the study subjects. A total of 25 temporary residents of Macao from 11 different countries and regions, including Hong Kong and mainland China, were interviewed in 2015 and 2016. The results showed that the informant’s origin, family lifecycle, life history, such as the career path and the length of stay in Macao, and most importantly, risk perceptions, affected the selection of media for sharing local information as well as the content shared on each platform. Being conscious about their immigration status and job stability, the informants were cautious about sharing sensitive local news and information openly. Because of risk perceptions, some of those with rich experiences and information about Macao did not actively play their role as grassroots diplomats. Some of them instead selected offline communication or personal communication tools for local information-sharing with others. The content shared by them about Macao on openly shared platforms was selective and limited. Some were conscious about the targeted subscribers, and they screened content, such as their life stories, to share accordingly. Minimizing information-sharing with their identities being disclosed, some shared only apolitical information on open platforms.

This study identified perceived risks, privacy concerns, a consideration of information receptors among the grassroots diplomats, which led to selective sharing of information about the host country. Identification of such constraints would provide implications for grassroots public diplomacy in that monitoring content shared openly online may not be efficient in understanding the real impact of the grassroots diplomats as the information disseminators about the host country.

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1 Corresponding author
Stakeholder involvement in nation branding where there is no common understanding of national identity among the stakeholders is recognised to be highly problematic. That is why measurement of nation brand images using methods, assuming a static and a unified national identity is problematic as well.

For countries, who are not composed of homogenous populations and stakeholders sharing same understanding of national identity, nation branding and reputation development is challenging as Fombrun (1996:111) suggests, “Identity is the backbone of reputation”. As Dinnie (2008: 158) states nation brands are very complex brand identities formed as a result of specific national realities, perception and evaluation of internal and external stakeholders. Cyprus has always had an “identity” problem throughout its history due to changing authorities, different nationalities, languages, religions and powers on the island. The two main ethnic groups, Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots, haven’t been successful in creating a unified identity.“The way in which the two sides saw and described events, the vocabulary and explanations used by each side reflect something of their respective images of themselves and attitude toward each other,” (Stravrinides, 1999:2).

This paper examines and presents an overview of the concept of nation branding and the relationship between nation branding and the changing perceptions on national identity among the stakeholders of nations. Secondly, the paper discusses with a comparative analysis how nation branding practices could be beneficial not only in providing information about countries aiming to create a national image but also in defining a common national identity and national realities for the stakeholders.

Comparative analysis of the case of Cyprus will be done with Ireland, Belgium and Czech Republic. Specifically transition countries and multi-national states are chosen as Cyprus also has been going through transition because of changing authorities, states, nationalities on the island. Cyprus is also a multi-national divided country negotiating to form one unified multi-national state. The comparative analysis will be done with archival methods relying on the secondary data on different country cases including Cyprus.

The ultimate goal of this presentation is to present and discuss preliminary work done within the project “Building national identity through the process of nation branding: A Comparative Study of The Case of Cyprus.”

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The contribution of moving images to the building of nations as brands

Shashwat Gupta
Goldsmiths’ College
University of London, UK
Email: shashwat.37@gmail.com

Suraksha Gupta
Kent University, UK
Email: S.Gupta@kent.ac.uk

Pantea Foroudi
Middlesex University, UK
Email: p.foroudi@mdx.ac.uk

Len Tiu Wright
University of Huddersfield
Email: L.T.Wright@hud.ac.uk

Every nation has distinct features that make it unique in its own way. Today, countries and nations are looked at by outsiders for many different purposes, such as business, education, outsourcing and tourism (Luo, 2007). Various other research studies have also acknowledged that every country has its own individual image in the minds of outsiders who hold and use them as perceptions for specific purposes (Hamilton, 2000; Anholt, 2002; Morgan et al., 2003; Fan, 2006). These images and perceptions formed by individuals about various countries are dependent upon a country’s history, current events taking place in that country, the values its citizens hold, and the lifestyle of people living there (Anholt, 2002). The building up of a nation as a brand is a cumulative effect of all these factors (Fan, 2006).

Marketing researchers have identified investors, businesses and tourists as target segments and argued that a nation should be promoted as a brand within these communities to attract trade, tourism and foreign direct investments (Loo and Davies, 2006). As proposed by Loo and Davies (2006), exploration based on careful use of the unique features of a nation can drive the engagement of these communities and build up their trust in the nation as they would trust a brand. The Anholt-GMI index indicates the role of five different constructs as indicators of a nation brand, i.e. tourism, exports, governance, people, culture and infrastructure. These factors influence the positioning of a nation on a global scale where competition is fierce and image can have deep and long-lasting effects (Anholt, 2002).

Managers look for various modes of communication that can enable them to build up an image and facilitate their entry into the demand and supply chain at an international level (Dinnie, 2008). According to the literature on consumer behaviour, visual and entertaining images of countries can communicate and contribute to the building up of a nation as a brand (Morgan and Pritchard, 2005). The use of cinema as a communication medium that captures the characteristics and conditions of a country in the form of live visual images and presents them to its spectators has been recognized by authors such as Harding (2003) and Heyer (2008). Consumers use these images as a lens to cut across cultural, geographical and political barriers (Thompson and Haytko, 1998). Previous research also indicates that cinema can play an important role in communicating the unique and specific characteristics of a country or geography or a community to its audience in the form of a story (Bberi and Audette-Longo, 2010). While the focus of cinema should be on creatively acting as a source of information, it also acts as a resource that fulfills the requirements of knowledge representation to spectators (Gunning, 1986). Cinema can identify and project realities that could be unique to a nation and create perceptions and impressions about the country in a global audience (Anholt, 2002) and convert these perceptions into considerations of brands through international launches and distribution (Holt, 2002).

Global competition has encouraged countries to apply theories of branding to become attractive and to use these theories as a strategic marketing concept to improve their GDPs. Various theories have been synthesized by authors to provide a balanced explanation of the importance of cinema and its abilities to develop a nation brand (Gunning 1986; Anholt, 2002; Fan, 2006; Dinnie, 2008). The recognition of a nation as a brand is a growing area of interest. However, little theoretical and empirical research has been conducted
to identify the tools that would assist the building up of a nation brand. The objective of this research study is to consider the proactive role played by cinema in building up an image of a nation brand. This research has synthesized theories from different domains to understand if cinema can be used as a tool to facilitate the construction of a nation brand. A conceptual framework underpinned into existing theories was constructed and tested empirically. Analysis is presented and recommendations for future research on the topic are made.

Keywords: Globalization, Moving images, Nation brands, Cinema

\footnote{Corresponding author}
Participatory place branding, a delicate ‘business’.
An analysis of the branding of Arctic Kiruna

Susanna Heldt Cassel
Dalarna University, Sweden
Email: shc@du.se

Andrea Lucarelli
Dalarna University, Sweden
Email: alu@sbs.su.se

Recently, in place branding research one can witness a shift in focus from a top-down to a bottom up approach. Such shift, captured by concept of ‘participatory place branding’ (Kavaratzis, 2012), does not merely champion a more collaborative, multi-stakeholder and networked process but it is also presented as featuring as more democratic approach able to avoid traditional problems linked with place branding as for example, gentrification, exclusion and accountability.

In spite of a growing interest in such approach (e.g. Torres, 2012; Kalandides, Braun and Kavaratzis, 2013; Zenker, and Erfgen 2014, Vuorinen and Vos, 2013; Lindstedts, 2015; Jernsann and Kraff 2015, Martinez, 2016) the extant literature has yet not consider its inherently political dimension. This is problematic not only given the political nature of place branding (e.g. Ooi, 2004, 2008; Anttiroiko, 2014; Lucarelli and Giovanardi, 2014; and Lucarelli, 2015), but mainly because the concept of participatory place branding contain at the same time an agentic-utilitarian view of politics mixed with understanding of participation as democratic project to maximize common shared value and power among different stakeholders (Kavaratzis, 2012)

The present paper offers a conceptualization of the political dimension of participatory place branding. In so doing, the paper performs an analysis of the discourses constructing Kiruna as an “Arctic” place brands. More specifically, by endorsing a critical discourse as both theoretical and methodological framework, the present paper analyses the emergence the different discourses present into media, popular culture and political debate.

Data collection involved a mixed of materials as interviews with local and non-local stakeholders, popular and promotional materials, written text and visual images online and other historical materials gained from archives.

The analysis shows the branding of Kiruna as “Arctic” is a process where none of the traditional stakeholders deemed into participatory branding (i.e. citizens, dwellers, municipality, politicians and media) have full control, neither over their stake nor on the entire process. Further the analysis shows how the power dimension in the branding process is diffused, but not in equal manner among stakeholder. Rather the branding of Kiruna is emerging as a materialization of larger hegemonic discourse about the “Arctic” which is emerging as global (consumer) brand in a way that branding process of Kiruna is both contributing to and trapped into the discourses about the “Arctic”. The present case help to unpack place branding as delicate activity that is discursively constructed as way can bring both economic improvement and socio-cultural deteriorations for local stakeholders in a way that could easily create political problems and political impact that are falling out control.

Reference


\[\text{1 Corresponding author}\]
Causality or coincidence? - an audit of Japan's nation branding

Sven Palys
Mullenlowe Tokyo
Kita-Aoyama 2-10-22, Minato-ku, Tokyo, 107-0061
Email: sven.palys@mullenlowetokyo.com; sven@yuzukyodai.co.jp
Tel: +81 (0)80 3349 3582

Christopher Pokarier
School of International Liberal Studies
Waseda University
1-6-1, Nishi-Waseda, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, 169-8050
Email: pokarier@waseda.jp; Tel. +81 (0)90 6642 8771

This paper first briefly reviews Japan’s considerable official nation branding endeavours over the last decade and critical reactions from within Japan. It notes both legacies of Japan’s long history of public diplomacy and how the nation branding concept has been pretext for incorporation of a wider range of state actors and agendas (Aso, 2006). Elsewhere we explore these shifting ideational constructs, and public institutional and private political economy factors making Japan’s recent nation branding campaigns vulnerable to ‘churn’ in domestic accounts of ‘what sells’ abroad. Such reactive nation branding is exemplified in the institutionised narrative of ‘Cool Japan’ that originated with an 2002 American media report (MacGray, 2002; Sugiyama, 2006), and in the sites and content of campaigns under its rubric. One constant however has been strategic and tactical disregard for negative perceptions of Japan abroad, whether directly associated with war memory issues, or recurrent critical thematics in discourses and survey responses abroad.

The paper maps Japan’s reputational strengths and vulnerabilities, in a consciously interpretative vein, based on extensive and intensive reading of some three decades of Anglo-American media reportage of Japan, secondary analyses, and a meta-analysis of sixty years of Japan-related opinion polling from Australia. Satoshi Akutsu, writing in Dinnie (2008: 219) wrote that “…the equity of a nation brand resides in the minds of its audiences. Somebody must keep track of the equity of the Japan brand and manage this brand effectively, using an analytical approach.” This is yet to happen, we speculate that it may be both a cause and effect of Japan’s established nation branding approach, and our research program aims to help fill the gap.

The paper examines how Japan does perform well on contemporary nation branding rankings and the limitations of these instruments. There is also varied evidence that Japanese firms have both benefited from, and contributed to, a country-of-origin premium in many foreign markets, Yet they also face distinctive political risk in several markets, such as China, owing to historical legacies. Japan’s outperformance on certain nation branding survey measures also may be a doubled-edged sword. A dimension that may serve national interests well in one policy domain - such as ‘uniqueness’ as a tourist drawcard - may be a liability as an investment or residence location. The paper identifies these tensions for further subsequent analysis.

References


1 Corresponding author
The impact of mega events on the country's image: An analysis between corruption perception and tourism competitiveness in South American countries

Thays C. Domareski-Ruíz
University of Vale do Itajaí, Brazil
Fith Avenue, 1100 - Balneário Camboriú – SC – Brazil;
Email: thaysdomareski@gmail.com; Tel: +55 (41) 9978-5570

Adriana F. Chim-Miki
University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain
24 de Maio, Street – Conj. 201, Rio Grande, RS, Brazil
Email: adriana.chimmiki@gmail.com; Tel: +34 630829029 or +55 53 30352730

Edar da Silva Añaña
University of Vale do Itajaí, Brazil
Fith Avenue, 1100 - Balneário Camboriú – SC – Brazil;
Email: edaranana@gmail.com; Tel: +55 (53)8405-1004

Francisco A. dos Anjos
University of Vale do Itajaí, Brazil
Fith Avenue, 1100 - Balneário Camboriú – SC – Brazil;
Email: fsanjos@terra.com.br
Phone: +55 (47) 9985-6547

Objective
The intense global competition in the tourism industry forces destinations to develop unique and competitive destination brands. Literature suggests that corruption affects countries’ business environment, generating negative barriers and hindering its ability to compete as a global player and, consequently reducing the countries’ brand equity (Lamsdorff, 2003). This paper analyses the connection between corruption perception levels in South American countries and its ability to compete in the tourism sector. The objective is to compare the variation on the tourism competitiveness level within a five-year period (from 2011 until 2015) based on the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) with the variation of Corruption Perception Index (CPI).

Design/Methodology
First, the authors performed an exploratory analysis to verify the movements (upward and downward) in this monitors -TTCI and CPI - in South America. This preliminary step identifies the countries that corruption most advanced or regressed during this period. A regression analysis was proceeded to evaluate possible dependency of TTCI to CPI, but the adjustment was very poor due to the existence of an outlier (Brazil). The model only achieved reasonable adjustment on the third moment, when authors added a Dummy variable enabling different treatment for the period/country involved in a mega event.

Conclusions
During the period analyzed, four South American countries moved upward on CPI, six countries toward downward and five remained stable. For convenience, only the countries that presented more expressive upgrades (Colombia, Paraguay, Uruguay), or higher corruption (Argentina, Brazil, Peru, Venezuela) were included in the analysis. Thus, the countries that reduced the corruption tended to improve TTCI. Results suggest that corruption influences the tourism competitiveness level, but this effect may be different when a mega event is imminent in the country. Brazil was found an outlier: although the huge depth in the CPI, the country progressed expressively in 2013, during the preparation for the World Cup, and part of those gains remained during the following years. It is known the power of mega events on the destination’s image due to various factors, and this work contributes to include one factor more, the reduction of corruption perception generated to be a mega event host country.
Originality/value
The majority of researches on destination image and the tourism competitiveness are associated with the attraction of tourists. The importance of tourism destination image is universally acknowledged for affecting people’s subjective perception, behavior and the destination choice (Walmsley & Young 1998), influencing directly in the competitiveness of the destination. However, the destination power to attract investors also influences country’s competitiveness (Das & Dirienzo, 2010). Corruption harms the destination brand and puts away the foreign investment, affecting the internationalization process. More studies about this theme are very necessary.

Research limitations
The major limitation for the study is the scarcity of data and reference on corruption studies applied to the tourism sector. Other limitation was the use of secondary data, however were considered because this is a preliminary step, an exploratory phase of future research.

Key-words: Tourism Competitiveness; Corruption Perception Index; Destination Image.

References
Entrepreneurship and social progress:  
A configurational approach to nation branding

Zhongqi Jin
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department  
Middlesex University  
The Burroughs, London NW4 4BT, UK  
Email: z.jin@mdx.ac.uk; Tel: +44 (0) 20 8411 5571

Richard Lynch  
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department  
Middlesex University  
The Burroughs, London NW4 4BT, UK  
Email: r.lynch@mdx.ac.uk

Nation branding is an emerging field of study that has attracted increasing attention over the last decade (Fan, 2006; Ahn and Wu, 2015). Academic and practitioners have emphasised the important role that nation branding can play as a strategic tool in today’s increasingly competitive world (Che-Ha, Nguyen, Yahya, Melawar and Chen, 2016). A number of models and frameworks have emerged such as the Nation Brands Index (Anholt, 2005), the Fombrun-RI country reputation index, (Passow et al, 2005) and the Nation Brand Pentagon (Amine and Chao, 2005). Some models focus primarily on marketing issues, for example the Brands Hexagon (De Vicente, 2004), and others take a broader economic and social view, for example on the relationship between foreign inward direct investment and its impact on national branding (Dinnie, 2008). This paper has chosen to follow this broader view of the nation branding concept for two main reasons. First, the ‘scant theory underpinning nation branding’ (Dinnie, 2008: 6) suggests that an experimental, wide-ranging approach may add new insights on the nation branding concept. Second, it has been argued that the branding of a nation encompasses elements beyond the marketing branding function itself, such as economic, political and social issues (Fan, 2006.)

In this research, we examine the influences of entrepreneurial activity of a nation on its social progress. We have chosen entrepreneurship because previous research has linked entrepreneurship in countries with economic growth and thus possibly with national branding (Valliere and Peterson, 2009). With regard to social progress, Che-Ha et al. (2016: 17) argued that social (progress) is one of the most important elements of nation branding. They stated: “A country can champion its social or environmental issues to gain support and attention from the world….Citizens affiliated with countries organizing social responsibility may feel proud of their country for helping others and inducing sustainability.” Supporting this view, we note that social progress has attracted increased attention since the publication of the Butland Report (1987) such that it has become a construct on its own (Porter, Stern and Green, 2016).

The purpose of the study is to investigate the influence of different patterns entrepreneurship activity on the social progress of individual nations and thus examine the possible effect on national branding. In other words, we address such research question as: what types of entrepreneurship lead to high or low social progress in different countries. And what is the impact, if any, on national branding?

Given the complex and asymmetric nature of the relationship between entrepreneurship and social progress in different countries, we employ the Fuzzy-Set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (FSQCA) methodology (Ragin, 2009). The FSQCA methodology is based on configuration theory, which we justify in our full paper (Fiss, Marx, Cambré, 2013). Our paper sources national country data from two global survey datasets of 60 countries, namely the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) and the Social Progress Index. Applying configuration theory, our research then explores how different patterns of entrepreneurial behaviour among different countries influence their social progress therefore on the national branding. Focusing on the notion of equifinality (Fiss et al, 2013), the results reveal different patterns of entrepreneurship across countries that can facilitate or hinder social progress and thereby influence the national branding. The findings of the study
have significant theoretical and practical implications for understanding nation branding in general and social progress in particular.

**Key words:** Entrepreneurship; Social Progress; Nation Branding

**References**


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1 Corresponding author
CITY BRANDING
Doha as centre of Qatar’s public diplomacy policy

Alberto Priego
Universidad Pontificia Comillas,
Madrid, C/Alberto Aguilera 23, 28015 Madrid,
Email: apriego@comillas.edu

Since 1995, Qatar in general and Doha in particular have initiated a process of deep transformation (Wiedman, Salama, Mirincheva, 2014) passing from being a small oasis settlement to become an emerging regional service centre. Globalization has been a key factor in this process because Qatar has sought to improve its international position and its national reputation. While many states have tried to exert its influence using public diplomacy initiatives abroad, Qatar has sought to attract that potential audience to their own territory. In this mentioned process, Doha has occupied a very significant place due to the Qatari capital has become the core of the emirate’s public diplomacy policy. In this sense, this article will examine some of these initiatives (Museum of Islamic Art, Souq Waqif, Aspire Park, Lusail Katara Cultural Village or Education City) located in Doha that seek to improve the image of Qatar in the World.

To develop this work we will review Qatari official documents such as Qatar National Vision, The Modern Qatar of the Annual Book of Qatar. Apart form that, the paper will have a solid theoretical framework in which we will included references from International Relations (Structural Realism) and Diplomacy (Sharp, Melissen, Berridge etc ...) will be included.

Key words: Qatar, Doha, Public Diplomacy, Reputation, Persian Gulf

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Roberts, D, B. (2012) Understanding Qatar’s Foreign Policy Objectives. Mediterranean Politics 17(2)
Although place marketing has been long (Kotler et al, 1999), and is increasingly, considered to be an effective strategy for the development and promotion of cities, the scientific elaboration of a Strategic Marketing Plan for a particular city constitutes a research with a high degree of complexity. This is because, on the one hand, the examined ‘good’ (the city) is by nature a multidimensional phenomenon, while, on the other hand, any attempt to imprint the identity of a city has to take under consideration the living experience that only the residents, visitors and users of the urban space can have (Braun, 2008). In this direction, a multidisciplinary team undertook (between 2013 and 2015) the elaboration of the Strategic Marketing Plans for the cities of Larisa and Kozani in Greece.

The common objective was the development of an effective tool for proposing and implementing certain actions aiming at the promotion of the image of the city, i.e. the city itself.

The starting point (the definition of the current and of the desirable image of the city) and the methodology were similar and based on a sectoral analysis, as well as on the results of the field research. The surveys were conducted to residents, visitors and businesses, while semi-structured interviews were also conducted to the representatives of the majority of the stakeholders. The surveys offered significant findings for the better understanding of the identity of the cities.

The main challenge faced by the research team was not only to find the optimum developmental image for each city, but also to adequately differentiate the plans, because both cities are ‘only’ 116 kilometers away and the plans were conducted almost in parallel. However, the methodology eventually led the elaboration of the plans to separate paths, concerning their target groups and packages. This is because the implementation of the specific methodology helps in highlighting the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the cities, revealing their uniqueness (also based on their local distinctive characteristics).

The overall emphasis is on a comparative approach. After a brief presentation of the contexts of the place marketing research and of the way the surveys were designed, the results of the sectoral analyses and the
surveys are analysed. Then, after a brief analysis of the outcome of the double-sided consultation process (electronic and GOPP method), the target groups, the main axes and the marketing packages of the two plans are examined.

References

1 Corresponding author

Visual brand identity of the Polish towns and cities

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Summary of aims
The authors, following the idea of Per Mollerup, assume that visual identity consists of basic elements such as name, symbol, colors, type, and extra decorative element. Two of them – name and symbol – today are called as logo [Mollerup, 2014, 59]. The first objective of a paper is to make an empirical base for city logo examination taking into account the Polish towns’ visual signs used in promotion. The second objective is to analyze the content of logo referring to Beyrow & Vogt’s findings [Beyrow, Vogt, 2015]. The last objective is to examine whether logo is an element of the complete city visual identity system (CVIS) or it is a separate visual sign used by authorities of a particular town in promotion. The authors assume that CVIS is the indicator of the branding orientation.

To make such an analysis the following criteria were considered to choose cities and towns:
1. Large cities inhabited by more than 100 000 people as well as cities, which used to be capitals of the regions before 1999. The number of such cities is 66.
2. Counties capitals that are 269. Those cites, before territorial reforms in 1999, had been supposed to have main administrative bodies such as courts, social security institutions, police, fire departments, etc.

Main approach
Considering three main objectives of the paper the authors follow the thesis formulated by Per Mollerup that logo is a part of the brand [Mollerup, 2014; Healey, 2010; Klein, 1999]. Another concept is the thesis saying that city logo has three main sources of origin: substance, presence and reference [Beyrow, Vogt, 2015]. One of the most crucial undertakings, which was the starting point for the research, was the argument that many social scientists who analyze visual identity of a place do not take advantage of the graphic design theory [Wheeler, 2009; Olins, 2008], while logo designers try to examine social identity of the place before they make a project. For empirical studies the methods of content analysis was introduced referring to Gillian Rose’s model [Rose, 2007]. The authors firstly collected all logos and secondly analysed them using the Per Mollerup’s taxonomy. The following aspects of logo have been compared: sources of inspiration, formal structure of signature and logo content.

Key arguments/findings
Logo is a typical element of place branding in large cities, but not typical for smaller cities in Poland. ‘Substance’ dominates as a foundation of cities logo content, what means that towns, their citizens and authorities perceive logo as a sign which should disclose what exist in reality and what they perceive as significant element for a particular place. City visual identity system is accepted in large cities (45 cites). In the case of smaller cities only 38 of 269 use such visual presentation in practice. Poland is perceived by many other nations as a catholic country, however only six towns actually refer to any of catholic symbols in their visual symbols. Logo and visual identity systems tell much about the cities, their community and authorities.

References
Indirect city-branding through the hyperreal
Representation of the city in advertising – The example of Venezia

1Corresponding author
City-branding is usually a topic that practitioners, official bodies and academic researchers have approached from the marketing perspective, i.e. the deliberate strategy set to better “sell” a city-location to various stakeholders, from tourists to investors. The idea is to shape the city image which, as any location image, is a multidimensional phenomenon involving cognition and emotions. It has been defined as the aggregate of impressions, expectations and thoughts related to a definite place (Kotler et al., 1999; Ulaga et al. 2002). However, some scholars have found that places are “like a blank canvas upon which a series of representation are layered producing a place that is uniquely identifiable” (Staiff, 2014). Such representations include poetry, painting, film, travel writing, postcards, novels, maps, guide books and advertising. They build some imaginary of the place with physical buildings as metonymic characteristics of it, producing in the end some hyperreal meaning of the city, an iconic one (Ellul, 1988; Staiff, 2014). Therefore, studying the successive ways of staging a city in advertising, one should be able to identify the iconic elements of the city, the overall city-image implicitly built (and congruent categories of products) and in the end the culturally-built current visual imagery of the city, i.e. the one being currently promoted by city-branding marketing strategies.

We use Venezia as the field of study. Our objective is to show the hyperreal nature of the current city-image, with the disappearance of distinctions between signified and sign (Baudrillard, 1994), thanks to the successive reproduction of preceding reproductions of reality in ads using Venezia as a setting. To do so, we use semiotics, building some analytic grid. Particularly, we study: the general impression/feelings when observing the ad; denotation; iconic semiotic analysis including gestalt elements; lexicographic analysis of the text present on the ad; enunciation and emitter’s position; whether the ad is opaque or transparent; the connotations that derive from all previous; and the ultimate classification of the ad depending on its ideology (Floch, 1990). More than 100 ads from 1913 to 2016 are currently being coded, also paying attention at the category of product that is represented. The final results will be ready by the time of the conference. Some interesting trends already emerge, for instance the regular empowering nature of the city for human beings represented in the ad, or the transparent nature of the ad.

Besides from providing interesting conclusion on Venezia per se, we believe the added value of the research is also in the methodological approach that could be used by official entities to understand how their city is iconically represented and craft consistent city-branding strategies.

References

The competition which steps down from the country level to city level with globalization, obliges cities to change their viewpoints about their management. In that case, city marketing which is adapted to cities in terms of marketing approaches stands in the breach. The unique cultures that cities have increase the effectiveness of city marketing. As a result of that, implementations of capital of cultures emerge.

In this study, Eskisehir 2013 Turkish World Capital of Culture's appearance on media is analyzed over news from the websites of the national papers. The dates of March 2013 and March 2014 when the Turkish World Capital of Culture happened, news of 5 national newspapers (HaberTürk, Radikal, YenİÇAĞ, Yeni Şafak and Zaman) featured on the internet are subjected to content analysis. AST (Actors-Strategies-Target Groups) City Marketing Model that is generated from ‘Levels of Place Marketing’ table (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993) and other city marketing literature is applied to determine the theme and categories of content analyses. Themes are actors, strategies and target groups and per theme consist of categories. These are local actors (governor, mayor, universities etc.), national actors (ministers, organisations etc.) and international actors (ambassadors, foundations etc.) as actors; image marketing (logos, slogans etc.), charm and attraction marketing (events, cultural and historical heritages etc.), infrastructure marketing (cultural service areas etc.) and celebrity marketing (historical figures, artists etc.) as strategies; tourists, residents, business/industrial environment and export market as target groups. Codes in news texts were found out in compliance with categories and tabulated numerically.

Actors which took a major role in the process of Eskisehir 2013 TWCC, activities which are shown as models for city marketing strategies and prominent target groups are assessed over the data on news. It is possible to say that many activities were happened in the project where official actors took dominant role, Turkvizyon drew attention as a mega organization, many important figures were commemorated, particularly Yunus Emre and Nasreddin Hodja and besides children, youth and artists involved in these activities as target groups.

As functional, symbolic and emotional needs are satisfied by cities (Rainisto, 2003), TWCC was a “flagship cultural project that is promise of exciting entertainment opportunities” (Kavaratzis, 2005). Many artists performed in events about Turkish culture and many visitors around the Turkish World, especially children and young people came together in Eskişehir. TWCC was a bright era for hospitality industry, leisure and souvenir sector. It was a chance for Eskişehir’s narrative as a flagship Project in terms of Rivas’ city branding model (2013). Historical and cultural backgrounds (Yunus Emre, Nasreddin Hodja and other cultural values) were shown by cultural events. All these efforts refreshed identity and image of Eskişehir as well as brand reputation.

* This study was based on Bayram Karakullukçu’s (2016) master’s thesis entitled “Assessment of the Eskisehir 2013 Turkish World Capital of Culture on the National Press in the Framework of City Marketing” under Halil Semih Kimzan’s (PhD) supervision at Graduate School of Social Sciences, Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Eskişehir Turkey.

1 Corresponding author

Place attractiveness and events:
From economic impacts to city branding
Nowadays, place attractiveness is a major concern for all administrative levels. In order to foster the local economy, places tend to attract people, investments and to maintain them. The holistic approach of place attractiveness embodies the social, economics and touristic aspects of attractiveness. The organization of mega-events (Getz 2008, 2007; Ritchi et Crouch 2000) or small-scale events generates economics, touristic, social and urban impacts. Sports, cultural and business events are a value added for the place. In a context of competition between places (Warnaby et al. 2008), city managers develop hallmark events with high-value and image added, which are supposed to generate a strong media impact. These event strategies were originally developed by the major capitals to provide international exposure and thus enhance their competitiveness and attract investors and tourists (Castells, 1989). These events help to strengthen place attractiveness and city branding (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008; Canali, D'Angella 2009). The relations between these concepts of attractiveness, city branding (image and identity) and events should be investigated.

First of all, events have an immediate economical and touristic impact. Economics and tourism impacts are the most immediate benefits and more easily appreciable. Events have also an effect on the image of the place and its identity but these impacts are more difficult to measure. This relationship should be approached in a more interactive way in medium-long term. An endogenous capitalization of interactions can lead to create "event constellations" or event "eco-system". Constellations are formed by the development of companies, organizations, research centers, education projects around recurring events such as the festival of lights in Lyon or the Mobile World Congress in Barcelona. Interactions are both exogenous and endogenous: the ability to develop activities around the event is one of the key-success factors of an event-based attractiveness policy. On a long term, interactions of image and "constellations events" can even transform place identity.

References


1 Corresponding author

Place branding in China
An analysis of 10-year TV advertisements for cities and tourism destinations

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Branding of cities has emerged in China’s media as an unprecedented phenomenon, as the country witnessed an accelerated rate of urbanization from 42.99% in 2005 to 56.1% 10 years later. The public are exposed to an explosive media blitz of branding messages sanctioned by cities and tourism destinations. The plethora of their advertisements is characterized by large quantity, high intensity, and aggregated platforms, the most prominent of which is China Central Television (CCTV). As the only national TV broadcasting network, CCTV monopolizes the top tier of the hierarchy in coverage, attracting the most TV advertisements by cities and tourism destinations. The current paper has analyzed 1,001,053 of these by 1,864 advertisers run on CCTV’s 17 channels over 10 year between 2005 and 2015.

The analysis is conducted in the context of place branding as an open and evolving practice in China. The findings provide the profile of advertised cities and tourism destinations, including their geographic locations, scale and rank classifications, and unique attributes. The findings also reveals the media strategies and clustering characteristics of the advertisers, as well as the changing patterns over the 10-year span, through the examination of their channel selection, genres choice, timing, frequency, and duration. The findings portray a competitive landscape of place branding among cities and tourism destinations on a national scale, based on which the paper has identified the key factors of competition in the place branding practice. The paper also attempts to examine the political, social, and institutional forces that underlying the empirical findings from the data analysis. The paper concludes with a discussion on the implications of the study, including both the data source and the findings, for the practice as well as its contributions to the conceptual development of place branding.

References


Summary of aims
The paper aims to present a sensory place branding framework, integrating concepts of multisensory place experiences and brand love. Such a model has the potential to provide a new perspective within place branding domain, by showing how multisensory place experiences, conveyed by meta and individual experiences, can enhance positive emotions and generate city brand love. Moreover, it lays the foundation for understanding the role of human senses in developing and implementing creative and innovative place branding strategies.

Main Approach
The author depicts from relevant theories in sensory marketing and branding, place branding and brand love to develop a sensory place branding framework, in which multisensory place experiences are key drivers of city brand love.

Key arguments
Cities like London, Paris and New York project themselves as highly experiential and invest millions of dollars to spur tourists’ senses continuously and make them passionate about their cities. Moreover, extant research on sensory marketing and branding stress the significance of the experiential dimensions of consumption such as fantasies, feelings and fun (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) and acknowledges the importance of brand experiential value in creating emotional resonance with consumers (Lindstrom, 2005, Hultén, 2015). Interestingly, a recent study from Barnes et al. (2014) suggests that tourists are primarily driven by sensory experiences when travelling. Hence, it can be argued that multisensory place experiences can elicit strong and passionate emotional attachment (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006) towards place-sensescapes (Berg and Sevón, 2014). The question remains: How can cities create and implement compelling multisensory place experiences that turn tourist into cities advocates and enhance brand love?

References

City branding: A tool for sustainable urban development
Sustainable development has become a common term during the past decades, especially among planners and developers. Its meaning, though, has been revised and rethought since the concept was first defined in the Bruntland Report in 1987. What does the term sustainable refer to? And why is it becoming increasingly important in the context of urban growth?

Global and local awareness towards sustainability issues has been concomitant with another reinforcing trend: globalization. The increasing interdependence between economies – associated with the globalization phenomenon – has generated massive flows of people, goods, services and capital. Although this high mobility has provided huge opportunities for cities and regions to thrive around the world, it has also threatened the stability of local economies.

In this context, cities are required to implement proper policies, allowing them to capture economic wealth and remain attractive in a very competitive and fast-changing environment (Aboulkheir, 2013). More and more cities undertake city branding initiatives to increase or defend their competitive position as attractive places for business, citizens, events and visitors (Boisen, 2007) and increasingly, these initiatives are tied to urban revitalization processes and flagship sustainable projects.

This paper will address the relationship between city branding and urban sustainability. The concept of city branding is a novel one, and can be described as the process by which unique physical attributes of the city are defined and come to encapsulate its essence (Rehan, 2013). My research hypothesis is that city branding strategies can support cities to improve their sustainable urban development. The extent to which this relationship can have fruitful and long-lasting outcomes depends on the implementation of cooperation mechanisms between the residents and municipal governments, moving forward with common goals to initiate growth, development, and success for the city.

This paper is meant to serve as an input for decision-makers in the public sector that are considering city branding as a tool to develop sustainable urban policies, even in the eyes of tight-budgeted government administrations. In an era of unprecedented competition for knowledge, talent and resources, a consistent message that permeates the full breadth of city’s uniqueness can be a powerful magnet for cities seeking investments, specialized human resources and tourism. City branding has the potential to be a leading tool for the expansion of more sustainable-conscious policies in urban centres and should become an element in municipal policy-making.

References


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1 Corresponding author

Imagination and engineering to create the reality of dreams
The branding of Chinese mega-cities

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Under the leadership of Mao Zedong and Deng Xiaoping, propaganda posters and its images offered visible pictures of what these leaders wanted the Chinese society to become. The posters presented new visions of the city, and provided inspiration and models for those in charge of transforming Chinese cities. Decades later, these images have become reality: skyscrapers fill the sky, city lights shine all night, people are surrounded by technological devices, and China has sent men to space (Hsu, 2008). From the 1980’s and onwards, Chinese state propaganda has weakened considerably. During the same time period, place branding has increased in popularity and practice. In this paper it is assumed that place branding in various ways has replaced the function of previous propaganda posters and its imagery.

The aim of this study is to explore in what ways place branding offers visible pictures, inspiration and models of desired city futures; what the underlying practices look like; and who the stakeholders are. The conceptual lens is based on the concept of the imaginary (e.g. Ricoeur, 1994). The imaginary is characterized by the active production of realities and can be likened to a projected image that is socially mediated through discourse and narration. Fieldwork in five of the biggest and most important cities in China was conducted from 2010 to 2014. Field material includes interviews, field notes, and visual materials (e.g. promotional campaigns and images). Carney’s (1990) Ladder of analytical abstraction guided the analysis.

Initial findings show that, similar to the way propaganda posters were used during Mao and Deng’s ruling, place branding today incorporates pictures, inspiration and models which shape policies, that in turn shape the urban landscape and the place brand. The concept of imagineering is used in this paper to capture the character of place branding in Chinese cities; a concept coined by Walt Disney Studios to describe the strategy of “combining imagination and engineering to create the reality of dreams” in creating theme parks (Yeoh, 2005, p. 956).

The paper builds on previous work that, in the context of places, have regarded imagineering a political act (Johansson, 2012; Paul, 2004) that can lead to a simplification of the marketing of places into safe, sanitized versions of the original (Teo, 2003). Imagineering is in this study explained as the creation, formulation and communication of generative city imaginaries that are able to mobilize and activate people and resources in and outside the city. The dreams and realities presented, promoted and narrated (Hollinshead, 1998) primarily belong to a small, privileged group; yet are contested, causing dynamics, tensions and ambiguities.

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Getting them all on board: 
Increasing brand adoption and reducing conflicts in place branding

Erik Braun
Erasmus School of Economics,
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: braun@ese.eur.nl

Sebastian Zenker
Department of Marketing,
Copenhagen Business School
Email: sze.marktg@cbs.dk

Jasper Eshuis
Department of Public Administration and Sociology,
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: eshuis@fsw.eur.nl

Erik-Hans Klijn
Department of Public Administration and Sociology,
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: klijn@fsw.eur.nl

According to Anholt and Hildreth (2005, p. 164), the essential feature of a place brand is “nothing more and nothing less than the good name of something that’s on offer to the public”. Thus, place brand managers try to improve the place’s reputation through place brand management. In doing so, place branding involves a high number of different stakeholders – often leading to conflicts regarding brand content and making it difficult to achieve so-called brand adoption of stakeholders (e.g. Burmann and Zeplin, 2005; Baker, 2007; Wieseke et al., 2008).

This paper examines two strategies to improve the reputation of a place: A) creating brand content that is authentic, so that the communicated brand-image reflects the brand-identity (e.g. Braun, 2012; Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013) and B) stimulating an open debate and discussion in the process of developing and implementing the place brand (e.g. Braun et al, 2013; Aitken and Campelo, 2011; Warnaby, 2009). It is hypothesized that both strategies have a direct positive effect on the reputation of a place as well as two indirect (mediated) positive effects by increasing brand adoption and reducing conflicts about place marketing among place stakeholders.

The data for this study has been collected as part of two large nationwide surveys in the Netherlands and Germany conducted by the authors using the same questionnaire. The research team identified professionals and city officials who are active in place marketing and/or branding of regions and cities in both countries and invited them to participate in a web-based survey (N = 444). Structural equation modeling was used to analyse the data.

Results show that strategy A has a strong direct positive effect on the reputation of a place as well as two positive mediated effects though brand adoption and reducing conflicts. Strategy B also has a positive direct effect on the reputation of the place. Interestingly, the indirect effect through brand adoption is positive, whereas the indirect effect through the level of conflicts is negative. The explanation is that the strategy B leads to more conflicts instead of less and hence results in a negative indirect effect on the reputation of the place. However, the net result of the two indirect effects is still positive albeit very small. Finally, the role of trust in the place branding network is examined. High levels of trust mitigate the negative indirect effect of conflicts of strategy B. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.
References

1 Corresponding author
Does a fresh coat of paint cover the cracks?
A critical examination of the role of social media in Ontario, Canada’s city branding

Evan Cleave
Social Sciences Centre, Room 2436
Department of Geography
University of Western Ontario
1151 Richmond St., London, ON, Canada, N6A 3K7
Email: ecleave2@uwo.ca; Tel: 613 243-8197

Godwin Arku
Social Sciences Centre, Room 2427
Department of Geography
University of Western Ontario
1151 Richmond St. London, ON, Canada, N6A 3K7
Email: garku@uwo.ca; Tel: 519 661-2111 ext. 85343

Place branding can be contextualized as the positioning of a specific set of ideas and values to create a specific and prescriptive place brand image in the mind of the consumer – be it footloose business, talent, or residents. For cities, attempts at creating specific brand images have previously been associated with glossy brochures (Hopkins, 1998; Leigh & Blakely, 2012), slick advertisements (Burgess & Wood, 1988), and sleek websites (Cleave & Arku, 2015; Florek et al, 2006), focusing on cities as centres of business and exciting places to live and play.

Place branding is in the midst of a transition, as new communication technologies have presented local governments with new avenues to develop and promote place images. In particular, social media platforms have provided cities with new ways to promote and position their brands (Cleave et al, 2016). It is currently unclear whether the rise of social media presents a new way to promote and position places, or if it simply represents a repackaging of existing content in a new medium. To explore this issue, this research presents a critical interpretation of the format, content, and symbolism found in the social media platforms of the 51 cities located in the Province of Ontario, Canada. Specifically, this research examines 105 promotional videos hosted on official YouTube channels and city websites, and through a socio-semiotic content analysis (see Cleave & Arku, 2015; Hopkins, 1998) examines the imagery and iconography used to represent, commodify, and position the city brands.

The results of this analysis show that across all 51 cities, the promotional videos positions the brands within a narrow range, focusing on three key motifs: cities as places of business; cities as confluences of natural, historic, and urban landscapes; and cities as places to ‘live, work, and play’. As a result of this limited range of motifs, there is a homogenization of the imagery and iconography presented, where cities are generally unable to succinctly differentiate themselves from other places. Additionally, it is evident that these promotional videos are simply retreading existing branding tropes, rather than being utilized in ways to ‘reinvent’ approaches to city branding. Since promotional videos and other online content are increasingly being pursued, it is incumbent on local governments to ensure they are using these emerging platforms to present content that truly differentiates themselves from other places, otherwise they are likely to be lost in the increasingly homogenous social media space.

References


\(^1\) Corresponding author
Place branding and cultural policy: An exploratory analysis

Giannina Warren
Middlesex University
The Burroughs, London, NW4 4BT
Email: g.warren@mdx.ac.uk

Keith Dinnie
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department
Middlesex University
The Burroughs, London, NW4 4BT
Email: k.dinnie@mdx.ac.uk

The branding of places is now firmly established as a field of study (see, for example, Govers and Go, 2009; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005; Lorenzini et al., 2011; Morgan et al., 2011; Warnaby, 2009) despite the multiple challenges that are entailed when attempting to apply place marketing as governance strategy (Eshuis et al., 2013). The relationship between place branding and culture represents one of the most crucial dimensions of place branding, with many different stakeholders involved and consequently many different narratives and claims to be managed by policy makers. The place branding/culture relationship may be analyzed at varying levels of place, be it city, region or country level. It is in the context of cities that the relationship between culture and the place brand is examined in this study. Cities have increasingly pursued cultural policy and place branding imperatives that revolve around notions of ‘creativity’ and the industries that fuel it (Davis, 2013; Lübbren and Crouch, 2003). This has necessitated the rapid growth of a particular occupational subset in taste-making and promotion tasked with discourse dissemination about culture and creativity in an urban context. Despite the influence this promotional work might have on greater urban policy decisions, very little research has explored the occupation or its impacts. Using a qualitative and social constructionist approach, this paper draws from Bourdieu’s (1984) notion of ‘cultural intermediaries’ to examine the promotional actors in place branding, identifying where they might intersect closely with urban policy planners and politicians, leveraging their social and cultural capital to help guide policy decisions in the development of the ‘Creative City’.

References


1 Corresponding author
Branding Beijing as mega-city through its vibrant entrepreneurial community

Hong Fan
Omnicom Building School of Journalism and Communication
Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084
Email: fanhongthu@qq.com; Tel: +8613501364268

Anastasiya Poshinova
Omnicom Building, School of Journalism and Communication
Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084
Email: anastasia.poshinova@gmail.com; Tel: +8613241473319

It is now widely accepted that the "creative class" can be instrumental in promoting a place's economic and cultural development (Florida, 2005, 2008) and that, while having particular needs, talented residents can become an important target audience of city branding (Zenker, 2009). This paper describes and analyses the ways in which planned sustainable creativity in the form of entrepreneurship has widely developed and come to maintain itself in Beijing, the capital of China. The paper also focuses on the current and potential outcomes of such rapid entrepreneurial development as well as its implications for city branding.

Beijing's Zhongguancun Science Park has been previously described as "the Silicon Valley of China" and studied by several authors (Zhou, 2005, 2007; Cao, 2004). Indeed, according to recent data, Beijing, a city of over 20 million residents, largely outnumbers other Chinese mega-cities in the amount of start-ups. Following a series of 42 in-depth semi-structured interviews with Beijing entrepreneurs—local and foreign alike—this paper has concluded that Beijing's entrepreneurship has spread far beyond the Zhongguancun Science Park; it is now an integrated part of the city changing the face of the place and bringing together a strong community of creators. Moreover, it has become apparent that Beijing's multi-cultural start-up community is in the process of developing a unique identity, which is widely different from that of the Silicon Valley or any others. This has not only prompted a speedy development of the city's economy and infrastructure, but also encouraged an international dialogue aimed at bettering the community and the lives of people around it through non-profit organizations, forums and online discussions. Descriptive in nature, this paper could contribute to the discussion about certain theoretical terms within the broader framework of place branding such as ‘community’ as well as some of the more specific terms related to entrepreneurship such as the definition of a ‘start-up’. It also provides insight into the nature and potential of the Beijing’s start-up community.

Keywords: Cities, branding, creativity, community, entrepreneurship

References

Global migration has transformed urban life by causing diversification of cities’ populations. Migration has brought new classes, ethnicities and occupations to cities. In so called ‘super-diverse’ (Vertovec, 2007) cities the diversity has become diverse, which makes it difficult to speak of distinct “minorities” because singular identities are no longer the rule but rather the exception. Super-diversity in a cities’ population impacts on the identity of a city. A key issue in this respect is how cities respond to the changes in their identity, and whether and how they include diversity in their brand. City branding has been hypothesized to be a key “strategy” for defining a new “shared sense of belonging” that can bond citizens to the city (Zapata-Barero, 2013; Wood & Landry 2008; Cantle 2010). Place brands represent the city symbolically. They are used to create a specific image of a place and distinguish the place from competitors, by evoking particular associations with the place (Kavaratzis 2008; Eshuis and Edwards 2013; Eshuis and Klijn 2012). In order to differentiate the place brand from competitors specific symbolic or experiential features are coupled to the place, through a specific brand concept (Park et al. 1986). Thus, brands are selective, involving emphasis of particular topics and values over others. Thus how super-diverse cities brand themselves may differ greatly. Cities may use their “super diverse” features to create an inclusive image and attract knowledge workers, or be reluctant to use diversity in their brands due to political resistance.

This paper aims to unravel how super-diverse cities re-imagine themselves in response to migration-related diversity. Do cities for example promote festivals and events organized by different ethnic groups to include diversity in their brand, do they choose diversity as a brand value, or deliberately feature people with different ethnic backgrounds in their brand communications?

The paper addresses the issue how cities brand themselves when a socially and politically contested issue emerges in the heart of their identity. The research question is: what role does diversity play in city branding in super-diverse cities, and how can this role be explained?

We use a comparative case study on the branding strategies of two Dutch cities, Amsterdam and Rotterdam. Both are “super-diverse” with about fifty percent of the population having a migrant background.

The paper shows that diversity is part of the brand identity in both cities, but not used prominently in the brand communications. Diversity is framed strategically to turn it into an asset that enhances the brand. Thus city marketers in both cities frame diversity mainly economically, drawing on diversity to position themselves as a strong city of trade that attracts people from all over the world. Amsterdam will soon also start a campaign with a social goal of acknowledging ethnic diversity as something valuable. Our analysis shows that the wider discourse in the city and municipality influences how diversity is used in the brand, even though city marketers try to stay at a distance from local politics. If a more inclusive discours is stronger within the municipality, diversity becomes more prominent in the brand communications and also it is framed in more varied ways (not only economical but also social). there is a harsh discours vis a vis diversity then it is less prominent in the brand communications, If and mainly focusing on economical positioning.
References


¹ Corresponding author
Redefining Cali: Cultivating a brand in post-conflict Colombia

Jennifer Ashley McDevitt
Department of Conflict Analysis and Resolution
Nova Southeastern University
Fort Lauderdale, Florida USA
203 Oriental Avenue, Atlantic City, NJ 08401 USA
Email: Jm2888@nova.edu; Tel: +57 3117027020

For over half a century, Colombia has been perceived by many outsiders as an unstable, corrupt, and dangerous locale. Decades of civil war thwarted tourism development, but the tides have changed over the 21st century as politicians and policymakers have redoubled their efforts to promote peace and change in their country. In the summer of 2016, an initial peace accord between the Colombian government and the leftist guerilla group, FARC (Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia), was finally reached (Washington Office on Latin America, 2016). As the transitionary process unfolds, tourism stands to serve as a force that can at once promote peace and foster the economy throughout the country.

Nestled in the Andes Mountains in the southwestern region of the state, Cali has been welcoming foreigners as the tourism industry has been expanding in recent years. The self-proclaimed salsa capital of the world and branch of heaven (“la sucursal del cielo”) has enjoyed an increase in international arrivals each year for the past several years. There were, for instance, nearly 2 million international arrivals to Cali in 2015, an increase of 7.3% from 2014 (Secretaria de la Cultura y Turismo Santiago de Cali, 2016). As dozens of new hostels and businesses catering to tourists emerge throughout the city, it is important to consider foreign tourists’ perceptions of the security situation in a city that was once infamous for its violent cartels and countless kidnappings. During May and June of 2015, the researcher interviewed 20 American and European travelers who were visiting Cali for the first time (McDevitt, 2016). The existential phenomenology, rooted in qualitative methods, examined the lived experiences of members of the sample population through the lenses of cognitive dissonance, globalism, and constructivism (De Castro, 2003; Giorgi, 2008; Moustakas, 1994). Data analysis yielded six major themes that demonstrated very favorable views of the security situation: sense of safety; safeguards; hypervigilance by night; geographic disparity; outside influences; and response to security officials. Two additional themes regarding the ambiance of the city arose as well: friendliness of locals; energy of city (McDevitt, 2016).

These positive impressions of Cali, even before the peace treaty was achieved, signify hope for the burgeoning hospitality industry and can inform a city branding and marketing strategy. In developing a successful brand that will attract foreigners to a city that remains unbranded and largely unknown outside of Colombia, it is essential to consider the viewpoints of the local stakeholders, the Calenos. Given the rise in security during this pivotal period in Colombian history and the potential for tourism development, now is the time for Cali to take the reins and brand itself as safe, desirable destination for people around the world.

References


Assessing participation in studies of place identity

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Summary of aims
Consistent with a band-orientation approach (Baxter, Kerr & Clarke 2013), the place brand should be internally driven, with residents at the center of branding decisions. This presentation addresses the concept of place identity, and highlights the need for participatory research with residents in the initial stages of place brand development (Mueller & Schade 2012; Kerr & Oliver 2014). The place branding literature addresses the important role of residents in strategy development (Braun, Kavaratzis & Zenker 2013; Eshuis & Edwards 2013). Although some place branding studies claim participatory status through collaborative workshops, they do not analyse participation beyond noting that the end user was involved. Rather than assuming success, we argue there is a need to assess whether participatory studies achieve their goal of gaining participation between residents and researchers.

Main approach
The concept of place identity is introduced and defined in relation to other brand elements, such as place image and brand identity. Considering the need for brand acceptance among residents (Anholt, 2010; Insch & Stuart 2015), the argument for authenticity in place brand strategy is established. The link between authentic place branding strategy and participatory approaches is discussed (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2015), and the need for assessing participation is introduced. Participation is explained from a communication perspective, and refers to the type of interactions between speakers (Eggins 2004). The systemic functional linguistic theory of speech function (Eggins 2004) is introduced as a method to assess participation in discussions of place identity. Interviews with residents of an Australian city illustrate the applicability of this method.

Key arguments/findings
This presentation reveals the need and ability to assess participative research in the brand building process.

References


1 Corresponding author
Place branding: A student perspective of the Liverpool experience

Joe McGrath
Liverpool Business School
Liverpool John Moores University
Redmonds Building, Brownlow Hill, Liverpool, L3 5UG
Email: j.mcgrath@ljmu.ac.uk; Tel: 0151 231 3447

Peter Simcock
Liverpool Business School
Liverpool John Moores University
Redmonds Building, Brownlow Hill, Liverpool, L3 5UG

Summary of aims
This paper applies the brand experience scale onto the student experience of Liverpool and further analyses the results to enable more segmented and targeted marketing.

Main approach, key arguments
City branding has developed over the past 15 years into a sub-discipline within marketing and is seen by many as a multi-layered intangible service. (Anholt 2010; Hankinson 2004; Kalandides and Kavaritzis 2009; Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008). The literature base within city branding is dominated by qualitative studies with limited use of empirical quantitative research (Gertner, 2011; Pitkanen et al 2010). Recent brand marketing literature has explored the role of the consumer brand experience scale as an effective tool in predicting satisfaction and loyalty (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010; Iglesias et al., 2011, Nysveen et al, 2012). This study utilises the quantitative assessment of the brand experience scale (Brakus et al. 2009) within the city brand experience in an attempt to bridge the gap between these areas. The development of consumer segmentation within city branding is also recognised as an under-researched area with more recent marketing literature proposing that further investigation is required within the sub-segments of the city brand consumers. (Zenker and Martin 2011; Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013)

Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires using an on-line survey from 428 student respondents involving three universities within the city of Liverpool. These results were analysed using SPSS and AMOS structured equation modelling tools.

Findings
The study develops the brand experience scale and validates the applicability within the realm of city branding. Furthermore the results provide marketing academics and practitioners with a tool to enhance quantitative research and empirical analysis in the field of city branding. The research also provides a direct and practical insight into the student experience of Liverpool, providing direction to the city brand stakeholders. The research recommends that further research is undertaken in other cities and amongst other consumer segments.

References


Cultural event and its effect on city image: The case of Constantine the capital of the Arab Culture 2015

Kamila Ghidouche Aït-Yahia¹
ENSM (Management School)
Kolea University Center
42000, Tipaza, Algeria. www.ensm.dz.
Email: k.aityahia@ensm.dz; Tel: +213.662.75.91.52

Faouzi Ghidouche
EHEC (Business School)
Kolea University Center
42000, Tipaza, Algeria. www.hec.dz
Email: fghidouche@hec.dz; Tel: +213.561.38.23.61

Special events are important components of place branding. Many cities use it in order to improve their image and attract various targets (visitors, investors, residents) as well as economic and social fallouts (taxes, tourist expands, cohesion, pride building).

Several scholars were interested in the economic impact of mega event hosting on a destination (Della Bitta et al., 1977); (Pyo et al., 1988); (Murphy and Carmichael, 1991); (Kang and Perdue, 1994). Nevertheless, only few studies have covered events’ effect on image due to its unquantifiability and intangibility. In order to address this issue, researchers have developed scales to define the city image (Anholt, 2006); (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990); (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993); (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003); (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997); (Kalandides and Kavaratzis, 2011); (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007); (Luque-Martínez et al., 2007); (Phillips and Schofield, 2007); (Zenker et al., 2009); (Zhang and Zhao, 2009).

As Ritchie and Smith (1991) quoted, the Winter Olympic Games in Calgary is a prime example of event impact on city’s image. More recent studies focused on countries that welcomed world cups and confirmed this impact: South Korea (Kim and Morrison, 2005); Beijing (Chen, 2012), (Li and Kaplanidou, 2013), (Zhang and Zhao, 2009); (Guojun et al., 2011, Zeng et al., 2011), Germany (Florek and Insch, 2011).

Regarding cultural events, the following cases could be mentioned: Rotterdam European capital of the culture 2001 (Richards and Wilson, 2004), FIE¹ of Lasi(Dospinescu, 2014), or the Eurovision 2012 (Azerbaijan) (Arnegger and Herz, 2016).

This paper aims at discussing the contribution of a cultural event on city image in the case of a developing country. The case of Constantine² have been picked to illustrate this statement. Constantine hosted a mega-event in 2015 as the capital of the Arab culture. This event was the opportunity to make major rehabilitation works in the city to put forward the cultural and patrimonial heritage.

Thorough this paper, we try to define how Constantine’s capital of the Arab culture event brought citizens together and contributed to strengthen a positive image.

An online survey has been conducted with 150 respondents in July 2016. The findings revealed that the event had a positive effect on Constantine’s image. The city was described as pleasant, friendly and worth visiting. However, respondents also raised the fact that Constantine’s Image has been tarnished by the controversy that surrounded this event.

This paper has two main contributions: a) Heighten the Algerian government and local authorities’ awareness about including place branding strategies in the improvement of the city’s image. b) Contribute in extending the Anglophone literature by showing place branding practices in Algeria.

**Key words:** mega event, city branding, image, empirical study, Constantine

¹International Festival of Education
² The third largest city, located in north-eastern Algeria
References


1 Corresponding author
Developing an inclusive city brand identity: Stakeholder engagement as tipping or balancing the scales of stakeholder input?

Laura Reynolds
Cardiff Business School
Cardiff University, UK
Aberconway Building, Colum Drive, CF10 3EU
Email: ReynoldsL4@cardiff.ac.uk; Tel: +447793238485

Nicole Koenig-Lewis
Cardiff Business School
Cardiff University, UK
Aberconway Building, Colum Drive, CF10 3EU

City branding extends beyond the compilation and promotion of physical assets, and encompasses fundamental intangible assets, including the practices, institutions, and ultimately the people shaping a place’s identity (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015). Yet, complexities arise given the interlocking of formal and informal stakeholders connected through spatiality, operating within the boundaries of concurrent economic, social, cultural, and political interests (Kavaratzis, 2012; Pryor and Grossbart, 2007). Stakeholder engagement is premised as a valuable tool to balance and represent these overlapping interests, by fostering reciprocal communication, relationships, commitment, and trust between stakeholders (Enright and Bourns, 2010; Hanna and Rowley, 2011). However, previous research underexplores the intricacies and problems associated with the use of stakeholder engagement when balancing interests from diverse stakeholder groups, and devising an inclusive city brand identity. These gaps are explored through an empirical case study of Bath’s city brand identity, comprising of 20 in-depth interviews with key internal stakeholders involved within the visitor economy, inward investment, and the local community. By moving beyond the positive connotations associated with stakeholder engagement and extending the focus to include three competing stakeholder groups, the research aims to explore how stakeholders exert influence within the city branding process, and the extent to which stakeholder engagement balances or tips the scales of stakeholder input.

The preliminary research findings are divided into four themes inductively developed and thematically analysed. First, the existence of multifarious stakeholder viewpoints regarding Bath’s city brand identity from the perspective of the visitor economy, inward investment, and local community are identified, demonstrating the competing demands of uniqueness, greatness, and trueness. Second, the hierarchy of stakeholder involvement within engagement strategies are pinpointed, with stakeholders involved within inward investment gaining influence through partnership building, in contrast to the local community whose input remains restricted to consultation and information accumulation. Third, a crisis of legitimacy amongst stakeholders is illustrated by the fluctuating stakeholder input based on expertise, leadership, numbers, and vision. Last, the potential to intercede the hierarchy of stakeholder involvement and prevalence of top-down initiatives is underscored by the emergence of informal and imaginative engagement tools, such as events and festivals. Resultantly, the research illuminates the darker side of stakeholder engagement within city branding, which is tipping the balance in favour of stakeholders who hold pre-existing influence. The research pinpoints the need for greater inclusivity when fostering a city brand identity, and the potential of holistic and imaginative engagement tools to achieve this pursuit.

References


1 Corresponding author
The study is aimed at describing the types of counter narratives evolving in a city brand process, how they are understood and dealt with and how they may influence brand management. Place and city branding is about leading change and change may give rise to resistance. Therefore brand resistance and counter narratives among residents and civil servants play an important role in place and city branding and may eventually lead to direct counter branding activities as seen in several cities, i.e. Randers (Jensen 2007), Glasgow (Gray and Porter 2014) and Rio de Janeiro (Maiello and Pasquinelli 2015). All Danish city brand projects (over 25) are tax financed. Mayors play a key role (Jørgensen 2015) in the brand process and there is a close interaction between mayors, top management and heads of communication. Three Danish municipalities have been selected for analysis, Horsens with a well documented change of image over the last 15 years but with the third mayor in office, Kolding and Odense where projects were launched two years ago, and where the mayors are still in office. Horsens and Odense has used a top-down decision process while Kolding has developed a project based upon a bottom-up process involving hundreds of residents.Interviews are conducted with the mayors representing political legitimacy and contact to voters, the city CEOs representing top management and heads of city communication representing the organization responsible for support to and development of the brand process. Empirical findings from the interviews are analyzed using the theoretical narrative methods as presented and applied in Counter Narratives and Organizations (Kuhn et al. 2016). Counter narratives are identified, categorized and potentially applied as resources in the brand process in the perspective of managing change (Kotter 1995).

References


Corresponding author
The aim of this paper is to explore the importance and the nature of citizen involvement for branding places during mega-events, particularly the various ways in which residents can be included at stages of application for the status of host – city and the very realization of events in question. These issues are going to be analysed from the perspective of place representatives were the event takes place.

Theoretical developments in place branding evolve towards the concepts of stakeholder participation, co-creation and co-production (Kavaratzis, 2012; Aitken, 2011; Klijn et. al., 2012), moving the notion of place brands further away from promotional perspective, where the place branding process is limited to top-down approach, Ratha participatory and dynamic approach to place branding is put forward which implies that place brands are seen as networks of multiple stakeholders (for example Hankinson, 2004) and the process of place branding happens through the series of interactions among them. Within this new paradigm, a growing body of literature is devoted to internal stakeholders (citizens, local authorities and leaders) of a place and their unique role in bridging the gap between the brand idea and reality as well as creating an authentic place experience (Zenker and Efrgen, 2014; Insch and Florek, 2008; Kavaratzis, 2012).

The idea of involving internal stakeholders in place branding activities becomes all the more pressing during events that have a particularly strong potential for influencing external perceptions of a place and whose success depends largely on community participation. One such type of events are international exhibitions (Expos) during which the citizens may become the advisors to the local government and the co-creators of place experience. What is more, citizens very often are motivated by the very fact of being the host place and start engaging themselves in branding activities also long after the event ends.

Theoretical part of the paper examines and conceptualizes the notion of citizen involvement in place branding through the use of developments from such disciplines as public management (stakeholder theory, citizen-centred government, public value, government 2.0. and other) and corporate branding (e.g. brand identity, internal branding, brand culture, brand co-creation). Empirically, the authors adopt institutional perspective to local stakeholders’ involvement with the attempt to identify how public institutions responsible for organization of Expo in several cities (Lisbon, Zaragoza, Milan, Wroclaw, Astana) view this issue, what practices they employ and what are major challenges, limitations and outcomes of these activities. A series of structured interviews with institutional representatives of Expo host-cities will be held in order to find common gaps between theory and practice of citizenship and to indicate areas of further analysis.

References


\(^1\) Corresponding author
Place Branding through multiple stakeholders: Medellín (Colombia) and Barcelona (Spain),
two successful comparable profile case studies on urban regeneration and city brand transformation

Norberto Muñiz Martínez  
Facultad de Económicas y Empresariales  
University of León (Spain)  
Campus de Vegazana, 24071 León, Spain  
Email: nmunm@unileon.es

Juan Carlos Belloso Gil  
Future Places  
Major de Sarrià 185-187, Esc. 1, 2º 1ª  
08017 Barcelona (Spain)  
Email: jcbelloso@futureplaces.com; Tel: +34 628 303 673

Place branding is establishing itself as a main field of academic research on its own as well as a common practice among many territories - cities, regions, countries and destinations - seeking to improve their living conditions, enhance their exchanges with various targets - citizens, visitors, investors, etc. – and, ultimately, improve their position in the national and international arenas. As the process of socio-economic globalization has increased, different comparative analysis from an international or inter-regional place branding perspective have been developed (Zenker and Jacobsen, 2015).

However, these analyses are usually carried out comparing territories belonging either to the same country or to territorial units of two or three countries that border each other. Studies analysing cities in different countries (not necessarily with border areas) or territories from an intercontinental perspective but with strong similarities in their transformation processes, are not very common. It has prevailed therefore the criteria of geographical proximity to the one of comparing places with similar profiles in distant locations or even from different continents or geographical areas.

This paper analyses the successful place branding processes of two cities - Medellín (Antioquia, Colombia) and Barcelona (Catalonia, Spain) – that, in spite of presenting obvious differences arising from their geographical and socio-political historical context, both show certain similarities in their urban transformation processes, based on a deep and continuous metropolitan regeneration process combined with the creation of a powerful territorial brand. In fact, these two cities have already cooperated in mutual benchmark initiatives in order to learn from each other.

The methodological approach of this paper is to analyze the service interactions among the multiple stakeholders involved and engaged in each city, studying the complex many-to-marketing (Gummesson, 2008) exchanges, where there are sometimes particular conflicting interests between certain social actors –local citizens and tourists in Barcelona; or problems arising from the unequal social groups and neighbourhoods in the case of Medellin-. Thus we follow the emerging - Service dominant Logic – (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2014), an holistic mindset that provide us the theoretical-conceptual framework to conceptualize places –cities, nation or countries- as complex systems of exchanges, according to an up and coming future integrative service science view (Maglio and Spohrer, 2008), applicable within different social sciences perspectives.

References


¹ Corresponding author
On the role of public diplomacy in Beijing branding:
Dilemma and prospects

Ou Ya
China Foreign Affairs University
No.24, Zhanlanguan Rd, Xicheng District, Beijing, PRC 100037
Email: Eurasia11@gmail.com; Tel: 86-10-68323947

Xiong Wei
China Foreign Affairs University
No.24, Zhanlanguan Rd, Xicheng District, Beijing, PRC 100037

Within the context of the rise of China, Beijing is urging to promote its world city identity, however, much of its efforts might be in vain. Based on an survey of foreigners’ understanding of Beijing, this paper finds that the foreign public’s perception of the city shaped by international news coverage such as the New York Times, in which Beijing is typically stereotyped as political icon shadowing its cultural or social identity by content analysis of the coverage from 2005 to 2016. Public diplomacy might provide new approaches to alter the status quo but the effects depends on Beijing’s real understanding of public diplomacy and its willingness to change of the communication mode and mechanism.

Key Words: News Media Image, City Branding, Public Diplomacy, Beijing

References


1 Corresponding author
Are cities communicating a consistent image?
Analysis of the congruence between place and destination personality

Sara Vinyals-Mirabent
Universidad Pompeu Fabra
C/ Roc Boronat, 138, 08018 Barcelona (Spain)
Email: sara.vinyals@upf.edu; Tel: +34 669 554 934

José Fernández-Cavia
Universidad Pompeu Fabra
C/ Roc Boronat, 138, 08018 Barcelona (Spain)
Email: jose.fernandez@upf.edu; Tel: +34 935 422 408

City branding has become a major topic for governments to compete internationally in different strategic markets in order to strengthen their economies (Kavaratzis 2004; Gertner 2011; Braun 2012; Kotler et al. 1993). In this context the concept of brand image becomes relevant. Building an overall and stable brand image is crucial for the success and positioning of the cities (Qu et al. 2011; Kalieva 2015; Zenker et al. 2013). Nevertheless, cities usually compete in different markets at the same time and sometimes they are managed by different organizations. One example is the touristic facet of city brands, which has traditionally been led by a separate department or organization (public or private). City brands should be a reflection of a touristic destination, a city to attract investment, a place to live, etc. at the same time. However, even though this complexity makes the construction of solid and stable brands more difficult, city brands must be consistent and recognizable across different messages, no matter the stakeholder they are targeting (Zenker 2014; Qu et al. 2011). Building a coherent image becomes a competitive advantage for the city brands (Sahin & Baloglu 2014; Brown et al. 2006).

This research aims to determine the congruence between the projected city's image disseminated by different official websites. As previous researches point out, personality is a useful indicator to determine the alignment and congruence between different brands and between brands and consumers (Stokburger-Sauer 2011; Campbell et al. 2010). Further, the study adopts Aaker's (1997) brand personality framework. Specifically, the study focuses on the case study of Barcelona. The information communicated via the official websites is analyzed as representative of the projected brand image (Campbell et al. 2010). To that end, barcelonaturisme.com, managed by Tourism of Barcelona, and meet.barcelona.com, managed by the Barcelona City Council, are analyzed.

A computerized content analysis is carried out following the methodological approach set by Pitt et al. (2007) and further research on projected brand personality (Pereira et al. 2014; De Moya & Jain 2013). It concludes with a City Brand Congruence Index (CBCI) based on two factors. On one hand, it searches for the presence of similar personality traits across the content of both sources. On the other hand, the prevalence of these traits across the website hierarchy is weighted according to the level of occurrence. The qualitative data analysis software NVIVO is used to conduct the analysis (Bazeley & Jackson 2013).

Keywords: Place branding, Destination branding, Brand image, Brand personality, Communication congruence

References


¹ Corresponding author
What are the predictors of residents’ loyalty to city and neighborhood?

**Shaked Gilboa**
School of Economics and Business Administration
Ruppin Academic Center, Emek Hefer Israel
Email: shakedg@ruppin.ac.il; Tel:+97298983818

**Eugene D. Jaffe**¹
School of Economics and Business Administration
Ruppin Academic Center, Emek Hefer Israel
Email: eugenej@ruppin.ac.il; Tel: +97298983066

According to a recent publication by Maia Lewicka in the Journal of Environmental Psychology, about 400 articles have been published in the academic literature concerning place attachment, identity and related terms. Nevertheless, there is still a debate as to whether residents have greater attachment, identity and loyalty to city or to neighborhood. Another area of research that has not been sufficiently studied is whether a city’s image affects these relationships. This study has been designed to answer these questions.

An area sample of 150 residents was drawn from within the city of Haifa, Israel, 50 each from three distinct geographical neighborhoods that differed by socio-economic standing. They were personally interviewed. Respondents were asked to rate their attachment, involvement and loyalty to both city and neighborhood and to give their perception of the city’s image. Seven point, multi-item Likert-type scales were used to measure all constructs in the conceptual model. Measures for the place dimensions such as loyalty, attachment and involvement were either developed for this study or based on existing sources (e.g. Brown, et al, Kavaratzis, M.). In addition to responding to the scale items, respondents stated how long they resided in both the city and the neighborhood, and whether other family members and friends live in the city. They were also asked whether they work in the city and how much time it takes to travel to the workplace. Finally, demographics such as age, marital status, income education, size of household were given.

Principal component factor analyses were run on all scales. Reliability (Cronbach α) ranged from .521 to .954. A four factor solution for city image was found: Environment, Green Spaces, Affordable and Accessible Housing, and Transportation. Following these findings, a one-way Anova showed significant differences between respondent image of City and Neighborhood. Regression analyses were used to determine the predictors of Loyalty to both City and Neighborhood. Results showed that Loyalty was a function of Involvement and Attachment.

Income and education were found to have a significant relation to attachment, involvement and loyalty, although this was expected because of the *a priori* selection of the neighborhoods.

**References**

¹ Corresponding author
Cornerstones of success in city branding: Practitioners’ understanding from a comparative study of 12 European cities

Teemu Moilanen
HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences
Pajuniityntie 11, 00320 Helsinki, Finland
Email: teemu.moilanen@haaga-helia.fi; Tel: +358-405107317

In today’s globalized, networked world, every city finds itself competing with every other city for its share of the world’s consumers, tourists, businesses, investment, capital, respect and attention (Kerr, 2006). Since late 90’s thousands of cities around the world have launched city branding initiatives. Thus it is not surprising that the number of academic studies on how cities identify, develop, communicate their attributes to external as well as internal audiences has also increased rapidly over the last 15 years (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Hanna & Rowley, 2013; Moilanen, 2015).

Parallel to the burgeoning academic literature on place branding, criticism against the research domain is harsh, maintaining that place branding has developed in a most fragmented way (Papadopoulos, 2004; Skinner, 2008; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). In their state-of-the-art review of the research domain of city branding, Lucarelli & Berg argue that there is a general tendency among researchers to largely rely on case studies rather than comparative or multi-case studies and that "...the empirical foundation of the city branding domain is largely based on anecdotic evidence with few comparative studies" (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011, 14).

From managerial point of view it seems that increasingly the question facing cities is not whether to brand, but how to brand. Therefore a clear understanding of the experiences practitioners have accumulated when attempting to brand their cities is central to the development of the theoretical concepts and frameworks in the field.

This article is in response to Lucarelli’s & Berg’s (2011, 23) call for more systematic and robust research that deals with a larger number of cases and reporting city branding implications in a concise and practical manner. In contrast to most other expositions on city branding, this comparative study examines city branding processes of 12 European case cities.

This article focuses on city brand managers’ understanding of cornerstones of success in creating and managing brands of cities. This comparative study examines managerial experiences gathered in the city branding processes of 12 European cities and is based on interviews with 20 high-ranking city branding practitioners. Eleven cornerstones of success in city branding’ were identified and are described and discussed in detail in the article.

Keywords: brand, city branding, brand management, comparative, place branding, brand success

References


Until the logo do us part:
An assessment of residents’ response to a city brand logo re-design

Virimai Mugobo
Cape Peninsula University of Technology
Corner Tennant and Keizersgracht Streets
Cape Town, South Africa
Email: mugobov@cput.ac.za; Tel: +27 21 460 3030; +27 79 037 1487

Aim of the Study
The logo is one of the most important components of a brand’s architecture. Any change in the brand architecture has the potential of affecting the reputation and image of that brand on the market. This study endeavoured to assess the impact of the re-design of a place brand logo on residents’ perceptions and attitudes towards the brand.

Main Approach
The study’s research design adopted a mixed methods approach as it used both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. 200 semi-structured questionnaires were administered on local residents purposively selected in order assess their perceptions and attitudes towards a new logo that has been launched by a city council. 10 in-depth interviews were also carried out with place branding practitioners in order to understand the dynamics and benefits of place brand logo redesign. The participants in the interview were selected using judgmental sampling techniques. The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS and the qualitative data was analysed using ATLAS.ti.

Findings
The results of this study indicate that most residents of the city are aware of the new logo and have a favourable perception of the city. However, most of the residents are of the view that they were not consulted by the city during the process of designing and developing the new logo. The study also found out that the lack of consultation with residents had a relative effect on their perceptions and attitudes towards the new logo. The results of the study also highlight that those residents who have lived in the city for a longer period of time generally perceive the new logo more favourably that those who have lived in the city for a relatively shorter period of time.

Theoretical Implications
This study provides new theory on how local residents assess city brands after the introduction of a new logo. The findings clearly show that the non-involvement of residents in the logo re-design process affects their perceptions and attitude towards a city brand logo.

Practical Implications
The study reveals that any alteration of one or more brand elements may generate negative perceptions from stakeholders’ leading to an erosion of brand equity. It is therefore important for key stakeholders such as residents to be involved in the development of a city’s brand and its component features such as the logo and the slogan.

Key words: Logo, re-design, residents, perception, attitude

References


Countries and cities are now managing and controlling their branding strategies to attract tourists, factories, companies, and talented people (Dinnie, 2004). Nevertheless, because of the complexity and dynamism of place brands, the branding efforts of cities and places often face substantial challenges, and one of the main challenges in this regard is city brand positioning. According to Insch (2014), cities must position themselves to generate strong emotional bonds with target audiences while maintaining credibility. To tackle these challenges, this research aims to propose an alternative city-positioning tool that is practical in nature. The first objective of this research is to adopt various place branding concepts and create a tool that can help city administrators develop their city brand positioning. Based on the brand architecture concept, this new tool allows city administrators to evaluate their city brand from a multi-level perspective and to determine the appropriate comprehensive brand positioning for the city. As its second objective, this research aims to use the tool to evaluate and determine the appropriate city brand positioning strategy of Bangkok. As the capital of Thailand, Bangkok is a good example of a complex city with multiple target groups and various attributes, both positive and negative. The successful application of this framework to Bangkok implies the probable generalisability of this tool in other contexts.

The proposed City-District Divergence Grid can help city administrators evaluate the divergence of the attributes and personality of the city and their sub-units or districts. Attributes include activities, economy, nature, socialisation, and transport (Anholt, 2006; Zenker, 2009; Merrilees et al., 2012; Insch & Sun, 2013); whereas, responsible, active, aggressive, simple, and emotional dimensions represent the place’s personality (Geuens et al., 2009). If the personalities and attributes of the city and the districts are very similar, the characteristics are supposedly ‘convergent’. Conversely, if the perceptions of attributes and personalities are significantly different, they are ‘divergent’. Each pair of city and district divergence result is plotted on the grid. When all the coordinates are plotted, the city administrator can evaluate the pattern and suggest the appropriate city brand positioning strategy according to the brand architecture concept by D. A. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000).

This research employs questionnaire surveys to collect data from residents in Bangkok. The author selected ten districts that represent all six zones and three density levels: Samphanthawong, Huai Khwang, Bang Kapi, Prawet, Chatuchak, Bangkok Noi, Sathon, Bang Na, Bang Phae, and Bang Khun Thian. The analysis used a total of 789 responses. The analytical procedures begin by testing the perceived difference of attributes’ quality and dimensions of personality between those of the city and of the district. Using paired-sample t-test analysis, the author determined how many city-district pairs of quality and of attributes and dimensions of personality residents perceive to be significantly different. The results were then plotted on the City-District Divergence Grid (Figure 1). From the results, this proposed tool suggests the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA) position Bangkok and its district brands using the sub-brand or endorsed-brands strategies.
References


DESTINATION BRANDING
AND MARKETING
Co-production in place marketing as the basis for tourism development

Aleksandra Sazhina
National Research University Higher School of Economics, Perm campus
1 Krasnoarmeiskaya, 5-99, 614007, Perm, Russia
Email: alexandra.perm@gmail.com, Tel: +79655568910

There is no doubt that residents can play crucial role in tourism development. On the one hand residents can support various touristic events in cities. But on the other hand, there are plenty cases then touristic activities were not appreciated by residents and therefore such misunderstandings led to conflicts between tourists and residents. In order to avoid such conflicts it is important to involve residents’ in development of touristic and place marketing products (for instance, engaging residents in co-production of place marketing activities) as it was proved that residents’ involvement leads both to a clearer place marketing concept and to increased effectiveness in terms of attracting tourists (Klijn et al., 2012). Co-production can be defined as active public participation in the production of services by consumers that they can be themselves. In case of place marketing and tourism it is stated that residents should be involved in the activities devoted to cities promotion and development. There are can be various ways how residents can actually participate in place marketing co-production activities aimed at tourists. First of all, residents can give recommendations to potential tourists on various places to visit or activities to take part in. Secondly, residents can volunteer in various events aimed at attracting tourists. Thirdly, residents can make tour excursions, sponsor events and let their flat to leave in (known as coach surfing).

The main aim of this research is to estimate residents’ intentions to participate in co-production of place marketing activities. For this reason we have developed conceptual model (Figure 1), which was tested with the pilot questionnaire on 412 respondents. Questionnaire addressed residents’ personal characteristics, their personal attitudes towards coproduction and place marketing and tourism activities. Questionnaire was distributed via the internet from 13.06.2016 till 20.06.2016. The socio-demographics of the respondents are the following: 58 % are females, 67 % are 21-35 years old, and 49 % has incomplete higher education.

We have discovered that there can be several ways of residents’ co-production activities in tourism such as giving recommendations for tourists, volunteering, conducting slum tourism tours, letting flats and sponsoring (willingness to pay for place marketing activities). It should be highlighted that by the dependent variable “Willingness to pay for co-production” we meant how much money residents personally are eager to invest (to sponsor) into FIFA event.

After getting crucial feedback from pilot questionnaire, we are going to verify this model on the sample of residents of 11 Russian cities, in which the 21st FIFA World Cup will be held. We are going to test residents’ intentions to co-produce this event. Moreover, all the respondents showed different level of willingness to co-produce: some of the respondents was absolutely against this idea, some tended to have relatively fair attitude to co-production and some was absolutely supportive about this idea. Hence, all the respondents will be then divided into three groups according to their level of readiness to co-produce place marketing events (negative, neutral or positive) with the use of multiple regression. Therefore this data can be used in order to develop efficient place marketing strategies.

After verification on stratified sample this model will help in understanding residents’ intention to co-produce tourism and place marketing activities. This knowledge can be useful in predicting and managing residents’ behavior which can be the basis for future tourism development strategies.
Figure 1. Proposed conceptual model of residents’ intention to co-produce place marketing activities

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Destination Youth Olympics: Lillehammer Winter Games

Anahit Armenakyan
Nipissing University
100 College Dr., North Bay, Ontario, Canada P1B 8L7,
Email: anahita@nipissingu.ca; Tel: (705) 474-3450 ext.4280

John Nadeau
Ohio University
Copeland Hall, Athens, Ohio, USA
Email: nadeauj@ohio.edu

Anja Hagen Olafsen
University College of Southeast Norway
Bredalsveien 14 3511 Hønefoss
Email:anja.olafsen@hbv.no, Tel: +47 31 00 96 30

Summary of aims
The introduction of the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) has allowed for advancing the image of the Olympic Games (OG) in supporting the health, welfare and aspirations of world youth. Whether or not the YOG can effectively achieve these ends depends on youth's engagement with the Olympic movement and its affiliated entities of the Games including the hosting place. However, research on youth and the effects of the OG on youth sports participation is limited and outdated (Côté & Hay 2002; Berger et al. 2008; IOC 2013). Thus, the aim of this pilot study is to establish a basis for the program of research that will make a significant contribution to understanding, explaining, and supporting beneficial impacts of mega-sport events, in particular the YOG, on the sport consumption attitudes of youth and subsequent perceptions about the YOG and the host place as a tourist destination.

Main approach
The pilot study was conducted within the context of Lillehammer 2016 YOG. The current study targeted parents as guardians who are essential in their support of youth sports consumption; hence, it is of great importance to explore parents' attitudes towards the YOG and its influence on children's sport participation. The usable (convenience) sample of 43 responses from Norwegian parents of children of 10-18 years of age was collected via online questionnaire, comprised mainly of 7-point Likert scale items.

Key arguments/Findings
It is argued that parents' attitudes towards the YOG and their children's sport participation will have a direct positive influence on parental perceptions of YOG as an event and tourist destination. The results show positive attitudes towards the YOG as an event and destination and Norway as a host-destination. The results of the multivariate analysis indicate that the higher the YOG Involvement Index (YOGII), developed on the basis of Zaichkowsky's (PII) scale (1985), the more satisfied Norwegian parents are with the quality of the YOG as an event/destination as well as with Norway's hosting of the Games. Moreover, the higher the level of YOGII among parents, the higher is the perception of sports' contribution to children's social, affective, physical, and overall performance abilities. Similarly, parents of children with high level of active sport participation were more satisfied with the quality of YOG than those who reported low level of sport participation. At the same time, the latter group reported higher levels of positive attitude change after the Lillehammer YOG on the perception of YOG as an event and destination. These findings should be approached cautiously as it would be expected that parents of children highly involved in sports might be more inclined to develop favourable attitudes towards the YOG and related entities (e.g., the host destination). Also, the sample was drawn from the host-country population, which might also contribute to the home-country bias. Future studies might want to take into consideration the impact of sport involvement as well as hosting on the attitude development towards YOG.
References


\(^1\)Corresponding author
The influence of place of residence on destination image:  
A case study of Czech images on London

Barbora Cherifi  
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department  
Middlesex University  
The Burroughs, NW4 4BT, London.  
Email: B.Cherifi@mdx.ac.uk; Tel: (0044) 0208 411 3001

This study aims to contribute to knowledge in the area of destination image. In particular, it investigates how country and place of residence influence destination images and their formation. Country of residence of individuals was considered as a factor in a number of previous destination image studies (e.g.; Ryan and Pike, 2003; Beerli and Martín; 2004; Prebensen, 2007; Yilmaz et al.; 2009), very few studies however looked at variation of destination images within a country of residence (Shanka and Phau, 2008), and in particular at the relation between destination images and degree of urbanisation of place of residence of potential tourists. This study explores Czech images of destination London.

Overall, three hundred responses were collected in this qualitative study conducted in the Czech Republic. This is a comparative study, three case study areas with different degrees of urbanization within the same country were chosen for the purposes of this exploratory enquiry. The research was conducted in Prague 8 as a metropolitan case study area, Kolín as a large town case study area and, lastly, in a number of small towns and villages in the Českomoravská Vrchovina area. The collected responses were translated from Czech into English and analysed through multiple analyses, the key one being thematic analysis. In particular, the thematic framework analysis was adopted, according to guidance by Ritchie and Spencer (1994). Some of the stages, mainly identifying thematic framework stage, were conducted repeatedly in order to ensure rigor of the analysis and the results chapter being largely data-driven. Secondary data for Eurobarometer (2009) were further used to enrich findings of the study.

The themes identified in this study in regards to the influence of country of residence on destination image include cultural distance, environmental distance, perceived geographical distance, and the Czechness of sources. Other themes in regards to the specific place of residence of potential tourists include comparisons of the imaged environment to the place of residence, comparisons of the imagined environment to the visited one, distribution of information and cultural capital, the presence of tourists/working foreigners as well as goods in place of residence. Of interest, it was also found that that there were different uses of destination image sources across the three case study areas.

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The role of the ambassador or high commissioner in developing national interest through place brand promotion

Barry Tomalin
Management and Governance
Academy of Diplomacy and International Governance
Loughborough University London
Email: barrytomalin@aol.com; Tel: 07785 975550

The diplomatic community has, on the whole, embraced public diplomacy as a way of promoting foreign policy to overseas and domestic publics (Nye, 2011). Recently, as discussed by Anholt (2007), Dinnie (2008) and Govers (2009), considerable emphasis is now placed on place brand strategies as part of national soft power foreign policy. Although, knowledge of co-ordination of policy at national level is increasingly well researched and documented, the implementation of this policy at the level of individual diplomatic missions is much less so. When it comes to implementing a place brand policy there is a need to study at local level who in the local diplomatic mission should be responsible for co-ordination and implementation and deciding if at all, how the political focus of place brand should be adapted to local host environments. As diplomats are in a very real sense the brand ambassadors of their countries, clarity on these questions is an important issue.

This presentation considers the results of exploratory research into finding the higher value-creating variables and their relationships to the role of the Ambassador/High Commissioner in place brand promotion. Through a grounded theory approach the authors seek to uncover emerging themes and patterns concerning diplomats’ attitudes, approaches and actions to developing national interest through place brand promotion. Semi-structured interviews have been used with the aim of capturing the major elements or concerns governing priority, best practice and attitudes to place brand using as a basis Commonwealth Embassies and High Commissions based in London. Additionally, the study explores the existence of potential conflicts of interest between political priorities and commercial place brand requirements.

Using the brand hexagon framework, as devised by Anholt (2005), the presentation discusses implications for diplomats, business and research, with specific focus on the linkages that relate the traditional role of Ambassadors/High Commissioners to developing national interest through place brand promotion. This ongoing research also explores the theory of public diplomacy and place brand in order to enhance our understanding of best practice in the field.

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Summary of Aims
This case study research will explore the successful use of the Winter Olympic Games to develop a sustainable tourism destination identity that is based on a combination of sporting events and nature based sustainable tourism. Lake Placid, NY is a small, rural village with a 2015 resident population of 2,356 (TownCharts, 2016). It is located in the Adirondack Mountains of upstate New York, USA. It was host to the 1932 and 1980 Winter Olympics.

Main Approach
Via interviews with community and U.S. Olympic Committee leaders, the authors examined the role that the 1932 and 1980 Winter Olympic Games played to develop a sustainable tourism brand and identity for a small, rural community. 1980 Olympic Bid Committee Chairman Norm Hess stated that the Committee’s motivation was to update the winter sports facilities and to establish Lake Placid as a winter sports center in order to boost the local economy (Reilly, 2014). Interviews revealed that the 1932 Games were a successful initial mechanism for the development of winter sports venues. The 1980 Winter Games concentrated on modernization of these 1932 legacy facilities. But the biggest legacy and contributor to a sustainable tourism market was that the 1980 Winter Olympics provided impetus to the N.Y. state government to financially support winter sports venues. It is the only state government in the USA that provides an annual appropriation of USD$4.3M and accumulative capital improvements approaching USD$40M (Steenberge, 2016).

Literature Review
The successful brand recognition of Lake Placid, NY is in line with the work of Blain, Levy and Ritchie, (2005) and Murphy, Pritchard and Smith, 2000. The Lake Placid success appears to be associated with multi-attribute theory combining perception about physical attributes combined with emotions towards the Olympic Games via repeatedly citing Lake Placid, NY in a variety of media and online outlets during each Winter Olympic Games. Finally, since Lake Placid, NY is a small community, the local marketing organization has assumed regional marketing responsibilities. It appears that the success of the Lake Placid regional tourism efforts is supported by Cai (2002) regarding the benefits of cooperative branding for rural destinations.

Key Findings
The success of Lake Placid, NY that has become a permanent winter and summer training facility for the United States Olympic Committee is a testament to the power of the strategic and fiscally responsible use Olympic Games to successfully sustain a community over 80 years. Central to this sport-tourism
sustainability is the strategic absence of a 50,000 to 100,000 permanent seat Olympic stadium. This community currently manages winter Olympic legacy venues such as a modern bobsled/luge track, two ski jumping towers, a cross country/biathlon course, an aerial ski training facility, three regulation ice rinks and a ski resort capable of hosting both men’s and women’s downhill skiing.

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Measuring impact of social media campaigns on place brand perceptions

Daniel Reyes
Universidad EAFIT; MKS Comunications Consulting
Carrera 13 #90-36 OF 502, Bogotá, Colombia
Email: dreyes@mkscomunicaciones.com; Tel: +57 (300)517-6231

Social media has become one of the main communication channels between brands and consumers, and place brands are not alien to this concept, especially when seen as part of the public diplomacy strategies of countries, or tourist promotion efforts of cities and regions, they are considered as one of the main tools to communicate with citizens, both their own as well as foreign.

The efforts of place brands in social media are based on several premises: the first one is that social media can be used to reach large numbers of people from all over the world; the second is that the people who manifest an interest in the contents published by place brands in social media are potential tourists, buyers or investors in the aforementioned places and the third one is that a brand needs to have a large number of followers or fans in social media, and this is the measure of success for a digital communication strategy. However, none of these three premises has been validated and consequently place brands work based on suppositions and extrapolations.

This fact implies that place brands have thus resorted to the generic measurements proposed by each networking site, such as “Likes” in Facebook or “Retweets” in Twitter, when in reality one more effective measurement would be to determine if there is a change in perception about a place derived from exposure to content published by the place brand.

Research goal

Determine if social media strategies, specifically in Facebook, for Place Brands have a real impact on its followers, or if on the other hand people already have a set image of the place, that leads them to follow the brand, as a show of “support” but there is no real effect on place perception.

Specific goals

1. Determine people’s motivations for following a place brand.
2. Determine the interests of potential place brand followers.
3. In the case of place brand followers, determine if there has been a change in their opinion of the place.

Methodology

This is the first phase of a broader study, in which Facebook users were asked to complete an online survey. The survey was multiple choice and was divided into two sections, one for users who already follow a place brand and those who do not.

Research Hypothesis

People who follow place brands in social media have a previous relationship with the place, and that led to their following of the brand, making social media ideal for loyalty building campaigns, but not to reach new audiences, and their interaction with the brand serves to reinforce their preconceived ideas of the place, but not really change it.

Preliminary results

Initial results tend to corroborate the research hypothesis.
Challenges in marketing and branding of conflict-ridden destinations: Istanbul as a case study

Erdinç Çakmak
Academy of Tourism
NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, the Netherlands
Email: Cakmak.E@nhtv.nl

This study investigates the marketing and branding challenges of conflict-ridden destinations. Marketing a destination, in particular combining with a brand is proportionally difficult for destination marketers, who are involved at problematic conflict-ridden destinations. Although the principles of destination marketing and branding at these places are no different from others, conflict-ridden destinations are far more complex than stable tourism destinations. In conflict-ridden destinations a range of stakeholders from policy makers, aid workers to business owners pursues their own agendas, which influences the character and duration of conflict. Moreover, conflict issues do not exist only in conflict-ridden destinations. In recent years, we have witnessed terrorist attacks in popular tourism destinations such as Paris, Brussels, Nice and Istanbul. Tourists and tourism establishments were directly influenced in these cities and in larger scale these attacks have affected negatively the global tourism industry. Permanent, sporadic or temporary crises and threads such as economic downturns, natural disasters, outbreak of disease, terrorist attacks, political unrest and war influence remarkably tourism destinations. While the tourism industry in the developed world recovers relatively faster after a crisis, it is not the case, however, for the developing states and regions. To some tourists, for instance, in the case of Istanbul, the whole country Turkey might be viewed as a destination and be avoided. This results not only to an abrupt decline on the performance of tourism businesses throughout the country but also to a strongly negative impact on the country image.

The empirical part of this study includes Istanbul as the locus of study; an online survey was conducted with a sample of 192 Dutch students who were considering studying in Istanbul as part of an Erasmus exchange. Previous studies such as those by Beerli & Martin (2004) and Çakmak & Isaac (2012) were drawn in the development of the survey instrument. The results of this study provide clear support for a positive relationship between the tourism destination image and the condition of being ‘safe’ and being protected against the risk posed by any non-desirable events. However, the mean scores for the intention constructs show that individuals who have visited Istanbul in the past tend to perceive the city as being safer and feel more comfortable considering to visit the city in the future as part of their Erasmus exchange.

References
The importance of brand architecture for the place brand management: the case of Orvieto (Italy)

Fabio Forlani
Department of Economics
University of Perugia
Via Pascoli, n. 20 - 06123 Perugia (Italy)
E-mail: fabio.forlani@unipg.it Tel: +39 075 858 5272; +39 328 216 2130

Simone Splendiani
Department of Economics
University of Perugia
Via Pascoli, n. 20 - 06123 Perugia (Italy)
E-mail: simone.splendiani@unipg.it; Tel: +39 075 858 5272; +39 347 777 9166

Summary of aims

The place brand is a key asset for the competition among tourist destinations (Ritchie and Ritchie, 1998; Buhalis, 2000; Gnoth, 2002; Morgan et al., 2002; Kerr, 2006; Hankinson, 2007; Baker and Cameron, 2008; Kavaratzis, 2004, 2012; Hanna and Rowley, 2011, 2015). This is proper especially nowadays, due to recent changes in demand, characterized by the research of symbolic and experiential content (Andersson, 2007; Morgan et al., 2009; Rageh et al., 2013; Neuhofer et al., 2012, 2014).

However, it turns out to be very difficult to apply effective strategies of destination branding, especially in contexts where the tourism offer is characterized by fragmentation and lack of strategic co-operation (Bonetti et al., 2006; Sciarelli, 2007; Pencarelli and Gregori, 2009; Aureli and Forlani, 2015).

The aim of the research is to analyse the case of Orvieto, a city of great historical, artistic and cultural importance, located in the Umbria region. Orvieto is a prime example of a place with a remarkable tourist potentiality which is not sufficiently overworked and with inferior results (arrivals, presences and international visibility) than destinations of the same level (e.g. other cities of Tuscany).

The goal of this work is to understand whether the problem is to be traced in the excessive fragmentation of the communication of the offer, and, in particular, in an inappropriate management of the architecture of the place brand (Aureli and Forlani, 2016).

Moreover, through the work on the data of the Orvieto case, we will try to identify the possible option of the modalities of integration of the brand of the city, of the area, of the attractions, of the events and of the operators (single or/and associated).

Main approach

The analysis focuses on the public entity (the municipality of Orvieto) and other 8-10 interesting subjects from the point of view of brand policies. The case study (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003) of Orvieto has been chosen because of some characteristics as the quality of the attractions (Cathedral, St. Patrick's Well and wine and food) and particular features of the local system (several small operators). These features make it an ideal case to study the policies related to the brand architecture (Aaker, 2004; Dooley and Bowie, 2005; Uggla, 2006; Moilanen, 2008; Chailan, 2008, 2013).

Key arguments/findings

The analysis of brand policies is carried out observing the actions undertaken by the local actors. It is developed through desk analysis, using in-depth interviews and focus group to the persons responsible for communication policies. The performance achieved in terms of brand image (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1998) is measured through:
• the online visibility (assessed through an index);
• tourists’ perceptions evaluated by the analysis of on-line reviews and consumer satisfaction survey.
References


Destination image, event satisfaction and post-visit attitudes in event marketing.
Results from a tourism experience

Giada Mainolfi
University of International Studies of Rome
Via C. Colombo, 200 - 00147 Rome (Italy)
Email: giada.mainolfi@unint.eu; Tel: (+39) 346.0148359

Vittoria Marino
University of Salerno
Via Giovanni Paolo II, 132 - 84084 Fisciano (Sa) - Italy
Email: vmarino@unisa.it; Tel: (+39) 089.963022

Summary of aims
The aim of the study is to analyze the relationship between destination image and event-tourism experience, analyzing how the outcomes of the visit are able to influence the event loyalty and attitudes towards the destination.

Main approach
The main contribution of the research is to propose an interpretative model able to extend the current knowledge on the impact that the image of a tourist destination can exert both on tourism satisfaction and post-visit behavior. Empirical evidences show that destination image is an antecedent of tourism satisfaction that, in turn, has a positive influence on destination loyalty (Chi and Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2009). Although the recent literature is paying particular attention to the economic impact of events, also in terms of socio-demographic and motivational characteristics at the basis of visitor expenditures (Thrane, 2002; Qu et al., 2011), the field is still new and there are some scientific gaps related to the interactions between destination beliefs, event satisfaction and intentions to buy products originating in the hosting territory.

Methodology
Reliability and validity of the measurement scales were established through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). A structural equation model (SEM) test with maximum likelihood estimation was performed to test relationships among the research variables using 395 tourists participating in the event "Luci d'Artista" in Salerno (Italy).

Findings
Empirical evidence has shown that destination image plays a significant role in influencing the choice of the destination as well as the consequent behaviors, e.g. tourism experience, satisfaction and future behavior (intention to revisit and word-of-mouth). Outcomes can offer useful insights in order to foster a place branding strategy integrating image strategies related to tourism sector and those linked to national productions.

References
Tourism literature is replete with destinations conceptualized in terms of hyperreality (Belk, 1996; Eco, 1990), simulacra (Baudrillard, 1995) and exhaustive postulations of visitors traversing authentic-inauthentic boundaries (Cohen, 1988; Wang, 1999). This fertile line of discourse in destination marketing is usually shaped in the post-modern tradition and deal with the existential as well as experiential aspects of the visitor-destination interface. A more rational-grounded and consumer-functional perspective, however, has not previously been incorporated into extant conceptualizations of the same phenomenon.

In this paper, we refer to faux destination branding as the practice by destination or place developers and marketers of (mis-)appropriating existing qualities and attributes of places, sites or attractions for the purpose of marketing and promoting other places, sites or attractions. We highlight parallels of such practices with those found in the marketing and consumption of consumer goods (Hart, Hoe, & Hogg, 2004; Penz & Stottinger, 2005) but seek to distinguish facets uniquely applicable in the tourism marketing setting. Without ignoring insights generated by more nuanced philosophical considerations of the authentic-inauthentic dichotomy, we layer such concerns to the background and instead bring to the fore and focus on a more functional yet phenomenological-based analysis from the perspective of rational actors such as destination promoters and place developers (e.g., of man-made parks).

We base the paper’s arguments on a systematic review of both non-scholarly (destination case studies, news reports, marketing brochures and promotional paraphernalia) and scholarly literature (specifically those dissecting the nature of a wide variety of tourism attractions). The paper then seeks to conceptualize the requisite conditions giving rise to faux destination branding practices and the paradoxical relations between original and faux destination brands, among which is their apparent co-existence and mutually reinforcing effects (Yoo, 2005).

Tentatively, the paper posits a typology of faux destination branding practices. These include miniaturization (e.g., mini-Europe in Shenzhen, China), trans-location (e.g., the ubiquity of African safaris in non-African locations; exportation of live wildlife such as pandas for exhibition or temporary displays of cultural relics such as Terra Cotta warriors), replication (e.g., the Venetian hotel in Las Vegas and Macau; an entire Austrian village re-created in rural China; the ubiquity of iconic towers in most modern cities), and re-labeling (e.g., Macau as “Asia’s Las Vegas” or “Monte Carlo of the East”; Shanghai, Beirut or Budapest as “Paris of the East” or EPCOT in Orlando as a “community of tomorrow”). Underlying such typology is the appropriation of characteristics or qualities emanating from one established branded site or destination to another.

The paper then theorizes how faux destination branding may in part be conceived as an offshoot of original destinations becoming elusive, elitist and exclusive as a result of ill-considered branding and marketing efforts—a logic that has significant parallel in consumer goods marketing (Phau & Prendergast, 2000). We also examine effects of scarcity and functional (e.g. promotional) advantages of faux branding for destination
marketers developers, basing these on various socio-psychological principles such as perceptual short cuts and stimuli generalizations.

The paper then examines the possible implications of the theorized process engendering faux destination branding in relation to issues of trademark, place brand ownership, and destination marketing in general.

References

Getting social for love of a brand: How social interaction can effect brand love in the case of destination

Nuri Wulandari\textsuperscript{1}
IBS Indonesia
IBS Jl.Kemang Raya no.35 Kebayoran, Jakarta Selatan, INDONESIA 12730
Email: nuri.w.h@ibs.ac.id; Tel: +62 811 964 741

Vanessa Ghayatri
IBS Indonesia
Email: vanessaghayatriek@gmail.com

Summary of aims
In today's world, social media has been an important part of the customer-brand interaction. Brands are active in social media to engage with the customers thus create love for the brand. Researches showed that interaction within community in social media can enhance customer relationship (Laroche, Habibi and Richard, 2013). A relationship that goes beyond satisfaction might result in brand love. Brand love is an emotional and passionate relationship present between a satisfied customer and a brand (Carrol and Ahuvia, 2006). One of important aspect of brand love is when a consumer having frequent interactions with the brand or thought about having interaction with the brand (Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi, 2012). As recent concept, the studies on brand love in the context of destination are still rarely found and yet the practice of brands engaging with its customers in social media is now widespread. This study is aimed to gain understanding how social interactive engagement in social media platform can affect brand love in the context of tourism destination. In addition, this study also investigates social identity and familiarity as possible mediators of the two constructs.

Key arguments
The study argues that social interactive engagement can affect brand love mediates by social identity and familiarity. A person can fall in love with a destination brand when they are socially engaged and becoming familiar with the brand or the interaction enhance their social identity (Vernuccio et al., 2015).

Main approach
A quantitative study is planned by the means of questionnaire survey. It targets 150 respondents from Jakarta, Indonesia, which collected by convenience sampling. The object of the study is traveller who uses social media as a tool to gain information about a destination. Instagram, a social media application, is specifically chosen since it has large base of travel related accounts. Therefore, this study investigated respondents who are active Instagram users that follow travel related accounts in the last three months. The data will be analyzed using structural equation modeling with partial least square approach. The finding is expected to give practical contribution to destination marketers on what to aim when engaging with their customers in the social media world.

References
The current study is primarily concerned with extending the current knowledge about place identity by developing a comprehensive model, revolving around on website, image, satisfaction, intention to (re)visit and recommend within the marketing discipline. In recent decades, destination image has been acknowledged as a significant aspect in enhancing tourism and destination marketing. In a context of such relentless competition between countries and their tourism industries, having a favourable website place about a specific destination carries a strategic power, which strengthens the tourism industry and influences destination image. Perceived as being at the forefront of change in the world, UK has attracted the world’s attention and accounted for 2.9% of global arrivals in 2015. Based on UNWTO international tourist arrivals, UK ranked eighth and was in sixth place in the international tourism earnings league (down from fifth in 2014) behind the USA, China, Spain, France and Thailand according to UNWTO figures.

By examining the conceptual model which has been designed based on previous studies, this study challenges the claims for place identity as a key element of destination image, contending that attitudes towards websites can influence visitors’ motivation and intention to (re)visit or recommend the place. Despite the significance of and the attention on the relationship between place identity and destination image, little systematic research has examined the effect of the attitude towards website place on consumer evaluations of destination image. This study aims to addresses a number of research gaps noted in the literature about the role of place branding and destination image from visitors or potential visitors’ perspective. This study adopts a mix-method research design – a predominantly quantitative approach, is supported by insights from an exploratory phase encompassing in-depth interviews and focus groups discussions. The key contribution stemming from this research is a multi-disciplinary foundation for place identity to provide a holistic perspective of the domain in place branding/image/identity/destination
literature. It is hoped that future research will build on the research findings so that further avenues can be explored.

1 Corresponding author

A tale of two rivers- How “region-based tourism” promotes the enhancement of a place’s cultural creative industry. A comparative case study between Yili river valley at Xingjiang Yili and Lanyang river valley at Taiwan Yilan

Randy Tung-Jung Hsiao
School of Journalism and Communication
Tsinghua University
Haidian district, Beijing, China, 100084
Email: randyxiaothu@qq.com; Tel: +86-137-0108-1558

Aims

"Region-Based Tourism" (RBT) is the guiding principle and direction of general reform of regional development proposed and promoted by the China National Tourism Administration early 2016. The paper aims to explore the role of RBT in terms of enhancing the cultural creative industries of a place. The focus is especially for influence of branding and marketing on the industry chain (e.g. the grape’s primary, secondary and tertiary industries are vineyard, winery and wine culture industries) of a place.

Main approach

The study is based on direct observations, governemental document information and interviews with government officials, enterprise staff, civilians and social workers. The first step is to sort out the interaction between every two parts of the tripods namely government, residents and industry. The second step is to analyse what is the core/common interest that might affect/influence all 3 parts. The third step is trying to simulate out a model that could be used for different places to adopt and work out a best solution accordingly. And how/in what ways eventually “Region-Based Tourism” can enhance a place’s cultural creative industry.

The study reveals preliminary results from two cases, namely Yili river valley at Xingjiang Yili and Lanyang river valley at Taiwan Yilan. The researcher has been working on city branding and communication of Yili’s newly built city Kekedala (a preliminary report presented in 2013 Tsinghua City Forum-Positioning City).

Key arguments/findings

The study found that there exist three major co-related factors: the visionary of government policy, the power of culture industry innovation, and the coordination of residents and industry to share local resources. The sum of positive interaction among these three factors is the main key to the implementation of the RBT and to generate positive contribution to it.

In the mean time, as part of the cultural creative industries the branding and marketing of the industry chain has played an important role in promoting regional economic development, because it integrates the local elite of agriculture, manufacturing and service industries, attracts external marketing teams and stimulate innovation vitality.

Originality/value

This is the first time a paper from three perspectives -namely government, the industry and civilians - explores how RBT can yield the best from cultural creative industries; and to study how the cultural creative industries can rediscover its value out of branding and marketing of the industry chain.

Keywords: Region-Based Tourism, cultural creative industries, the industry chain, branding, Xingjiang Yili, Taiwan Yilan.

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Exploring the dialogic potential of selected African nation brands

Robert E. Hinson
University of Ghana Business School
Legon, Accra, Ghana
Email: rhinson@ug.edu.gh

Ellis L.C. Osabutey
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department
Middlesex University
The Burroughs, Hendon NW4 4BT
London, UK
e.osabutey@mdx.ac.uk

Africa’s image has been one of the major challenges in attracting investment in development on the continent. Using Kent and Taylor’s Dialogic communication potential of this study attempted to examine the online dialogic communication potential of the five of the top 25 country brands in Africa using Bloom Consulting’s 2014/2015 rankings.

Countries, over the years, have competed for inward investments, tourists, talents and exports sales. In recent times, there is even keener competition amongst countries to gain the right to host world events, such as the Olympics and FIFA Football World Cup. Country branding, which is about employing strategic marketing to promote a country’s identity, is increasingly becoming a strategic tool that countries are using to gain a competitive edge over other countries. The notion that a country can be marketed to the rest of world for growth, tourism, trade, inward investment and positive image is not new. What is relatively new is the introduction of the word “brand” being applied to a country or nation. The definition of a brand, like many post-modern concepts, lacks consensus. Functional brand components seem to play a major role in a consumer’s description of place brands during the various decision making stages (Balakrishnan, Nekhili, & Lewis, 2011). This finding highlights the importance of stressing functional components in the destination’s branding strategy. Hankinson (2009) holds the view that destination marketing in general requires a special type of marketing. Many of the studies in destination branding like those mentioned above have looked at several aspects of destination branding but there has been no focus on the dialogic potential of country and destination branding websites.

The dialogic communications approach provides a theory-based, strategic framework to facilitate relationship building with publics through the World Wide Web (Kent & Taylor, 1998). Public relations practitioners and scholars have expressed great interest in the Web. Organizational Web sites and homepages serve such public relations functions as outlets for news releases, opportunities for research of publics, and dissemination of organizational information. These Web sites also offer opportunities for immediate response to organizational problems and crises. Building relationships with stakeholder audiences via the web requires five key things: ease of use, usefulness, return visits, conservation of visitors and dialogic loop. This framework has been applied to several sectors such as police websites (Madichie & Hinson, 2013); insurance firms (Hinson, van Zyl & Agbleze, 2014); bank websites (Hinson, Madichie, & Ibrahim, 2012) and fortune 500 companies (Rybalko & Seltzer, 2010). However, the framework is yet to be applied to a destination branding online disposition.

Drawing on a survey of 350 marketing practitioners and students in Ghana, this study applies this dialogic communications approach to assess the dialogic quality of five (out of the top twenty five) African country websites (Brand South Africa, http://www.brandsouthafrica.com/, Brand Kenya,

References


Communicate the right way: The effectiveness of different communication activities for destination branding

Sebastian Zenker
Department of Marketing
Copenhagen Business School
Email: sze.marktg@cbs.dk

Erik Braun
Erasmus School of Economics
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: braun@ese.eur.nl

Jasper Eshuis
Department of Public Administration and Sociology
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: eshuis@fsw.eur.nl

Erik-Hans Klijn
Department of Public Administration and Sociology
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Email: klijn@fsw.eur.nl

The branding of places is an increasingly used management strategy of place marketers, with destination branding as its most dominant representative (i.e., targeting solely tourists, while place branding describes the general branding of places for all target groups, like residents, companies and tourists). For destination branding, place marketers try to influence exiting (and non-existing) place brand knowledge (i.e., brand awareness and brand image) by communicating through different channels and ways to their target audiences. In doing so, place brand managers apply direct communication (i.e., all communication where the place marketing entities are the official sender), as well as indirect communication (i.e., fostered communication of external stakeholders in the process). Additionally, they also use different types of communication channels (e.g., logos and slogans, events, public relation).

This paper studies which ways of communication (i.e., direct or indirect) and what types of communication channels most efficiently influence place brand knowledge and perceived place attractiveness for tourists. Since the public often questions the branding of places, it is finally analysed how the effectiveness of communication changes in case of critical public debate regarding the branding initiative.

The research applies structural equation modelling to nationwide surveys (Place Marketing Monitor) in the Netherlands and Germany among professionals working in place marketing and branding (N = 444). Results show, that the indirect communication in general is more effective to improve place brand knowledge, especially in case of critical public debate. Theoretical implications for place researchers and consequences for destination brand managers are discussed.
PLACE MANAGEMENT
Politics of museum representations in postcolonial Chinese destinations

Carol X. Zhang
University of Portsmouth
Email: carol.zhang@surrey.ac.uk

Nigel Morgan
University of Surrey

The purpose of this presentation is to explore the ways in which power and politics influence those involved in the reproduction of cultural representations in postcolonial Chinese destinations: Hong Kong and Macau. Hong Kong and Macau were returned to China in the late 1990s under the concept of “one country, two systems”. Although these two cities are officially under the rule of China, their historical marginalisation in ancient Chinese history, rapid development during colonial times and economic superiority before the handover makes them different from mainland Chinese (Mathews 1997, Chou 2010). Set against the background of this “crisis of identity”, this study aims to locate postcolonial national identity debates within the museums settings. It aims to extend the previous discussions on politics of tourism marketing (Morgan & Pritchard 1998, Zhang, L’Espoir Decosta & McKercher 2015). Specifically, this study discusses how the History Museum of Hong Kong reveals a discourse of “a long China, but short British history”. In contrast, the study shows how the Macao Museum selectively makes, remakes and demakes Macau as a peaceful platform of “East meets West” for the current purpose of presenting Macau as an international business city welcoming business from Portuguese-speaking countries. In addition, it shows how Macau presents itself as a cultural city rather than a gaming destination. This qualitative inquiry, based on both online and printed documents and a series of in-depth interviews with local cultural experts, demonstrates the symbolic power of cultural heritage in representing people and place.

References

1 Corresponding author

**Aspirational place branding – a study of the strategic transformation of a city narrative**

**Cecilia Cassinger**  
Department of Strategic Communication  
Lund University  
P.O. Box 882, 25808 Helsingborg, Sweden  
Email: cecilia.cassinger@isk.lu.se; Tel: +46 42 356 525

(...). Would it not be easier  
In that case for the government  
To dissolve the people  
And elect another?  
(Brecht, 1953, *The Solution*)

Scholarship on place branding challenges the linear view of communication that traditionally underpins studies on brand identity and suggests that place identity should be viewed as a multiple construct, which actively constructs the place (e.g. Ren and Blichfeldt 2011; Kalandides 2011; Kavaratzis and Hatch 2013). Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) argue that place identity and branding are intertwined in the process of defining the place. They develop an identity-based view on place brands to account for place branding as a complex and conflicting construction process in which many different stakeholders participate. However, little attention is given to the formation of dominant place identities and strategic attempts to change them.

This paper explores how place branding strategies transform the hegemonic narrative of a city, by drawing on the concept of aspirational communication (Christensen et al. 2013). Aspirational communication is characterized by future-oriented ideals and visions, rather than action. It refers to “communication, which announces ideals and intentions rather than reflect actual behaviours...” (Christensen et al. 2013: 373). Similar to the identity-based view on place branding, the concept builds on a performative view of communication as constitutive of concepts, actions and perceptions (Christensen et al. 2013; see also Taylor and Van Every 2000). Aspirational place branding is understood here as concerned with providing a different way of seeing, rather than reflecting what is already there.

The argument is based on an empirical study of the strategic dimension of a place brand in a newly deindustrialized city struggling to reposition itself. In order to attract new groups of people, typically defined as belonging to the creative and entrepreneurial classes (Zenker 2009; Vanolo 2008; Peck 2005), attitudes need to be changed and the residents must appear as something that they are not, similar to what Brecht (1953) proposes in the introductory quotation.

The paper suggests that aspirational communication may facilitate the theorization of the politics of place branding strategy. Aspirational communication sheds light upon the way that the gap between talk and action, and the real and unreal is upheld for strategic purposes. While consistency between words and action is important in communication to establish legitimacy and trust, it may also impede changes considered necessary in times of transition.

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Place branding and tourist places: Suggestions for a performative approach

Chiara Rabbiosi
Department for Life Quality Studies
Center for Advanced Studies in Tourism
Corso d’Augusto 237 (47921) Rimini, Italy
Email: chiara.rabbiosi@unibo.it; Tel: +39 0541 434122

The aim of this paper is to provide a more fluid understanding of the relationship between place branding and tourist places. It examines how this relationship is mediated by material culture, discourses, and embodied performances. Its secondary aim is to discuss whether a performative approach to place branding could provide a viable framework to facilitate less patronising, albeit not less problematic, forms of place branding for tourist places, than that currently instituted. This approach will provide a more intricate understanding of the multi-layered nature of place branding than that usually acknowledged in management/marketing literature or in critical urban studies. It will also foster a sounder understanding of the dynamics occurring between tourism and place branding.

Place branding has largely been the domain of management and marketing researchers, while urban studies scholars have typically explored the wider political economic implications of place branding. Both these streams, however, have directed minimal attention toward how this thematic selection of a place’s multiple identities, to which I refer to in this paper as place branding, is enacted on the ground. Place branding emerges from the entanglement of material, discursive, and embodied performances, which very few studies have pioneered. Drawing on integrated interpretations of performative approaches rooted in disciplinary (mainly human geography and sociology) and transdisciplinary (tourism studies, management & marketing, urban studies, etc.) theoretical advancements, in this paper I discuss “a performative approach” to place branding. In doing so, I propose a new framework for the analysis of encounters between human (e.g. tourists, residents, retailers, and other hybrid identities) and non human (e.g. animals, objects, architectures) actors, in the streamline of recent uses of Actor-Network and Non-Representational theories in tourism studies, detailing the role of these encounters in bringing “to life” a thematic selection of a place’s multiple identities. This thematic selection is often used to promote tourism with reference to a specific location.

The proposed paper aims to a theoretical discussion of place branding following a performative approach and the relevant methodological implications. While the intent is to provide a general debate about the approach presented, I’ll make reference to a series of cases that I have approached in my researchers in the last years, focussing on established tourist cities, such as Rimini, in Italy, to more deprived centres, such as those located in Rimini back region. In the end, the paper will also offer some suggestions that may be useful for a future place branding research agenda, according to a performative approach.

References


Medium-sized cities: The analysis of internal stakeholders’ perceptions with relationship marketing

Christophe Alaux
IMPGT : Public Management and Territorial Governance Institute
Aix Marseille Univ, CERGAM, Puycard, France.
Email: christophe.alaux@univ-amu.fr; Tel: 0033660540600

Place branding is a key issue in the competition for attractiveness between metropolitan areas. The financial, human and time resources that are necessary to develop these strategies often prevent smaller cities to develop them. But can medium-sized cities also take advantage from place branding to become more attractive? We will explore the adaptation of relationship marketing theoretical framework to the specific context of place branding for medium-sized cities (MSC).

For those cities, priorities are specific: not only attracting people and investments, but before all, maintaining them. To reach this double objective, and in particular the second, place branding focuses on stakeholders’ involvement and the perception of place image by internal stakeholders. In this perspective, MSC will often already have to build a brand image and to focus on its identity. To improve the analysis of city brand image, we use the theoretical framework of relationship marketing to observe the perception of mutual relations between stakeholders in city branding. Indeed, place image perception also depends on the perception of relationships between internal stakeholders, their attachment and their involvement.

Our field of research is a single case study: city of 20 000 residents in the southeast of France, located in the middle of two famous cities. 43 semi-structured interviews were conducted with different internal stakeholders: civil servants and politicians, companies and retailers, associations and residents. The interviews were fully transcribed and analyzed through thematic content open and axial coding. Results show the nature (mostly functional and rational) and the diversity of perceptions for MSC’s brand image. They also indicate a low level of involvement for residents and companies that raise the question of the determinants of involvement. Place relationship marketing can be an appropriate theoretical framework to analyze and plan a city branding process in MSC: gathering internal image perceptions, involving stakeholders and discussing on city’s image perceptions before branding.

Key words: place marketing, city branding, stakeholders, involvement, relationship marketing

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Multiple identities in place branding: Embracing transculturalism

Eva Maria Jernsand
School of Business, Economics and Law
Department of Business Administration
University of Gothenburg
Box 610, 405 30 Göteborg, Sweden
Email: eva.maria.jernsand@handels.gu.se; Tel: +46 709 327 466

Helena Kraff
Faculty of Fine, Applied and Performing Arts
Academy of Design and Crafts
University of Gothenburg
Box 131, 405 30 Göteborg, Sweden
Email: helena.kraff@hdk.gu.se; Tel: +46 702 685 885

The view of place branding as monologic communication where all actors are squeezed into a unified voice has received harsh critique (e.g. Jernsand and Kraff, forthcoming; Marsh and Fawcett, 2011; Zenker and Beckmann, 2013). Aiming for a single coherent identity, which is promoted as a homogeneous entity, reduces places to simple monocultures and ignores the complexity that makes them intriguing (Kalandides, 2006). The display of a narrowly defined cultural norm does not correspond with the diverse nature of cities and countries today.

The risk with failing to take multiple identities of a place into account is that cultural boundaries are reinforced, and that tension and disaffection is fostered, which can explode in conflicts between groups. People who do not know the culture or language of other ethnical communities living in the same city or country, or whose cultures are suppressed in relation to the image that authorities want to project will feel excluded.

The movement of place branding from a business context to the public sphere has resulted in criticism since the concept has been used as a political tool for imposing the views of urban elites (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015). To reach democratic legitimacy, place brand authorities therefore need to take responsibility, acting as facilitators (Kalandides, 2011) of the identity process of a place (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013). The recent, broadened perspective of place branding should be seen as an opportunity for an inclusive approach to culture.

The purpose with this conceptual paper is to contrast the focus on homogeneous cultural entities in place branding with the concept of transculturalism. Transculturalism rejects a view of cultures as stable and clear entities that are located only in ethnicities or nations but sees them as “hybrid formations” that are “characterized by interconnectedness, permeation and ongoing transforming dialogues between/among them” (Dagnino, 2012, p 13). A critical review of place branding literature and examples of place branding initiatives is put in relation to transculturalism. This serves as a base for discussing what cultural homogeneity vs diversity implies for the future of place branding. The study shows that the scarce initiatives that allow for other cultural norms are often thanks to the endeavors of individual entrepreneurs, rather than official place authorities. The authors argue that successful place branding needs to embrace transculturalism and use it as a lens to understand, explore, nurture and communicate the interplay between and richness of different cultures and cultural expressions.

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Place Branding is a growing and important area of practice and field of academic study. In the past 8 years almost 350 single publications have concerned themselves with place branding as a primary focus. This timeframe is pertinent, because two seminal papers were published in 2008 in an attempt to clarify the confusion over definitional issues of Place Branding and associated related constructs (Hanna and Rowley, 2008; Skinner, 2008), yet a thorough review of this literature has found that in many cases, since that time and even in the most recent publications, the use of the terms ‘place marketing’ and ‘place branding’ remains relatively interchangeable. The issue is further complicated when the terms ‘marketing’ and ‘branding’ are applied to specific types of places, be that tourism destinations, capital cities, regions, or other types of place. Moreover, the extant literature has still not resolved what type of brand construct a place brand should be associated with, whether it is more akin to a corporate brand, a product or service brand, or if place brands should be considered either as a specific special type of brand, or even not as a ‘brand’ at all.

The aim of this paper is therefore to define and delimit the place branding construct in light of this continuing terminological confusion, concurring with Merkelsen and Rasmussen (2016:103) that is has been the very ‘plasticity’ of the ‘brand’ construct that has not only facilitated its application wider than consumer goods and into areas such as places, and that appropriate theory development will remain challenging as long as ‘there is too much confusion about what basic concepts mean’.

The approach this paper takes is in undertaking a state of the art literature review that will present a succinct definition of the place branding construct, delimiting it from other associated constructs, and aiding appropriate theory development to inform both academics’ and practitioners’ understanding. The data set included not only articles in peer-reviewed academic journals published in print or online between July 2008 and July 2016, but also books and chapters in books, along with policy and other reports that were analysed for the purpose of this paper to understand which terms were used in which contexts, how these constructs have been variously defined, and what purpose they are each deemed to serve.

The result is the presentation of a conceptual framework that not only further clarifies the place branding construct, but which also point to the relationship between place branding and associated constructs such as place / destination marketing, place /destination management, and place making.

The paper concludes with an evaluation of why this confusion of terms remains evident in the literature, and how better these terms should be used in the future development of the field of place branding by both academics and practitioners.

References

An adaptive service ecosystem approach to place branding: 
A service-dominant logic of marketing perspective

Jan Brown
Liverpool Business School
Liverpool John Moores University
Brownlow Hill, Liverpool, L3 5UG, UK
Email: J.Brown3@ljmu.ac.uk, Tel: +44 151 231 4711

Places are complex and evolve over time. Whether a place is defined as an individual residence, street, suburb, town, city, city region, country or union of countries; within each place there are multiple networks operating and continuously adapting to change. These networks can be viewed from a variety of perspectives and recent place branding research has introduced an ecological and open systems perspective to explore such complexity (Giovanardi, Lucarelli & Pasquinelli 2013, Pasquinelli 2014, Bellini & Pasquinelli 2016). In this paper a conceptual framework is proposed that contributes to the development of the ecosystems and open systems perspective that is specifically derived from the service-dominant logic of marketing perspective (S-D logic) (Vargo & Lusch 2004, 2008, 2011, 2016). Developing Warnaby’s (2009) service-dominant place marketing conceptualisations by applying recent service ecosystem research place is conceptualised as an adaptive service ecosystem (Vargo, Maglio & Akaka 2008, Barile & Polese 2010, Vargo & Akaka 2012, Wieland, Polese, Vargo & Lusch 2012). By viewing place as an adaptive service ecosystem place brands can be developed that represent the complexity of that specific place and reflect the multiple networks (sub-ecosystems) and institutions that sustain them from a variety of perspectives. For illustrative purposes the paper focuses on one important but complex network, the music ecosystem, in one city, Liverpool in the UK, that has a stated objective of using this ecosystem as part of its official place brand (UNESCO 2015). By undertaking primary and secondary research exploring the production and performance of music events within two different sub-ecosystems, one which focuses on reproducing past music success and one which focuses on innovative and cutting edge production and performance of music, significant differences are demonstrated in the music production and consumption networks. It is suggested that if the place brand is to successfully represent the breadth of the music ecosystem these differences will need to be represented. The paper concludes by demonstrating how the evolution of the music ecosystem over time can be represented in Liverpool’s official place brand and reflects on the increasing influence of digital technology. By using an adaptive service ecosystem approach to place branding it is proposed that the city of Liverpool may avoid the dangers of place branding identified by Ashworth & Kavaratzis (2015: 128) that “…stem largely not from the chance that the rebranding will fail but that it will be successful…If, for instance, the place is successfully associated with a historical personality, the resulting anxiety is that the diversity and depth of local cultures is lost: …Liverpool with the Beatles…Thus places may become imprisoned in single episodes of their long history and particular expressions of their diverse local culture at the expense of all the rest.”

References

The strategic role of sport, through stakeholder engagement, for an emerging African city brand

Janice Hemmonsby
Faculty of Business & Management Sciences
Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT)
Cape Town, South Africa, Highbury Road, Mowbray, 8000
Email: hemmonsbyj@cput.ac.za; Tel: (+27)21 680 1523

Brendon Knott
Faculty of Business & Management Sciences
Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT)
Cape Town, South Africa, Highbury Road, Mowbray, 8000
Email: knotlb@cput.ac.za; Tel: (+27)21 680 1545

City branding and especially the role of stakeholder engagement in the development of city brands is an emerging and increasingly growing discourse. Brand identification and differentiation for cities has become more significant due to the increasingly competitive global environment (Rein & Shields, 2007; Hall, 2008). This is especially pertinent for emerging city brands. Many cities have realised that sport is a powerful agent in the branding process most notably due to its global status and comprehensive coverage (Higham & Hinch, 2009). However, previous papers have indicated that city branding strategies may fail as a result of a lack of stakeholder engagement (Ooi & Pedersen, 2010; Houghton & Stevens, 2011). While a recent paper by the authors examined the perceived importance of sport for a city brand, this paper examines the strategic importance of stakeholder engagement, for an emerging African city brand, using sport as a competitive differentiator. Cape Town was chosen as the case study context as it has a strong association with sport, tourism, and mega-events. A qualitative design was adopted featuring semi-structured, in-depth interviews conducted with twelve definitive sport, tourism and city-brand stakeholders. A thematic analysis of these findings clearly revealed the importance of strategic partnerships and stakeholder relationships in the development of the city’s brand image through sport. Respondents identified key stakeholders involved in the development of the city brand and gave specific examples of national and international cities where strategic engagement has enhanced the competitive differentiation of a city brand through sport. The paper concluded that the strategic role of sport for the Cape Town city brand is greatly influenced by the degree of stakeholder commitment to investment in sport and effective, strategic stakeholder partnerships. This paper adds to the limited theoretical knowledge of city branding, particularly among emerging city brands. It also has practical implications for other African and emerging city brand stakeholders, providing strategic guidance for brand stakeholders aiming to positioning a distinct and competitive city brand through sport.

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1 Corresponding author

**Residents’ commitment to the city of residence as a consequence of city marketing – the case of City of Ljubljana**

**Katja Udir Mišič**
Institute of Media Communications, 
Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science 
University of Maribor 
Smetanova ulica 17, SI-2000 Maribor 
Email: katja.misic@um.si; Tel: 00386 31 780 890

**Klement Podnar**
Centre for Marketing and Public Relations 
Faculty of Social Sciences 
University of Ljubljana 
Kardeljeva ploščad 5, SI-1000 Ljubljana 
Email: klement.podnar@fdv.uni-lj.si

**Summary of aims**
This paper deals with the relationship between cities, defined as complex and multifaceted entities (Bianchini & Ghilardi 2007), and city residents who are, strategically, the most important segment which city marketing must include for achieving competitive advantage, in order to increase investment and tourism, community development and also for shaping the economic, cultural and social prosperity of the city. This paper, therefore, deals with one of the important consequences related to the city residents, that is; The residents’ commitment to the city – the residents’ decision to stay in the city in which they live. Residents who feel connected with a city can meet the expectations of visitors, tourists, investors better and may become the most effective ambassadors for their city (Braun 2008, Kavaratzis 2004, Freire 2005). For that purpose, the paper aims to identify those dimensions/elements that the city consists of which could influence the most the residents’ commitment to the city.

**Main approach**
For analysing city dimensions/elements in correlation to the residents’ commitment to the city, considering all three dimensions, namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990), the research uses the city marketing mix (Udir Misic & Podnar 2016) and its measuring instrument (Udir Misic & Podnar 2016) which resolves the complex, multi-faceted structure of the city through the prism of two dimensions – city structural and city functional dimension. The research was conducted on a structured pattern of the City of Ljubljana (N=402) (main capital of Slovenia and European Green Capital in 2016).

**Key arguments/findings**
The research showed a positive and statistically significant correlation between the city marketing mix and the residents’ commitment to the city. The study especially confirms that, the better the people of the city, taking into account the inhabitants’ characters, the attitude towards tourists and the relationships among residents, are estimated by the residents of the city, the higher is his/her commitment to the city. The research also confirms the influence that city management has on residents’ responsibility to stay in the city in which they live and (considering also city physical evidence) on residents’ emotional relationship to the city. The research, therefore, proves the importance of the socio-physical characteristics of the city, especially the importance of people in reinforcing the relationship between individuals and their city. In light of this, any
in-depth analysis of these issues can become of great value for effective and sustainable development of the city.

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Residents increasingly resist marketing and branding their places as destinations, and businesses and investment locations (Mayer, 2013; Dejevsky, 2015; Stormy waters…, 2016). Residents' reaction to the newcomers (attracted deliberately or moved in regardless of place marketing), may be more ambiguous (Fan, 2006; BBC, 2013) and even lead to the restoration of migration barriers in Europe. This shapes a relatively new framework for place marketing and branding in the context of global economic crisis, migration crisis in Europe, and the growth of nationalism and xenophobia.

In particular, these conflicts limit the effectiveness of branding. If residents see that the image of their place, deliberately shaped in the minds of external groups, has nothing to do with the reality, they will estimate the branding negatively (Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; Interview with Sebastian Zenker…,2015). If visitors or newcomers arrive and see that the reality does not correspond to the image and related expectations, then they are likely to destroy the place brand through word-of-mouth adverse publicity, thereby depreciating the brand managers’ efforts. The reality of the place is embodied in its product, i.e. its useful properties. The quality of place brand is "checked" against its compliance with product when the audience of brand communications becomes a user of a branded product. Strategically, place brand management is problematic without place product management.

Because any place is a kind of public goods that can only be used jointly and simultaneously (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990), place management can build a coherent place brand only by coordinating different users’ interests when developing and delivering place product.

Simultaneous use of places as products engenders specific interrelationships between different place users, which resemble place user competition. It overlaps competition of places for users, often replaces it (Rozhkov, 2013). The severity of place user competition depends on how places as products can be used concurrently and how cannot or, in other words, what behavioural patterns of place users are compatible and what are not. Thus, when building a coherent brand, alongside with the issue of place identity shaped from different perceptions and expectations of multiple stakeholders (Glińska and Florek, 2013; Florek, 2013;
Romanowski, 2008; Romanowski, 2008a; Romanowski, 2015), the question of "hard" factors of brand-related user behaviour inevitably raises. As place user needs and behavioural patterns differ essentially interregionally and internationally (Hofstede et al., 2010, Romanowski, 2013; Romanowski, 2013a; Romanowski, 2013b) then a cross-cultural study of place uses and user behavioural patterns is strongly needed. This study aims to identify a set of place uses typical for different societies and cultures and to estimate their compatibility when performed simultaneously in a long-time period. In other words, we would like to find out if residents of a country, representing a certain culture and society, can use the place together with migrants as former residents of another country, representing another culture and society.

**Exploring residents’ perceptions of ‘a good place to live’ - value propositions and value-in-use in the place context**

**Lisa Källström**
Kristianstad University
291 88 Kristianstad, Sweden
Email: Lisa.Kallstrom@hkr.se; Tel: +46 44 203117; +46 70 3368782

**Jens Hultman**
Kristianstad University
291 88 Kristianstad, Sweden
Email: Jens.Hultman@hkr.se; Tel: +46 70 9250665

**Summary of aims**
Place attractiveness is a relevant and important notion for a multitude of different stakeholders, for example residents (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008; Insch & Florek, 2010). The purpose of the study was to explore the residents’ perception of the place in which they were living. With service-based logic as the theoretical lens (Grönroos, 1982; Vargo & Lusch, 2004 to mention some), the study focused on value propositions offered by a variety of stakeholders of the place, and the creation and co-creation of value-in-use as perceived by the residents of the place. The study sought to contribute to an increased understanding of residents’ perceptions of what makes for a valuable place to live.

**Main Approach**
In order to meet the need for additional comprehensive empirical studies on place branding (Gertner, 2011), and to fulfil the purpose of exploring the residents’ perception of the place in which they were living, the study used a qualitative methodology based on focus groups discussions. The sampling was purposive and the participants were chosen based on a combination of quota and reputational respondent selection (Miles et al, 2014). Our empirical data ended up consisting of materials from six focus-group interviews with a wide group of residents in two typical municipalities in southern Sweden. The interviews were transcribed and content analysis was used to analyze the data.

**Key argument/findings**
The services marketing literature has been identified as interesting for place branding (Hankinson, 2010; Kavaratzis, 2012; Merz et al., 2009; Warnaby, 2009). Turning from the prevalent provider-dominant perspective on place branding and static place attributes to a focus on the relationship between users and provider reveals new things that can be analysed concerning place attractiveness. This study revealed hedonic and functional benefits and value-in-use that are important for residents, e.g. status, self-fulfilment, monetary savings and time savings. Furthermore, the complexity of place attractiveness became evident and three major insights emerged. Firstly, the absence of somethings can be important as a value proposition. Secondly, being close to something can often be enough to satisfy residents who are willing to travel for entertainment and experiences. Thirdly, resident do not have to use a value proposition for them to value it.

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Corresponding author

Patterns of place promotion, place marketing and/or place branding in Dutch municipalities

Martin Boisen
Faculty of Spatial Sciences
University of Groningen
Kruisweg 7H, 3513CS Utrecht, The Netherlands
Email: m.boisen@rug.nl; Tel: +31617814348

Peter Groote
Faculty of Spatial Sciences
University of Groningen
Email: p.d.groote@rug.nl

Kees Terlouw
Faculty of Geosciences
University of Utrecht
Email: k.terlouw@uu.nl

Oscar Couwenberg
Faculty of Spatial Sciences
University of Groningen
Email: o.couwenberg@rug.nl

Summary of aims
Our aim was to construct a comprehensive dataset including all Dutch municipalities and employ the same level of scrutiny in their classification. In addition, we wanted the method we used to construct this dataset to be replicable both within and outside of the Netherlands, such as to further international comparative research in the field.

Main approach
A consensus has emerged over the last decades among scholars and practitioners on the growing importance of place promotion, place marketing and place branding for local authorities. However, few comparative studies have paid specific attention to the extent to which local authorities have applied these instruments. In addition, to our knowledge, no comprehensive studies exist that cover all local authorities within a specific country. In this paper we develop a classification system to help determine the popularity and institutionalisation of place promotion, place marketing and/or place branding by local authorities (municipalities). This classification is designed to be applicable to other studies, hopefully stimulating further comparative research within and between national contexts.

Based on a manual examination of automatically selected online resources, a comprehensive dataset was compiled that include all 390 Dutch municipalities as of January 1st 2016. The municipalities have been classified based on whether or not place promotion, place marketing and/or place branding has been a recent local policy issue, whether there is an identifiable, mandated entity responsible for the application of these instruments and if so, whether or not such an entity is internally or externally organised (viewed from the vantage point of the municipal organisations). Finally, we have classified the extent to which these mandated entities have an integrated mandate to employ these instruments towards more than one market segment (e.g. residents, businesses/investments, tourists/visitors).
Key findings
This paper presents one of the first comprehensive analyses on the national level of the (spatial) patterns of the popularity and institutionalisation of place promotion, place marketing and/or place branding by local authorities. Additionally, detailed analyses and combinations with official data from Statistics Netherlands and the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency enabled to determine to what extent certain spatial attributes produce these (spatial) patterns: such as population size, population development and the dependence on tourism for the local economy.

Key words: ‘place promotion’, ‘place marketing’, ‘place branding’, ‘the Netherlands’, ‘local governance’

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The following references have been used in the full paper:
Teaching city branding: Involving students through game-based learning

Massimo Giovanardi
School of Business
University of Leicester
University Road, LE1 7RH – Leicester (UK)
Email: m.giovanardi@le.ac.uk; Tel: +44 (0)116 223 1912

Andrea Lucarelli
Stockholm Business School
Roslagsvägen, Kräftriket 3A – Stockholm (SWE)
Email: a.lucarelli@sbs.su.se

Patrick L’Espoir Decosta
Australian National University
PAP Moran Bld, Canberra (Australia)
Email: patrick.lespoidecosta@anu.edu.au; Tel: +61 2 612 59831

This paper identifies place branding as a domain of emerging teaching and learning practices. While place branding has reached a certain level of maturation in terms of scholarship production (see Green et al., 2016), a specific debate on its various educational aspects is still in a gestational phase (e.g. Stubbs and Warnaby, 2015). This present study provides a first small step in this direction by focusing on the issue of student engagement through experiential learning activities, following previous efforts to implement game-based teaching within tourism and hospitality literature (e.g. O’Halloran and Deale, 2010; Fraga, Santos and Ribeiro, 2012) and marketing education (e.g. Sanchez, 1980).

This present study focuses on the development of a board game based on Monopoly™ created to promote the experiential learning of university students. The paper reports findings from a multi-stage research project that sought to explore how different groups of students engaged with the board game, in an endeavour to understand how the experience enabled by the game facilitated students’ learning activities. The game was developed by two of the authors in the form of a Monopoly-type board representing a contemporary Western knowledge city, in which every property is named after one of the typical districts that usually warrant coverage in the city branding literature (e.g. the gentrified fashion quarter, the high street shopping area, the nightlife & entertainment district, the former Olympic village, etc.). The game required students to participate in the game as competing ‘urban elites’, aiming to develop their properties through branding tools and to collect rents. Customised Chance and Community Chest cards incorporated aspects and case studies from the place branding literature. Three cohorts of students took part in the study: two cohorts of undergraduate students, prevalently with a business background, that attended the Tourism and Hospitality Marketing Management module at Stockholm Business School in 2013 and 2014 respectively; and a group of students, prevalently with an architecture and planning background, that attended a summer school on urban art held in Vienna in 2014.

The study started with a piloting phase undertaken during the 2011 Place Branding conference held in Bogotá, where the game was played and tested by several academic experts in the fields. Afterwards, the
authors designed a learning activity in which students where asked to play the game in small groups, after having engaged with some readings on place branding. After the gaming sessions, which have been recorded and observed for analysis, students were encouraged to write a short essay where they had to choose three aspects of the game and critically discuss and evaluate their relevance to their understanding of the place branding literature. For the summer school group, due to the time constraints posed by the format based on three intensive sessions, students were asked instead to connect three aspects of the game to concepts encountered during the two previous place branding seminar sessions.

The combined analysis of (a) the live interactions enabled by the game in the classroom and (b) the reflexive essays written after the activity helped identify and discuss critical emerging themes, which illustrate strengths and weaknesses of the game as an experiential learning facilitator. On the one hand, it was possible to highlight some of the disadvantages inherent in playing games with students (Biggs and Tang, 2011, p. 39; Sanchez, 1980). In fact, some of them only demonstrated an ability to appreciate the technical mechanisms of the game, with a limited capacity to connect them to any place branding concepts or readings. On the other hand, it was possible to capture refined and in-depth elaborations on aspects of the game that not only referred back to the literature but also provided critical recommendations about ways to improve the game and make it more realistic. In this respect, the experienced encouraged by the game turned out to be facilitating students’ high-involvement in the subject.

This experience provided an opportunity to compare the challenges inherent in incorporating game-based activities when teaching place branding in two different pedagogical contexts: a structured university module and a ‘one-shot’ summer school based on intensive seminar sessions. Furthermore, the study suggests an alternative, more articulated learning activity in which students are called to design and customise a version of the game based on specific cities chosen by them. The study finally reflects on how to further fine-tune the game to make it suitable for activities of stakeholders engagement stakeholders (Stubbs and Warnaby, 2014), such as workshops or team-building sessions, targeting other types of learners, such as civil servants or place managers.

References

Explicating place architecture, brand identity, and identification triad

Mohammad Mahdi Foroudi
Foroudi Consultancy
Email: Mohammad@foroudi.com

John M.T. Balmer
Brunel University
London, UK
Email: John.balmer@brunel.ac.uk

Weifeng Chen
Brunel University
London, UK
Email: Weifeng.chen@brunel.ac.uk

Pantea Foroudi
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department
Middlesex University
Email: P.Foroudi@mdx.ac.uk

This study has the explicit research aim of making a theoretical contribution vis-à-vis the place architecture, brand identity, identification triad and their antecedents as it pertains to stakeholders within a middle ranking business school. The research draws on social identity and attribution theories and appears to be the first study of its kind.

A conceptual framework was developed which was informed by the literature and from qualitative insights from stakeholders (including focus groups and semi structured interviews). The resultant theoretical framework was derived from 309 stakeholder responses and structural equation modelling using AMOS was used in the analysis of data.

The paper is significant in that although brand identity, place architecture, and identification (and their relationships) have been acknowledged as significant area of research in marketing, the triad, in its totality, has not been the focus of empirical research. As such, the findings from the study, potentially, have significance in both theoretical and instrumental terms.

An analytically generalisable theory viz: Place Architecture, Brand Identity, and Identification Triad Theory is introduced. A validated conceptual framework as evinced in the resultant theoretical framework details the nature of the theory as it pertains to middle ranking Business School. Four empirical insights: (i) a favourable business school brand identity has a commensurate influence on place architecture (ii) a favourable business school brand identity has a commensurate influence on stakeholder, (iii) a favourable business school place architecture increases identification with the business school, and (iv) specifically, a favourable business school brand identity impact on business school place architecture on five dimensions.

The findings are meaningful to marketing managers and others who have responsibility in whole or in part
for brand identity, place architecture and identification. Specifically: (i) brand identity should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the identity elements (company’s brand visual identity, communication, and philosophy, mission and value); (ii) place’s architecture should be managed strategically, and should be in alignment with the place identity elements (decor and artifacts/symbolic artefacts, spatial layout and functionality/physical structure, and ambient conditions/physical stimuli); (iii) brand identity/place architecture gap should be constantly carefully managed; (iv) place architecture/identification (emotional attachment) gap should be regularly monitored.

1Corresponding author

Place branding strategy in the context of new smart cities.
The Songdo and Masdar City cases

Olga Kolotouchkina 1
University CEU San Pablo
Paseo Juan XXIII, 10, 28040 Madrid (Spain)
Email: olga.kolotouchkina@ceu.es; Tel: +34 649 481 644

Gildo Seisdedos
IE Business School
Maria de Molina, 12, 5, 28006 Madrid (Spain)
Email: gildo.seisdedos@ie.edu; Tel: +34 635 966 752

In recent years, smart city concept has gained increasing relevance among scholars, urban planners and policy-makers. The expanding networks of Information and Communication technologies (ICT) along with the dizzying spread of ubiquitous computing enabling the connection of places, people and objects, shape the reality of urban development (Castells, 1996; Sassen, 2011). Digital flows of contents and data permeate urban spaces providing innovative solutions for their sustainable and balanced development as well as unleashing new social dynamics and place’s narratives (Koeck & Warnaby, 2015). Although, the spread of digitally-led urban innovations is yet uneven around the world, a number of cities have started a progressive transition to the format of smart city (Monitor Deloitte, 2015). The traditional concept of urbanism and physical space is moving into a new dimension of a virtual and digital representation (Blume & Langenbrick, 2004). The significance of this enveloping digital realm on the cityscape is increasingly compared with the impact and consequences produced by the Industrial Revolution (Picon, 2015; Townsend, 2013; Rifkin, 2011).

Among the main features of a smart city, scholars and practitioners highlight two main dimensions. Within the technological perspective, the reliance on the intensive use of ICT to address the most challenging issues of urban planning and development is emphasised (Picon, 2015). The latest developments of ICT in the field of fibre optic, augmented and virtual reality, the Internet of Things, sensoring, the Big Data and cloud computing are making a key contribution to the new smart cityscape. On the other hand, a more holistic scenario of a smart city enhances its citizen’s inventiveness, collective intelligence and knowledge-based urban development (Carrillo et al., 2008) with an increasing attention to new dynamics of spontaneous social mobilization referred to as smart mobs (Rheingold, 2002), co-creative processes and practices of dynamic representation of places mediated by ICT defined as digital chorographies (Koeck & Warnaby, 2015) and bottom-up initiatives linked to citizen-driven innovation and citizen’s technologic appropriation (Capdevila & Zarlenga, 2015).

The impact of the ICT on urban development and representation is particularly remarkable when an entire new city is built following the smart city approach. Two relevant examples would be Songdo City in South Korea and Masdar City in Abu Dhabi, built to challenge the status quo of current urban dynamics and functions. Both instant cities (Sassen, 2011) were developed by global IT companies on the regained land from the sea, in the case of Songdo, and in the desert of Abu Dhabi in the case of Masdar, deploying the most innovative technology-led urban services (Benedikt, 2016; Greenfield, 2013) with the intention to become attractive places to new residents, companies and investors.
Based on the review of an emerging literature with regard to these innovative urban projects (Townsend, 2013, Picon, 2015, Sassen, 2011, Benedikt, 2016, Aurigi, 2016) as well as on the content analysis of the main websites of Songdo (songdoibd.com, 2016) and Masdar City (www.masdar.ac/en/masdar-city/live-work-play, 2016), this paper examines the cases of both cities from a place branding perspective. Both Songdo and Masdar are innovative cases of place management led by large public and private companies. The artificial nature of their urban projects provides an opportunity to review how their competitive advantage, differentiation, identity and reputation are addressed when no traditional and authentic urban pillars such as cultural and historical heritage, vibrant street-life or local traditions, to name just a few, could be used in a place brand equation. On the other hand, an issue of digital divide is highlighted by some scholars (Benedikt, 2016; Hollands, 2008) when the residents’ profile of these new smart cities is considered.

The convergence of innovative technologies in new smart spaces creates some unusual urban narratives, social experiences and mediated representations. We attempt to draw out implications of the analysis of Songdo and Masdar cities cases on the theory and practice of place branding and management by identifying key agents and tools involved in their place branding approach, as well as highlighting their best smart branding practices.

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A resource-based view of a place as a place brand and place heritage in addition to the influence on place image and place reputation

Pantea Foroudi
Marketing, Branding and Tourism Department
Middlesex University
Email: P.foroudi@mdx.ac.uk

Maria Teresa Cuomo
University of Salerno, Italy
Email: mcuomo@unisa.it

Suraksha Gupta
Kent University, UK
Email: S.Gupta@kent.ac.uk

Mohammad M. Foroudi
Foroudi Consultancy, UK
Email: Mohammad@foroudi.com

Organisations encourage shareholders to invest in the place and the place audience relies on place reputation when making investment decisions and product choices. Given the significance of the place branding and place heritage and building upon the evidence discussed, this research is one of the first attempts at collecting empirical evidence that seeks to prove that a favourable place branding and place branding heritage influence a favourable place image and favourable place reputation. This study aims to explore employees and visitors/consumers’ perceptions and practices regarding the place branding and the main factors that influence place branding suitability at a visitor/consumer/employee level. By achieving these objectives, it is expected that the investigation will add to current knowledge about the place branding and provide practical insights to managers and decision-makers. Based on the research objectives of this study, three overall research questions are: (i) What are the factors that influence place branding favourability, (ii) What are the main influences of place heritage favourability on favourable place branding?, and (iii) What are the main influences of place branding favourability on favourable place image and favourable place reputation?

This research addresses the general goals: first, it explores the concept of the place branding and its dimensions. Second, it identifies the factors that are most likely to have a significance influence on the favourable place branding (antecedents of the favourable place branding). Third, it develops and empirically assesses a model concerning the relationships between favourable place branding, its antecedents and its consequences. Fourth, it examines the influence of the favourable place heritage on place branding. Finally, it investigates the impact of the favourable place branding on favourable place image and favourable place reputation (consequences of the favourable place branding).
Despite the potentially significant role of the favourable place branding, little empirical research has examined how the favourable place branding exposes corporations and their members to far greater scrutiny.

Creating a employee/consumer/visitor level model based on attribution theory demonstrates the issues retailers face in relation to place branding: (i) the association between the place branding concept and its elements that foster or discourage; (ii) its benefits or outcome for place; (iii) the relationships between other theoretically and empirically identified variables. In order to fill this gap in the academic literature, prior studies and the insights gained from current field research were reviewed. The model and various propositions developed thereafter, merit further study.

1Corresponding author

Place brand effect regarding attractiveness for companies: An empirical study

Renaud Vuignier
Swiss Graduate School of Public Administration (IDHEAP)
University of Lausanne, Switzerland
Bâtiment l’IDHEAP
Université de Lausanne
CH – 1015 Lausanne
Email: Renaud.Vuignier@unil.ch ; Tel: +41 79 664 33 83

Summary of the aims, main approach and key arguments/findings
Do place brands matter for companies? As an emerging scientific domain, place branding is in need of more empirical studies, as pointed out by different literature reviews (Chan & Marafa, 2013; Vuignier, 2016), among others regarding place brand equity (Zavattaro, Daspit, & Adams, 2015), and thus the measurement of potential effects of place brands on attractiveness (Zenker & Braun, 2015).

This study focuses on the specific target group of companies and empirically assesses the role of place brands in their location or relocation decision-making process. It remains an overlooked research area (Cleave, Arku, Sadler, & Gilliland, 2016; Jacobsen, 2012), although it represents a crucial issue for governments and practitioners from economic development agencies, developing place brand strategies with high expectations in terms of attractiveness.

Acknowledging the wide literature existing on business (re)location (Laulajainen & Stafford, 1995), I will argue that place brand effect regarding companies is to be put in relation with well-established place attractiveness factors, such as infrastructures, workforce, taxes, regulatory framework, cluster policy, R&D incentives, quality of life, etc. It can therefore be seen as a “relative” effect within a specific business decision-making context.

To investigate the role of the place brand, an adaptive choice-based conjoint analysis ACBC (Orme, 2014), supplemented by a short qualitative survey with open questions, is being conducted among a sample of companies that decided to (re)locate in the region of the Swiss canton of Vaud within the last five years. Interviewees encompass decision-makers from key sectors prioritized by the authorities, including cleantech, information and communications technology, life sciences and precision industry.

The first part of this study is dedicated to the conceptualization of place brand regarding attractiveness for companies. Secondly, the application of the method is explained and discussed in light with its assumptions, strengths and weaknesses. Thirdly, the analysis of the preliminary results contributes to show to what extent,
in comparison with well-established factors of place attractiveness, companies are sensitive to place brands in their (re)location process.

**Key words:** place, marketing, branding, brand, equity, effectiveness, attractiveness, companies, location factors, conjoint analysis, ACBC

**References**


How does place brand construct? : The case of longevity in Okinawa, Japan

Sayaka Toyokawa
Faculty of Law and Economics
Okinawa University
555 Kokuba, Naha, Okinawa 9028521, Japan
Email: toyokawa@okinawa-u.ac.jp; Tel: +81-98-993-5018

Toshio Takagi
Faculty of Global Business
Showa Women’s University
1-7-57 Taishido, Setagaya, Tokyo 1548533, Japan
Email: t-takagi@swu.ac.jp

In this paper, we examine how Okinawa’s longevity has served as a place brand (Anholt, 2004, Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005, Kavaratzis, 2005, Anholt, 2010, Hanna and Rowley, 2011), invoking Govers and Go’s (2016) study of place identity and place brand strategy.

The Okinawa Prefecture, located in the westernmost corner of Japan, forms an arc found approximately at the midpoint between Kyushu and Taiwan, and to the east of mainland China. The Okinawa Prefecture is known as the islands of longevity. An annual average temperature of 22.4°C, with relatively minor fluctuations throughout the year, allows seniors to be active and spend time outdoors. Another advantage to living in a subtropical climatic zone is that the people have access to food available in both tropical and temperate climatic zones, which promotes a cuisine that makes use of a wide variety of ingredients. As a result, Okinawa Prefecture was ranked number one in the nation in average life expectancy for both men and women from 1972 (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2010).

Active promotion of the idea of ‘Okinawa = longevity’ to the rest of the country thus became the prefecture’s guiding principle for stimulating its economy and industry (Kakazu, 2000). As the idea of ‘Okinawa = longevity’ took root, the health food industry was seen as one in which Okinawa held an advantage over other prefectures and even other countries. This realisation in turn, led to the creation of the formula ‘Okinawa→longevity→health’, giving a shot in the arm to various product developments making optimal use of this ‘island of longevity’ brand. As a result, between 1994 and 2001, the out-of-prefecture shipment value of Okinawan products grew by 25% per year. Shipment value for health food products, Okinawa’s main commodity, also grew steadily, exceeding JPY10 billion in 1999, and reaching JPY17.7 billion in 2003 (Okinawa Prefecture, 2012).

We use the discourse analysis (Grand et al., 2004) to analyse the brand evolution using company annual reports, various data from the Okinawa government and interviews with representatives of the Okinawa government. We discuss the implications of the construction and deconstruction of place branding from a practical perspective.

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4 The Prefecture of Okinawa came under the rule of the American government after the end of the Second World War in 1945 and reverted back to Japan in 1972, which is why Okinawa has been included in Japanese statistical data since that year.
References


Social media in place branding: A Review

Sonya Hanna¹,
Bangor Business School
Bangor University
Bangor, Gwynedd, LL57 2DG Wales, UK.
Email: s.hanna@bangor.ac.uk, Tel: 01248 38 8077

Jennifer Rowley,
Department of Information and Communications
Manchester Metropolitan University
Rosamund Street West, Manchester M15, 6LL, UK.
Email: j.rowley@mmu.ac.uk, Tel: 0161 247 6137

Aims
Potential and existing investors, visitors and residents increasingly use social media to explore and research places, and to make decisions regarding the inclusion of the place, its venues, resources, or events into their consideration set. As such, there has been a nascent interest in the role of social media in place branding. This paper offers a coherent review, evaluation and interpretation of the existing body of research into the use of social media in place branding, in order to progress practice, research and theory in this area.

Approach
This exploratory study uses a systematic literature review (Tranfield et al., 2003). The paper provides an analysis of the extant knowledge base including key themes, the social media platforms, the place entities studied, and the research methods adopted.

Key Arguments/Findings
Due to its participative, interactive and open nature, for DMO's social media acts as a channel to stimulate, communicate and manage perceptions of the place’s functional and experiential offerings. For consumers, social media presents an opportunity to search for information, share experiences, and provide and benefit from social support. The existing body of research into the use of social media in place branding can broadly be divided into two key strands, relating to brand strategy; typically as executed by DMO’s (Bjounrer, 2013; Hays et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), and to consumer behaviour, including the influence of consumers on brand perceptions and vice versa (Jacobsen and Munar, 2012; Chung and Koo., 2015; Huertas and Marine-Roig, 2016).

Of the articles identified, most were empirical, with content analysis and surveys being the most commonly used research strategies. Typically, content analysis has been used to analyse brand strategy (Dwivedi et al., 2012; Hays et al., 2013), whereas surveys have been used to develop insights into consumer behaviour and its impact on social media, or vice versa (Jalivand et al., 2012; Jacobsen and Munar, 2012; Fillieri and McLeay, 2013). The research covers a range of different platforms with several studies examining social media in general (Munar and Jacobsen, 2013; Zhou and Wang, 2014), and others discussing single platforms
such as Twitter or Facebook (Wilken, 2014; Williams et al., 2015). Most studies consider nations or cities, with the focus being on their role as destinations.

Given the relatively small knowledge base in this area and the challenges associated with effectively managing social media communications and branding, there is considerable scope for further research, which should include: managing multiple social media platforms; cultivating place brand partnerships leading to the active endorsement of the place brand through social media; and, stimulating eWOM, as a basis for effective management of destination brand image and reputation.

References


Corresponding author

Bollywood in the alps: Nonwestern popcultural placemaking

Szilvia Giymóthy
Aalborg University
Copenhagen, Denmark
Email: gyimothy@cgs.aau.dk

The shifting power constellations of globalization constantly affect placemaking practices and opportunities for tourism destinations, striving to create a ‘unique’ sense of place on international markets. Contemporary nonwestern representations of Europe are a case in point, illustrating asymmetric effects on the imaginaries and travel choices of resident and diasporic Asian middle classes (Monteneiro 2014; Dudrah 2012; Josiam et al. 2015). Despite the claimed significance of the creative industries on tourism flows (Young & Young 2008; Roesch 2009; Schaefer & Karan 2012; Euroscreen 2015), the complex relationships between popcultural phenomena, leisure mobility and regional development are little understood (Connell 2012). This study addresses the spatial consequences of mediatized tourism in Interlaken (Switzerland) and illustrates how non-western popcultural representations trigger new entrepreneurial initiatives and relationships transcending traditional Swiss placemaking trajectories. Adopting a dialectic and multi-scalar ontology of place (Massey 1999; Sheppard 2002), the paper draws on the notion of positionality and texture to analyse transforming place-making imageries and practices.
Place hospitality: A way to understand and improve place marketing approaches

Camille Chamard
IAE Pau-Bayonne (University School of Management)
University of Pau, France, “Comparative Studies in Management” Lab.
Email: camille.chamard@univ-pau.fr

Christophe Alaux
Regional attractiveness and new place marketing
(IMPGT: Public Management and Territorial Governance Institute)
Aix-Marseille University, CERGAM, Puyricard, France.
Email: christophe.alaux@univ-amu.fr

Numerous articles highlighted the importance for a territory to work on increasing its attractiveness. So, welcoming new publics such as tourists, companies and households would increase its economic development and thereby its reputation. This vision seems too restrictive today to be unique. Indeed, the concept of hospitality sets itself up as the corollary of place attractiveness. Either the will to increase attractiveness is voluntarily time-limited - as it is the case for seasonal tourist activities - or territories adopt a long-term vision by registering hospitality as the engine of a real policy so as to allow the public welcomed to stay on the concerned territory.

For a territorial project to be based on hospitality, that means studying the levers of preservation of both the people and the activities on a specific territory. This proposal first explores the concept of hospitality, as it is presented not only in philosophic literature but also in academic researches dedicated to tourism. Secondly, we present a conceptual framework which includes the place hospitality as its central element. Hospitality represents at the same time one of the objectives of the place marketing and the only way there is to consider the place marketing as a long-term process.

**Figure 1:** Two objectives for one place marketing approach
We shall end with a proposition of levers of action allowing legal authorities – in regions with a measure of autonomy – to implement a real hospitality policy.

**Place Hospitality: A global concept for integrated elements**

To understand the concept of Hospitality, it is necessary to define its context of using. The interest to consider the concept of Place Hospitality arose along with the integration of territorial development into Place marketing strategies. That is why the concept of Territory has been more and more popular for the last 30 years, not only in France but also all over the world. Nowadays, everything is « territory » or territory-based!

In French, the term of “territory” is a polysemous one: « territoire » has both the meaning of « place, space, area … » and of « territory ». But these two acceptances refer to two different conceptions of territory:
- a literal sense: A unique natural space
- a figurative sense: A place where actors can imagine and realize projects.

According to Moine (2006), a territory is a set of 3 sub-systems which make up/constitute a global model to explain what a territory is and how we can act on it in order to implement a strategy:
- The first sub system is the spatial system. A territory is a set of natural resources, located in a geographical space with many changes operated by Man.
- The second one is a mental representations system based on individual beliefs, social values and ideological theories.
- The third sub system is the actors system, which is composed of every person or group involved in territorial development.

**Figure 2: A territory as a set of systems**

Adapted from Moine A. 2006
We can also consider that these 3 parts of the global system correspond - more or less - to the distinction between area (spatial system), identity (mental representations system) and organization (actors system).

Considering the territory as a system, the role of Place marketing is to develop this complex system based on the territorial project. Thus, Place marketing (or territorial marketing) can be defined as a strategy aiming for both an increased attractivity and hospitality of a territory founded on the definition of a territorial project.

**Figure 3:** The virtuous cycle of territorial marketing

The concept of hospitality is nothing new, especially in literature dedicated to tourism. In the 70s, professionals already qualified their activities as “hospitality industry” (Heal, 1990).

According to Pechlaner et al. (2004), more than 30 academic reviews focusing on the concept of hospitality have been created during the last 40 years. Even though this concept is used in others disciplines such as philosophy, sociology, history and even theology, most of the publications are focused on commercial and economical aspects (Brotherthon & Wood, 2000).

As French approaches seem very different from anglo-saxon ones, defining the concept of Hospitality turns out to be an ambitious challenge. According to the French conception (Gotman, 2001; Montandon, 2004), Hospitality is a temporary social interaction strictly codified whereas Anglo-Saxons are more focused on the tangibles aspects of Hospitality, even if the social interaction is also included. For instance, as stated by Brotherton (1999), Hospitality is “A contemporaneous human exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation, and/or food, and/or drink.”
In the literature dedicated to the tourism, Hospitality is automatically linked to the supplying of food, drink and accommodation (Heidegger, 1951). According to Telfer (2000), Hospitality is “The giving of food, drink and sometimes accommodation to people who are not regular members of a household, […] But the central idea of the concept remains that of sharing one’s own home and provisions with others.”

In Antiquity, several cities such as Sparte or Delphes (Greece) had implemented public hospitality (*hospitium publicum*) by creating special accommodation designed to welcome people coming from partner cities to Spartes or Delphes where they would be working in the service of their city of origin (Michel & Fournier, 1851 p.27).

In the perspective of place marketing, Hospitality can be defined by at least four elements: a location (Montandon, 2004; Brotherton, 2006), interactions with persons in charge of welcoming others, objects used for welcoming activities (food and drink) and an accommodation. According to Viard (2000), Place hospitality appears as a mix of 3 dimensions: reality, imagination and atmosphere. To study territorial hospitality, we can refer to a tourism oriented approach but we also have to widen our reflection. Place hospitality does not include only tourism but also welcoming new companies or households. We can define territorial hospitality as the capacity to attract new publics but that is above all the capacity of territory retention. Thus, increasing the hospitality of a territory will be translated either by the decrease of departures from the studied territory or through the increase of time spent on this territory by households, companies or tourists.

**How to measure Place Hospitality?**

Measuring hospitality for a territory appears to become a key challenge due to the competiveness between territories. According to Cinotti (2011), the concept of Hospitality can be measured in three dimensions: the residents attitude, security and communication. Since 2010, we try to explain how a place’s brand image is built, how much does hospitality weighs on it and how to evaluate that impact.

**Figure 4:** Conceptual framework: antecedents and impacts of hospitality in place marketing

The role of hospitality appears in two different ways. Firstly, there is an impact of the perceived hospitality on the place brand image. To be more precise, the hospitality perceived for a place is one of the components of its brand image. Secondly, hospitality has a direct effect on people’s preferences when choosing a place to invest into, to live at or to visit as a tourist.
Because of the lack of an existing scale to estimate the role of hospitality in place marketing strategy, we have implemented some experimentation based on a newly developed methodology which includes qualitative and quantitative approaches by Chamard (2004), Chamard and Liquet (2010) and Chamard and Lorey (2016). Data were thus collected between January and February 2010, in collaboration with the IFOP Institute - a major company specializing in online data collection. An online questionnaire was sent to 1610 representatives of the French population, aged 15 and over. The characteristics of each group were exploited by quota sampling (eg. sex, age, head of family, profession) after the implementation of regional and peripheral environment categories.

A direct quotation method (Krech and Crutchfield, 1948; Vernette, 1994) was used to preserve respondent spontaneity. Interviewees were asked two questions:

1. Please indicate all the terms (words, verbs, expressions, etc.) which come to your mind when you think about region X?
2. What is your opinion about these terms? Valence scaled replies included 1=Very Negative, 2=Negative, 3=Neutral, 4=Positive, 5=Very Positive.

Verbatim data (30,271) were collected in all of the 22 French regions and then processed using two steps. First, three researchers classified each word and drew up a cross table. Based on this table, each category was labeled to synthesize the meaning of the words. After that, in order to build a useful tool for managers, the number of dimensions was reduced. Findings are shown in the chart below.

Table 1: Content of associations: HDIN (Hospitality, Dynamism, Influence, Natural Characteristics) score index Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HDIN Elements</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hospitality of the place</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of life</td>
<td>The elements that make the place pleasant to live.</td>
<td>Gentle way of life, happiness, pleasant, pollution, isolation, lost, loneliness…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Residents features</td>
<td>All the personality features of the inhabitants associated with the place</td>
<td>Square, tacky, backward, friendly, welcoming, nice, lively atmosphere…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>All the equipments and infrastructures connected to transport within the place</td>
<td>Underground, suburbs train, traffic jam, ring road…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Demography</td>
<td>All the characteristics connected to the demography of the local population</td>
<td>Overpopulation, density, packed, retired people, cosmopolitan, social mix, diversity…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>All types of weather conditions associated with the place</td>
<td>Sun, beautiful weather, warmth, blue sky, humidity, rain, grayness…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dynamism of place’s cultural activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Local culture and tradition</td>
<td>All the habits and local customs associated with the place</td>
<td>Patios, local language, heritage of history, tradition, history, folklore, traditional singing…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>All the leisure activities associated with the place</td>
<td>Stroll, walk, hike, idleness, hydrotherapy, cure…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>All the sports activities associated with the place</td>
<td>Football, rugby, surfs, ski…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Events</td>
<td>All the events associated with the place</td>
<td>Festivals, carnival, feria…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influence of the place</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gastronomic</td>
<td>All the food products associated with the place</td>
<td>Bouillabaisse, olive oil / olives, Pancakes and buckwheat pancakes, oysters, shellfish, foie gras, wine…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>All the economic activities associated with the place</td>
<td>Tourism, aeronautics, aviation, fishing, unemployment, poverty…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Famous local personalities</td>
<td>All the personalities, current or past, associated with the place</td>
<td>Valérie Giscard d'Estaing, Ségolène Royal, Napoleon, Guy Roux…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Natural characteristics associated with the place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Natural characteristics associated with the place</th>
<th>Landscape</th>
<th>All the place’s physical aspects</th>
<th>Mountains, beauty of landscape, cliffs, pebbles, stone, rock, charm, picturesque, forest…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographical proper nouns</td>
<td>All the proper nouns indicating a specific geographical location</td>
<td>Montpellier, Toulouse, The Cévennes, the Great Dune of Pila, Futuroscope…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flora and fauna</td>
<td>All the botanical and animal species associated with the place</td>
<td>Flora and local fruits, animals…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thanks to this both qualitative and quantitative methodology, we have created a new tool to estimate the weight of place hospitality’s perception and to evaluate the opinion of people on hospitality.

**Figure 5**: HDIN Score components

Then, we can compare the 22 French regions - using the HDIN score in order to assess the verbatim distribution on its 4 dimensions.
It allows us to estimate how important the hospitality ratio is in the studied regions.
As a result, hospitality is not the most quoted dimension when people evoke images of regions in a spontaneous way. Most verbatim come from the place’s natural characteristics.
Figure 7: Opinion about place hospitality

Even if hospitality is not quoted as often as natural characteristics are, we can see in this figure that the evaluation (pleasant versus unpleasant) of the Hospitality component of the HDIN score offers the biggest variability. This means that the competition for image perception between these 22 regions is mainly based on the discriminant criteria of hospitality. That is the reason why this dimension appears as a key challenge for every place in their place marketing strategy and their positioning.

How to build a territorial project by including place hospitality?
Even if this experiment is focused on perceptions and place brand image, we can anticipate that the measure of place hospitality will become more and more crucial to develop territories – whether that is in France or in other countries where place marketing strategies are (already?) implemented.
In the map above, regions can be compared using the migration rate. This diagnosis allows us to define a priority among the objectives of attractiveness and hospitality in a territorial marketing strategy.

Some places have already developed hospitality programs which are more focused on tourism actors. That is the case of the High Hospitality Academy founded by the French Industry & Trade Chamber⁵. However, beyond the tourist practices of hospitality, all these policies are emphasizing the importance of attractiveness, sometimes without considering long-term hospitality - as previously defined in this article. Yet, a Place marketing strategy cannot be limited to outward operational marketing actions. It should focus on structural investment programs in order to increase the positive perception of place hospitality dimensions: quality of life, resident’s features, transportation and all other infrastructures, demography, climate. Hospitality is a primary and tertiary form of communication for place marketing. It is not part of institutional communication but rather assimilated to self-promotion and advertisement; if good and effective enough, hospitality is already a kind of communication in itself (Kavaratzis, 2008). Thus, quality of life can be managed so that a place may be pleasant for tourists, companies and households. The residents have to be involved in the place marketing project to become its ambassadors. All the equipments need to be improved to help people exploit the territory. That could be transport infrastructures but also digital networks equipments which would contribute to make it a connected place. In terms of demography, improving the place hospitality demands

⁵ [http://www.cci.fr/web/developpement-de-l-entreprise/high-hospitality-academy](http://www.cci.fr/web/developpement-de-l-entreprise/high-hospitality-academy)
the implementation by the local authorities of a policy aiming to urge the targeted public to develop the territory they are in charge of. Even if the climate cannot be changed, we can see that its perception is very much linked to place hospitality. It seems that, in order to find a way to benefit from its situation, a place has to communicate on this element.

This article is based on the 22 French regions analysis but it demonstrates the importance of hospitality in a long-term place marketing approach – and that, whatever the kind of territory: cities, local regions or countries.

The objective of increased attractiveness cannot be completely separated from a search for improved territory hospitality, still they must be distinguished. Indeed, if a place marketing strategy militates for the increase of attractiveness, it is likely that the concerned territory spends a lot of energy and money to solve a wrongly identified problem. Inviting publics to settle on a territory neither requires the same tools or the same methodologies as those needed to mobilize people to increase the hospitality of a territory. On the other hand, improving the hospitality represents a more efficient - and sometimes more useful - process than focusing non-stop on the problems of attractiveness. First of all, every territory has to estimate if its situation requires settling either its deficit of hospitality or its deficit of attractiveness. Then, and only then, will this priority be integrated into the territorial project and the place marketing adapted according to the local idiosyncrasies.

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Places, users, and place uses: 
A cross-cultural puzzle

Kirill Rozhkov
Higher School of Economics
National Research University
11538 Russia, Moscow, Moldagulovoy 28-1-15
Email: natio@bk.ru; Tel: 0079057817658

Konstantin Khomutskii
Higher School of Economics
National Research University
143005 Russia, Moscow Region, town Odintsovo, Mozhaiskoe shosse, house 99, flat 60
Email: khomutskiy@hse.ru; Tel: 0079264657837

Robert Romanowski
Faculty of Management, Department of Commerce and Marketing
Poznań University of Economics and Business
Al. Niepodległości 10, 61-875 Poznań
Email: robert.romanowski@ue.poznan.pl; Tel: +48 61 8569445; +48 508161518

Introduction

Residents increasingly resist marketing and branding their places as destinations, and businesses and investment locations (Mayer, 2013; Dejevsky, 2015; Stormy waters…, 2016). Residents' reaction to the newcomers (attracted deliberately or moved in regardless of place marketing), may be more ambiguous (Fan, 2006; BBC, 2013) and even lead to the restoration of migration barriers in Europe. This shapes a relatively new framework for place marketing and branding in the context of global economic crisis, migration crisis in Europe, and the growth of nationalism and xenophobia.

In particular, these conflicts limit the effectiveness of branding. If residents see that the image of their place, deliberately shaped in the minds of external groups, has nothing to do with the reality, they will estimate the branding negatively (Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; Interview with Sebastian Zenker…,2015). If visitors or newcomers arrive and see that the reality does not correspond to the image and related expectations, then they are likely to destroy the place brand through word-of-mouth adverse publicity, thereby depreciating the brand managers’ efforts. The reality of the place is embodied in its product, i.e. its useful properties. The quality of place brand is "checked" against its compliance with product when the audience of brand communications becomes a user of a branded product. Strategically, place brand management is problematic without place product management.

Because any place is a kind of public goods that can only be used jointly and simultaneously (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990), place management can build a coherent place brand only by coordinating different users’ interests when developing and delivering place product.

Simultaneous use of places as products engenders specific interrelationships between different place users, which resemble place user competition. It overlaps competition of places for users, often replaces it (Rozhkov, 2013). The severity of place user competition depends on how places as products can be used concurrently and how cannot or, in other words, what behavioural patterns of place users are compatible and what are not. Thus, when building a coherent brand, alongside with the issue of place identity shaped from different perceptions and expectations of multiple stakeholders (Glińska and Florek, 2013; Florek, 2013; Romanowski, 2008; Romanowski, 2008a; Romanowski, 2015), the question of "hard" factors of brand-related user behaviour inevitably raises.

As place user needs and behavioural patterns differ essentially interregionally and internationally (Hofstede et al., 2010, Romanowski, 2013; Romanowski, 2013a; Romanowski, 2013b) then a cross-cultural study of place uses and user behavioural patterns is strongly needed. This study aims to identify a set of place uses typical for different societies and cultures and to estimate their compatibility when performed simultaneously.
in a long-time period. In other words, we would like to find out if residents of a country, representing a certain culture and society, can use the place together with migrants as former residents of another country, representing another culture and society.

**Research design**

Conceptually, the study proposed develops the theoretical model of place market analysis previously developed earlier for Russia (Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015). The research design combines typological method (typologies of place demand, place product and place use patterns (Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015)), focus groups with students from Poland, Italy, the USA and, presumably, the Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, and Colombia and mutual interviews (dialogues) with experts from these countries. The list of countries under investigation will be eventually formed by the criteria of essential distinctions in migration flows and migration policy.

A typology construction was chosen as the main study method. Places in the typology were treated as market products or useful things, satisfying buyers’ (residents’) needs. Residents choose a place to live due to useful properties of these places. Spatial behaviour per se (migration, staying in) and demographic behaviour which is spatially determined (spatial factors of childbearing and deaths) are considered as manifestations of demand for a place. Finally, migration (moving in, moving out), natural growth (having children, deaths) and settling (staying in) reflect this demand. Combinations of their meanings display different cases (types) of this demand.

Eight polar place demand patterns were classified on the abstract level, using a set of binary variables of spatial behaviour (migration, natural growth and settling). Migration was represented by relationship between immigration and emigration, natural growth – by relationship between birth and death rate, and settling – by relationship between birth rate and emigration of natives (table 1).

**Table 1 Typology of place demand based on spatial behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable/ Type of place(nominal place)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigration &gt; emigration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth rate&gt; Death rate</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth rate&lt; emigration of natives</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015

At first, National Focus Groups (NFG), will be carried out by national experts to obtain descriptions of nominal places from the point of view of their attractiveness for residents as it was described in Rozhkov and Skriabina (2015). NFG will be composed by students whose opinions represent strategic views on the ways of using places which will presumably be common in the world in the next two decades.

Second, each expert records discussion, writes down recording scripts in the native language of NFG, and translates it into English. Then he or she analyses the recording script of the NFG, (1) reducing it (deleting redundant and incorrect fragments) and (2) transforming the obtained descriptions into patterns of place use (sample see in Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015).

Third, each expert makes a conclusion about similarities and distinctions between the typology of place uses he or she obtained, basic typology (Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015), and typologies obtained by the other experts of the study, and explain their reasons. Finally, a matrix of compatibility for all obtained types will be built.

To obtain the place use patterns from the reduced NFG description, the following steps are required from an expert: (1) to insert missed characteristics of nominal places, (2) to reveal difficulties occurring when translating the recording script from the native language of NFG into English using linguistic methods (transcription (Bucholtz, 2000) and discourse analysis (van Dijk, 1993)), (3) to compare the NFG description of nominal places to the basic description (Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015) and descriptions
obtained by the other experts of the study. The third step proposes the mutual interviews of experts from different countries to identify detailed differences in place use patterns. Initially, the typology of place use patterns (Rozhkov and Skriabina, 2015) was developed on the base on assumptions regarding mobility and childbearing norms in Russia and Russian culture. Discussion of the NFG results is destined to provide and explain the multicultural and cross-cultural associations of spatial behaviour. The methodology is in line with interpretation and flexibility, suggested in cross-cultural qualitative research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008; Liamputtong, 2007, 2009).

Interim results

At the current stage of the study three NFG were carried out (with Polish, American, and Italian students), but only the first one was analysed and compared with basic (Russian) NFG. Poland was chosen as a country with one of the lowest percentage of the population that is made up of foreign-born migrants in Europe (4 maps that will change…, 2016). The very first type produces some contradictions in terms of the basic description of the place. The Russian focus group has defined the place as the one of sharp interruption of usual social relations; the one which requires immediate evacuation due to the direct hazard of life; and, consequently, the only visitors, whom this type of place might attract, are risk-takers interested in pollution tourism. During focus group discussions Russian students mentioned some areas of man-made disasters like Chernobyl and Fukushima exclusion zones. However, students in the Polish focus group have drawn a different picture of this type of place. Considering the attributes, they characterised it as a place with no attractive workplace, backward infrastructure and poor environment, but unlike Russians, Polish do not indicate any direct hazard of life, so there are some residents (low-educated people and elderly society, who are somehow doomed to remain in the place). The expert’s comments on this type of contradiction revealed that there are no such place in Poland as it was described in the Polish focus group, so the place is fully imaginary. The absence of the first type of place pattern use in Polish worldview indicates that there are essential differences between Russian and Polish place users in regard to violence; to the residents’ use of force towards each other; to a chance of hostile appropriation of property.

The depiction of the second type of place is very similar in both national focus groups. The participants came to the conclusion that this place is a small village which used to be the spot of collective farming (‘kolhoz’ and ‘sovkhoz’ in Soviet states). The local population consists mainly of elderly people who do not want to move elsewhere because there have lived there all their life. Young people have already moved to cities and towns to find work. Both national focus groups have indicated the high rate of unemployment and as for the income they mentioned three possible sources: subsistence farming, pension payment and financial support from children and grandchildren who live and work in a city. Regarding the residents’ lifestyle Russian as well as Polish focus group marks two peculiarities: alcohol abuse or even alcoholism (mainly for male population) and churching (mainly for female). However, the fundamental role of religion and church in Poland preserves close family ties, which results in a lesser number of lonely elderly people. Children strive to move away to another place in order not to be a burden for their parents and have an opportunity to help them financially. These religious factors, alongside with behavioural pattern of young women (i.e. free relations and discouragement from having children), which is partly formed with the help of state propaganda, influence childbearing. Thus, the formation of the second pattern of place use in Russia and Poland is developed under the influence of similar factors, but their details (attitudes towards elderly parents, marriage, children born out of wedlock and childbearing as a whole - as a sign of social success) vary.

The third type of place also has similar description but the same concept of ‘pendulum migration’ is shown differently in two national focus groups. They both see it as a rather small town located near a big one with some job opportunities, but for Polish this ‘job-opportunity place’ is situated in a nearby (richer) European country (Germany, for example), while for Russians it is just another city within Russian borders. As for the place users of this type, it can be mentioned that Russians as well as Polish consider a great role of religious groups. In case of Russia we talk about some Caucasian republics (like Dagestan or Ingushetia), while in Poland the most representative region is Upper Silesia. A well-knit family ties alongside with religious traditions keep families in the place, preventing them from migration. Only men go to another place to earn money and send it to families. The role of women here is to raise children, to run households with an opportunity to have a part-time job in self-employment or service sectors. Being very much alike Russian and Polish patterns of place users still have some differences. The proximity of neighbouring countries
affects the behaviour pattern of residents who are not involved into ‘pendulum migration’. The Polish expert highlights the impact of German attitude to labour on Polish people. Geographically and historically these two counties have had a lot of mutual influence, this factor increases sustainability of Polish places of the third type in comparison to Russian ones. It should also be noticed the ‘density’ of this pattern in Russia is observed in the regions with considerably better natural settings than in Poland, this fact indicates the importance of the attitude towards labour.

Unlike the third type of place, where one can notice the same concept with different variations in both focus groups, the fourth type of place is seen completely different. For the Russian focus group the place is regarded as the one where men from the third place come to earn money. It is place for hard labour, the only purpose to come is to earn money working mainly under a rotation system. There are no other attractions that might make men bring their families there. However, students in the Polish focus group acknowledged that a similar situation in Poland is becoming rare and is observed solely in coal mining regions, which residents gradually grow poor and, as a result, leave the place. During discussions of other patterns there appeared one more factor which diminishes the importance of the fourth type of place in Poland – i.e. more sustainable spatial development and, as a result, shorter distances between residential communities. This factor almost eliminates work under a rotation system in Poland. If we transform this factor into the terms of place users’ behaviour, we get the readiness of family members to live long rather periods of life separately, i.e. people of working age to be married or live separately. According to the Polish focus group and the expert’s opinion, for Poland it is more typical to have another pattern for such settings. It is a kind of place for elderly people who would like to spend calmly their ‘autumn of life’. The place itself is an attraction for people, as it is a small countryside town, where ecology is beneficial for health. The Polish focus group has also marked that there might be some job opportunities connected with tourism.

In Russia, this scenario is also possible but it does not fully repeat the Polish one. Big developers (typically, affiliated with authorities) tend to buy out land plots from native owners to develop expensive resorts, so that extensive construction demands workers and makes migration rate of the place positive. Individuals do so as well to resettle their families away from urban bustle. However, they are commonly not rich retirees as this class has still not been managed to shape in the post-Soviet Russia due to relative weakness of both family ties (see the 2\textsuperscript{nd} pattern of place use) and Russian pension system and protection of property rights. Therefore, specific factor of place user behavior, performing differently in Russia and Poland, is the attitude towards property rights, including opportunities of its inheritance and accumulation by families.

The fifth type of place, like the third one, represents the same concept of the place. The representatives of both nations consider the fifth type as a place there people come and start their families as the place provides good social infrastructure. The fact that the settling rate is negative can be explained by the desire of young people to move to a more attractive place which has better education facilities and attractions for the youth (entertainment centres, night life, etc.). The expert suggested another variant for the place ‘it might be a small place near the centre of metropolis, where you can raise your children, but when they grow up, they move to better destinations’.

Type six and is the example of unambiguous coincidence in the description of which occurred in two focus groups. Both groups consider this place to be a city for job opportunities and career. Place users are concentrated on career ladder, self-actualization and social life. High earnings contribute to conspicuous consumption but the high pace of professional life leaves no time to start a family let alone to have children. It is noticeable that while the discussion Russian as well as Polish students mentioned the capitals of their countries, Moscow and Warsaw correspondingly, as prototypes of this type of place. This fact might be another proof that post-soviet states greatly depend on their centres in terms of economic development and all the financial sources are accumulated there.

The seventh type of place as well as the sixth one can be called identically the same. Both focus groups regard the pattern of +;+;+ as a place for creative people and creative activities. The place provides its users with a number of job opportunities, there are lots of them and there is no risk to lose one because you will almost immediately find another. High standards of living and high social capital, which can be accessed by any place user, are common characteristics of this place type. The way of life also correlates with the relations within the community: everyone is oriented towards communication and cooperation with others, thus working not only for one’s own profit but also for the benefit of the whole community.

The eighth type of place has been described by both focus groups as an isolated and closed society, where there is no place for outsiders. Russians and Polish see this place as a rather developed one with good social infrastructure and some attractions for families with children. Close community and relations within families and friends have impact on residents’ source of income, which is mainly inherited jobs/professions (for
example, family business, family of scholars or family of lawyers). The experts also comment that the business and financial activities are happening under the influence and protection of this closed community. One interesting feature was observed during the description the eight type of place. Talking about the ‘isolation’ of the place Polish students mentioned the main role of the religion in this nominal community, whereas Russians compare this nominal place with a military town. This might be the reflection of historical and cultural backgrounds, as in Poland religion has always had a significant role in people’s lives, so has Russian towards its military agenda.

The comparison of the results of two national focus groups has shown that in spite of having a number of similarities in the description of eight nominal places, there are yet some discrepancies in both: the basic characteristics of the place and some attributes. The table below summarizes focus group discussions, where [+ ] means that the concept of the place matches in both focus groups; [- ] indicates that concepts are different; [+,-] shows that both focus groups have the same concept but have different variations of it, [?] indicates the difficulties in interpretation and necessity of further research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian versus Polish Focus Group</th>
<th>Type 1</th>
<th>Type 2</th>
<th>Type 3</th>
<th>Type 4</th>
<th>Type 5</th>
<th>Type 6</th>
<th>Type 7</th>
<th>Type 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+,-</td>
<td>+,-</td>
<td>-?</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The comparison of patterns used on the territory of Russia and Poland demonstrates both: similarities and discrepancies in residents’ behaviour as place users. It is remarkable that the great number of differences is observed in terms of behaviour of rural residents or those living in ‘problem’ areas, whilst urban civilization gives a common ground for Russian and Polish patterns. Traditional lifestyle pattern in Poland has remained in a greater degree, which explains the differences in the lifestyle of small towns and villages of two countries.

In the context of the research tasks the comparison of two countries has a more theoretical character as the countries under the study do not have migration links and corresponding special conflicts or spots of social tension. However, revealing of factors which determine the use of places might contribute to the methodological model for a broader analysis, including countries which face the problem of communication between residents and migrants.

Conclusion

Conceptually, this study will expectedly offer important insights into place user behavior in the frame of simultaneous product use and user competition. Comparing place use patterns which are typical for representatives of different cultures, it becomes possible to identify their compatibility both: within one culture and between cultures. In the latter case, we have a basis for conclusions about possible relations between residents of a given country and residents of the others (who in this case play the role of migrants).

Methodologically, the mutual interviews of experts from different countries is valuable because they identify and explain detailed national and regional differences in place uses, minimizing the loss of specific features, which is typical for "harder" cross-cultural approaches (Van de Vijver and Leung (1997)). On the one hand, the described procedure allows analysts to obtain holistic descriptions of resident lifestyles in different cultures (focus group). These lifestyles, in turn, explain the specific ways of using place products. We believe that this responds to the problem of maximum implementation of place culture in the product and brand of these places (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2015). On the other hand, these descriptions are organized in the form of typologies and, thereby, can be compared among themselves.

From the practical point of view, the expected insights will be valuable when managing place product and its brand so far as brand is linked to the product. The study should provide place marketers from the countries under investigation with a set of alternatives when developing unique value propositions and lucid marketing and brand strategies at large in the new competitive environment.

In particular, the awareness of the social and cultural differences in views on a place is important to understand better the usual ways of potential migrants’ lives and their distinctions from the residents’ lives. Whether the potential migrants will use the target place in their usual ways or they will follow the uses typical for residents of the place? Whether the residents will accept the place use usual for migrants (if it is distinct) or they will resist to it and insist of maintenance of the lifestyle that has been established for ages?
We believe that opportunity for the people with different lifestyles and ways of using places to live together depend on the mutual awareness of, loyalty to, and interest to the lifestyles and patterns of place use. And, otherwise, a lot of spatial conflicts are the consequence of both incompatibility of place uses and, more important, mutual residents' unawareness of them.

In terms of migration crisis in Europe the essence of place has become one of the most topical issues. It is commonly known that refugees from Syria are heading for those EU countries that have good social and unemployment benefit like Germany or France. The EU government tries to settle the things by relocating the flows of migrants to other EU countries, but they might miss the understanding of socio-cultural and religious background of refugees. As a result the EU government ends up with failure. For example, in January 2016 Latvia was planning to accept 500 refugees and pinned hopes that they would integrate into Latvian society (Braw, 2016). However, already in October 2016 Mass Media reported on deplorable result of the European Union’s refugee relocation program, where 21 out of 23 asylum-seekers, who have been relocated to Latvia, left for Germany (Most asylum-seekers relocated to Latvia have left the country). Some of refugees noticed that the mentors provided as a part of the governmental program could not help them with practical day-to-day problems. In terms of the paper, migrants’ represent another type of place users, whose demands and expectations from the place differ from the place reality, and these differences are to be studied and managed.

More than that, the understanding of refugees’ place consumer behaviour might contribute to their collaboration with local people and authorities. In this way, a unique direction of place branding practise emerges in the framework of European (and, probably, in light of recent presidential elections in the USA, world) migration crisis. Place branding could play the role of a tool for increasing of awareness of the established use patterns in both the marketed and branded places, and original places of migrants. Place branding aimed to encourage sustainable migration (i.e., migration without crises and conflicts in places targeted by migrants) should shape true and, thus more complicated image of branded place. This image should contain both benefits and losses (or comparative advantages and disadvantages) for potential newcomers, making them ready to make efforts to meet the requirements of the place and not only to benefit from it. This is in line with the ideas of complicated character of place brands for residents (Zenker et al. 2017). In the context of the raised issue, the complexity of a brand should be provided with place use pattern information which should be brought to the attention of multiple place stakeholders using (or intending to use it) it concurrently.

This also means that migrants’ perceptions of a place after arriving are supposed to approximate to their expectations from the place before it. We are talking about the migrant satisfaction, but estimated by closeness of the expected and existing place use patterns, and not by traditional quantitative scales. Optimally, place branding should increase mutual loyalty to the patterns of everyday life and, more widely, cultural patterns of migrants and residents, preventing frustrations and cognitive dissonances and thereby facilitating rapprochement of cultures.

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Innovative approaches to stakeholder engagement: Branding Tasmania

Laura Ripoll Gonzalez
Politics and International Relations
School of Social Sciences
University of Tasmania
Email: laura.ripollgonzalez@utas.edu.au; Tel: +61 3 63243254 ; +61 406 717 311

Introduction

Policymaking for place branding is increasingly affected by the interactions, communication and collaboration between different actors. Governments are increasingly engaging in the management of the images of places or their ‘reputation assets’ (Anholt 2005, p. 119). Their application of corporate principles to foster ‘loyalty, awareness and quality’ of the images of places (Giovanardi et al 2013, p.368) responds to the neoliberal discourse (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009) of economic development observed in public management. In this context, national, regional and city governments (Caldwell and Freire, 2004) develop place branding strategies aimed at selling places through the identification and promotion of attractive or competitive attributes, often distant from the inherent identity and already existing image of places (Kavaratzis and Hatch 2013). Places, however, are complex and dynamic entities (Kalandides 2011) whose identities and images are constantly co-created, negotiated and communicated by a wide range of direct and indirect stakeholders. Nowadays, place branding strategies are challenged by communication through digital technologies and social media, disintermediating the capacity of governments to control the messages about the place brand and empowering other stakeholder groups to articulate alternative and often competing brand messages. Consequently, the current top-down, government-led, decision-making process (Eshuis, Klijn & Braun 2014) is now challenged by the latest developments in ICT technologies and the rise of the network society (Castells, 2008). This paper critically investigates the nature of stakeholder engagement in the current hierarchical practice of place branding with the aim to suggest a more holistic and inclusive approach to managing the image of places based on social relations in two-way, horizontal communication and collaboration networks (Kalandides 2011; Zaharna, Arsenault & Fisher, 2014).

Place branding research has emphasized the importance of collaboration between stakeholders for the coordination and success of branding strategies, including the role of indirect stakeholders, such as residents or civil society, in the implementation of branding strategies (Argiolas et al 2009; Braun, Kavaratzis & Zenker 2013; Klijn, Eshuis & Braun 2012). This paper discusses the process of decision-making in branding places, particularly focusing on the structures of interaction and underlying relations between different actors engaged in branding places. The aim is to analyze the current structures and processes for policy-making and to explore an alternative structure in which private and public actors can better engage and negotiate meaning in a complex network of often competing branding discourses, leading to better policy outcomes.

The paper provides an account of the current governance structure and issues around stakeholder involvement in decision-making for place branding practices and explores practitioners’ responses to an alternative network approach based on the literature on public diplomacy, policy networks and the network society. The research posits that a participant-governed network (Provan & Kenis 2008) represents a better structure for interest and conflict intermediation and allows better integration among members of the network (Börzel, 2011). The paper further argues that, by sharing knowledge in a participant-led network setup, different interests will better engage and take collective ownership of actions and initiatives, transcending public-private divides in the process. Furthermore, full commitment of the members to information sharing and collaboration will foster external and internal legitimacy to the wider community of the place.
Traditional approach to place branding

Place branding is an emerging multidisciplinary field (Kavaratzis 2005; Pike 2011; Lucarelli & Berg 2011; Lucarelli & Broström 2013). For the last two decades, the application of strategic marketing principles (Kotler et al, 1993) to places have been widespread used by government to increase the attractiveness of places (Anholt, 2007). The use of place marketing as a tool for selling products and services of the places has evolved into the use of branding as a governance strategy for the management of perceptions about places (Anholt, 2009; Eshuis et al 2013; Hanna & Rowley 2011). Thus, governments (local, regional and national) turned to practitioners and scholars to create frameworks for best practices to increase competitiveness to support economic development.

Place branding aims at communicating a set of attributes that represent the essence or identity of the place to create positive associations and expectations about the place (Aaker & Joaschimsthaler, 2000; Lucarelli and Berg, 2011) in order to increase the place’s competitive advantage in the global marketplace, through enhanced brand equity or positive reputation (Anholt 2007). The complex nature of places, however, challenges the application of corporate principles of marketing and branding to territories (Anholt 2008; Ashworth and Kavaratzis 2009; Giovanardi et al. 2013; Govers, 2013; Govers & Go 2009; Lucarelli & Broström 2013; Van Ham 2002). Arguably, one of the main difficulties in applying such principles is the complex relationship between multiple and diverse stakeholders (Beckmann & Zenker, 2012) that often leads to the existence of different discourses about a place. Information about places is constantly and organically communicated informally, in addition to, and often in conflict with, any formal strategic communication (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2008). Furthermore, since places are dynamic, ever-evolving entities, determining a static set of attributes, identity or image focused on a particular component or set of components of the place carries the risk of failure in the event of a crisis implicating such components.

The traditional government approach to branding places has consisted in hierarchical government-led structures of decision-making, typically informed by consultation processes, serving particular interests for economic development, such as boosting tourism and investment (Kotler et al, 1993). Such an approach has proven instrumental due to its often narrow strategic vision for the place and short-term commitment (Anholt, 2010). Furthermore, in practice, branding for different purposes often results in a mismatch of brands and, more importantly, contested brand messages, with the associated effect of creating confusion regarding a place’s image (Vuignier, 2015). Thus, a need for a more holistic approach and greater stakeholder engagement has been identified as a key success factor in branding places (Braun, Kavaratzis & Zenker 2013).

Lury (2009) argues that a place brand is composed of the symbolic interaction between different stakeholders and different discourses that characterize the place. In light of this intrinsic relationship between place brands and stakeholder identities, scholars have observed the relationships between the different brands associated with a place as network of associations (Hankinson, 2004; Hanna and Rowley 2015; Kavaratzis & Kalandides 2015) stating the need to involve different actors with often conflicting symbolic identity attributes in the process of branding places. This paper provides an empirical account of the processes, structures and governance model by which the intangible assets (Hanna and Rowley 2011) or symbolic meanings that form place brands are determined, in search of a more holistic approach to understanding the process of framing a place’s attributes or ‘reputation assets’ (Anholt 2005, p.119) and an alternative model or structure that would allow for greater engagement.

A network model of engagement

This paper proposes that an alternative network-based approach is a better structure to influence the policy process and outcomes of place branding, since it focuses on the system of interaction between stakeholders, and allows greater collaboration and resource sharing between stakeholders from all public, private and voluntary sectors. Policy networks, based on a non-hierarchical structure and horizontal coordination, allow greater mobilization of resources between public and private actors (Börzel 2011; Rhodes 1997) improving the effectiveness of implementation of public policies (Kooiman 2003). In the process of place branding, governments often only involve private actors in the policy process for informal and formal consultation, but
still act as gatekeepers, exercising power and control over policy-making. The success of networks and Public-Private Partnerships or PPP (Kavaratzis, 2010), however, are challenging the government’s authority and its capacity to address complex issues (Börzel 2011). For instance, Argiolas et al (2009) observed PPP as an innovative way to manage relationships among stakeholders of different territories, and identified potential challenges to local governance through their analysis of a particular form of PPP named Local Action Groups.

The network concept has been applied to many disciplines, including destination management (Dredge 2006), to inform collaboration between government, private sector and civil society in policy-making. Dredge argues that network theory can help understand how the relationship with stakeholders affects communication, mediation, resource sharing and collective action around a common goal, by focusing on the ‘social interrelations of policymaking’ as opposed to the outcomes (2006, p.567). In addition, although a network structure seems to be a suitable alternative to the traditional, hierarchical and instrumental approach to branding places, effectiveness and legitimacy are threatened by issues of power and particular interests, as well as compliance. In fact, Börzel (2010) argues that often effectiveness is dependent on government’s role in providing the necessary stability for self-organisation to exist.

In this paper, a participant-governed network approach (Provan and Kenis 2008) is adopted to examine stakeholder engagement. In participant-governed networks, emphasis is not placed in the particular structure of governance (i.e. centralized or decentralized). The emphasis is on involving members in a democratic and all-inclusive process of governance where participants manage both relationships and operations with all stakeholder groups to build capacity and increase commitment to the goals of the network (Provan and Kenis 2008).

Methodology

The empirical research for this project employed an action research approach in a case study of Tasmania (Yin 2009). A series of individual interviews and focus group discussions from a snowballed sample composed of 24 participants representing key stakeholder groups engaged directly and indirectly in branding Tasmania was collected between 2014 and 2016. The aim was to ensure representation of all levels of interaction with the brand, based on an extensive literature review of Tasmania’s branding strategies. Participants included government officials and politicians (senators, local councillors, government brand managers), business leaders, tourism managers (destination branding officials, tourism operators, as well as RTOs), NGO representatives, media and members of the civil society. Qualitative field research enhanced understanding of the insights into how social and political interactions form around the process of branding places, not necessarily to describe such interactions. A main aim of the research was to observe the relational dynamics between the diverse stakeholders involved in the process of place branding.

The method employed was a combination of 24 semi-structured in-depth interviews (Kvale & Brinkmann 2015) and 5 focus group interventions (Barbour 2008; Cresswell 2009), based on Touraine’s ‘sociological intervention’ method (1978) coupled with researcher observations and field notes. The study pioneers the use of the method sociological intervention, an innovative approach to explore the relationships and underlying issues around stakeholder engagement in place branding practices. Touraine’s method was applied in this research to observe and explore the dynamics and interactions of the different stakeholders involved in the process of place branding (Dubet & Wieviorka 2013). This method allows for participants to directly construct knowledge about the issues under review, allowing for a quasi-real scenario for testing the model posited. In this participatory action research (PAR) paradigm (Reason & Bradbury 2008), the researcher’s function is to serve as a resource to those being studied, as an opportunity for them to work on their own issues and interests (Babbie 2013, pp.321). Furthermore, focus groups proved to be a valuable resource for documenting the complex and varying processes through which norms and meanings are shaped and applied in place branding practices. Similarly, it is important to reflect on the philosophical and normative context in which participants of the study developed their experiences and to extrapolate any issues to the conditions in which a more participatory arrangement is possible. For instance, due to the nature and small scale of the sample, those participants representing political groups were unlikely to provide completely unbiased
information in front of members potentially opposed to their political views, a situation likely to eventuate in a real scenario.

The research design consisted in three phases. During ‘Phase 1’, participants provided an account of their branding practices and the challenges they faced through a round of semi-structured, individual, in-depth interviews. In ‘Phase 2’, interviewees were invited to join a series of focus groups discussions where they shared their experiences in branding Tasmania and discussed the challenges and issues they face. In the final ‘Phase 3’, participants were presented with an outline of an alternative participant-led network model to brand Tasmania that was then open for discussion. The application of the model was explored in depth through the participants’ analysis of its feasibility in the current context, potential issues or impediments were identified, and a way forward was investigated.

Background to the case: Tasmania

‘The tourism side of things […] it is such an important part of the brand.’
(participant 14, in-depth interview)

Tasmania is the furthest South, smallest and only island state of Australia and Hobart is the state’s capital. Partly due to its past as a government-subsidised prison for those transported from Britain. Tasmania is often portrayed as a poor, welfare-dependent, enterprise-free society (Croome, 2015), flawed and in need to rescue. Its geography is known by the variety of landscapes and pristine wilderness and its numerous national parks showcasing wildlife, climate and cultural diversity. Tasmania’s current main industries are: agriculture, tourism, fishing and forestry (Eslake, 2015:11). Food exporting sectors have established a solid brand due to the outstanding quality of their produce (Brand Tasmania, 2016), which tourism, the fastest expanding industry, has capitalized on. Tasmania’s society has traditionally been divided over environmental versus development issues, especially in battles over old-growth native forests logging, park development and pulp mills (Gale, 2011).

Figure 1. ‘Go Behind the Scenery’, Tourism Tasmania 2013 advertising campaign

The Tasmanian Government adopted place branding formally in 1999 (McGaurr, Tranter & Lester, 2015: 274) with the formation of a joint government and multi-industry Brand Tasmania Council (ibid: 276) acting as custodian of the Tasmanian Master Brand, charged with the task to promote the advantages of living, working, learning, visiting and doing business in the State (Brand Tasmania Council, 2016). The rationale behind such a joint venture between government and industry was to achieve strong alignment of messages across stakeholders often viewed in competition or conflict with each other. The council collaborates with
leaders in various industry sector to develop a place-of-origin brand (Kotler & Gertner 2002). As stated by one participant: ‘Brand Tasmania is semi-autonomous. It is private, made up of an independent board. The government funds probably 90% of it and has strong influence on it, we set certain performance deliverables from the organisation, but in the end they are an independent board (participant 17, in-depth interview).

A second driver in branding the state is the tourism or destination brand, operating mainly independently but building on similar attributes to the place-of-origin brand. Tourism Tasmania, once a full-service State Tourism Organisation became a standalone marketing agency in 2014, thus obtaining creative freedom to market the state. Tasmania’s tourism brand is portrayed as a largely unspoilt natural environment inspiring slogans like ‘A World Apart, Not a World Away’ and through marketing and advertising campaigns (see Figure 1). Tourism works closely with the state’s Department of State Growth and other agencies responsible for growing Tasmania’s visitor economy.

Tourism Tasmania [aims to] position Tasmania as a tourism destination based on connecting, if you like, to target the target audience’s motivations to travel, to the benefits that Tasmania makes available. And in a lot of ways in doing that place marketing, if you like, or destination marketing’ […] Tourism Tasmania […] will always be governed and led by the minister and by the government (participant 7, in-depth interview).

Despite Brand Tasmania’s claims of being the ‘umbrella brand’ or main brand (Keller 2003, in Therkelsen & Halkier 2008) for the territory, Tourism Tasmania and its destination brand has strategically become one of the biggest drivers of Tasmania’s image and reputation. Tourism Tasmania’s increased consultation efforts at ground-level with industry have translated in a more positive and engaged tourism industry community that collectively lifts the weight of the state’s tourism brand. However, tourism branding often has been leading the states’ promotion more accidentally than strategically.

![Figure 2. Tasmania’s brands architecture, author’s own.](image)

Alongside these two main brands, there are other ‘informal’, often competing, attempts to brand the state. On one hand, there are big corporate brands like ‘Pure Tasmania’, conceived as a state-wide tourism brand by the biggest employer in the state, Federal Group, owner of the two biggest hotels and casinos in Tasmania’s main cities, and a renowned luxury resort; and the quirky and subversive brand of the Museum of Old and New Art (MONA), the largest privately owned museum complex in Australia, Tasmania’s top tourism attraction. The significance and quirkiness of both brand have at times influenced official tourism campaigns. In addition, issues that affect Tasmania’s society, such as environmental concerns, and local, national and international activism on them, have also shaped the state’s image and reputation, often through competing branding discourses: ‘so they [Pure Tasmania and Tourism Tasmania brands] […] sat alongside each other kind of in isolation, Federal with their Pure Tas had a much bigger marketing budget than Tourism Tasmania had and you know there’s a thousand reasons why that is so wrong’ (participant 21, in-depth interview).

Whereas in the past our tourism experience was primarily the wilderness, it’s now got a number of equal layers. So the wilderness, the food and beverage, the quirky arts, seen from MONA, the historic heritage, the events, […] we were very worried about the risk of the forestry war starting up again, not only for tourism but for our food and beverage products and forestry products (participant 17, in-depth interview).
There is therefore an evident power struggle between stakeholders to control the branded message and an apparent lack of collaborative or holistic approach to branding the state.

**Data analysis and findings**

Through the interviews and focus groups, regional (economic) development was identified as the main motivation for establishing a brand for Tasmania, along with increasing visitation and national and international overall reputation, attracting talent and supporting the rise of a creative class (Florida, 2014) and cultural industries, as well as increasing regional civic pride: '[branding responds to] a need to strengthen the local economy, which in a way strengthens Tasmanian economy [...] it is just a piece of the jigsaw of improving Tasmania.' (participant 11, in-depth interview)

Government, tourism agencies and marketing bodies self-identified as the main drivers of the brand, whose strategic communication *directly* branded Tasmania, while private organisations, creative industries and to a lesser extent, civil society affected the brand *indirectly*. Participants’ understanding of the purpose of branding places led to a variety of interpretations of the process and its goals. Differences in the discourse about branding were evident between those with tourism backgrounds, who employed the term *destination branding* and those familiar with the work of Brand Tasmania referred to *country-of-origin* branding. Government officials, on the other hand, referred to the process of enhancing the image and reputation of places as either *place marketing, place development* or *place branding*, denoting an apparent lack of understanding and expertise:

‘Place and brand... is broader [...] in the minds of our electorate members, it is just about style, there is often a misunderstanding about the different between what a brand and a letterhead is and it takes a lot of work to explain that. So certainly, this is about that authentic sense of place and what is the underlying brand’ (participant 24, in-depth interview)

In fact, governments reportedly engaged consultants to search for expertise in developing brand strategies, a practice less commonly used by marketing-savvy tourism organisations. The task of consultants, however, seems to be limited to researching, carrying out brand assessments or developing a specific-purpose branding campaigns. Some participants maintained that assessments or inclusive consultative processes are key for effective strategic planning, both as a method for collecting information and a procedure to enhance *public* validation of policies. Those from the tourism industry argued, however, that research and strategic planning process need to be owned by those who will be developing and implementing the resulting strategies, evidencing a greater predisposition to local collaboration and co-creation of marketing and branding strategies. This is possibly due to the flexibility of their practices and research relationship with industry, whose members are generally more involved in decision-making and implementation processes.

Participants observed a lack of an integrated strategic planning, noting a pragmatic approach to branding, more evident in the tourism field. Since funding for promotion primarily comes from the public domain, with the exception of a handful of large private companies, the government, as main stakeholder, is positioned as leader of the branding process. Although most government officials indicated that their different approaches to brand Tasmania were broadly successful, there was generalised recognition of a failure to project a cohesive and coherent brand, which translated in a perceived need for an ‘umbrella brand’ or a common vision in which to capitalise on and amplify diverse and often disconnected current efforts. For instance, participants recognised that the country-of-origin brand is considered a strong brand by foreign audiences primarily due to the quality of produce and strong individual private brands behind the umbrella brand, but questioned the positive influence of the government’s branding in their success. However, there was significant disagreement on what the umbrella brand should be and on who should lead its development as seen in the following quote: ‘unsuccessful in that dimension [trying to bring together different key players in branding the state]. Didn’t get anywhere. Tried, but a combination of “no, we just want to do our thing”, bit of lip service and no money’ (participant 17, in-depth interview)

To facilitate the analysis, issues concerning branding Tasmania were divided between *structural, contextual* and *cultural* issues. *Structural* issues included the political cycle and the particular interests affecting the prospects and often lifetime of particular branding projects. For instance, a change of government can lead to
a new focus in communication to reflect a renewed vision for the state and a different set of new strategies whose implementation affects the success of previous attempts. Therefore, the need to move to more independent structure that allows long-term planning was emphasized. Contextual issues related to the particularities of the Tasmanian case included its small size and insularity, a relatively homogeneous population, low education rates and lack of employment and business opportunities, which leads to self-interest of businesses, focused on their own survival, rather than on the opportunities that collaboration on for a common branding purpose might bring. The study also identified some cultural issues, such as a lack of culture of communication and collaboration and the expectation that government worked to ‘solve complex issues’ on its own, but also recognised the need for collaboration in tackling some of the issues affecting the Tasmanian society, ‘I believe the more diverse the collaboration, the better the outcome. So that’s a very different way of thinking in Tasmania, we tend to go the other way’ (participant 13, in-depth interview), or:

It’s that ownership, we have to have our own little piece, and we don’t recognise that we can allow someone else to do it and be partner in it rather than lead that, and allow it to go where it needs to go, and maybe that’s part of Tasmania's problem, is that it's being controlled where it's going, not organically going where the community wants it to go (participant 1, in-depth interview).

Reflecting on the alternative network model, participants argued that there is a need for further collaboration but a lack of culture of sharing knowledge and resources, however, noted that efforts seem to be organically converging towards a common goal of economic sustainability.

So it is about communication, I think in some instances because some of those groups are so polarised and so at conflict… if you wanted a better term, leading by example and leadership is key. It would take time but where we are now, is such a wonderful place, in terms of collaboration. […] I fundamentally believe now the government is in better position than they ever had been to galvanise cross industry sectors with some extremely clever people taking either hands on for extended hands on approach to doing that work, whatever that looks like. There’s no doubt though that that means—I don't want to use the word education but it kind of is (participant 9, in-depth interview).

Despite the apparent need, participants seemed to agree in that the branding status quo will only change if a major threat, crisis or opportunity presented: ‘so you only get those opportunities really when you’re presented with what could be a crisis almost, so we haven’t been able to do that.’ (participant 22, in-depth interview’). Participants were also concerned about issues of authority, legitimacy and compliance in the network, but even more so with the issue of leadership. Participants indicated that, in the context of Tasmania, heavily dominated by government intervention, strong and aligned leadership from private and voluntary sector would be necessary to bring trust and legitimacy to a different structure of influencing policy: ‘We don’t have a mandate to do it, we don’t have the authority and the Tasmanian public look to the government to tell them what to do’ (participant 1, in-depth interview).

In addition, the scope for citizen participation in the strategic process was limited. Interestingly, participants recognised that the invitation to participate in the focus group discussions provided them with a platform to discuss issues around engagement and collaboration in a non-threatening environment, opening up a reflection on the advantages of a different structure to influence effective policymaking. Most importantly, participants highlighted the great benefits of learning about other stakeholders’ practices and the issues they face, and the prospect of sharing resources and avoiding duplication and contested messages. However, they recognised that mediating conflict and interests, as well as resource distribution, would be key issues to consider in the development of an alternative structure, for an innovative flexible model that could better integrate and act as a common catalyst for branding efforts in the state:

I didn’t know who the community were going to be in two years’ time who actually moved into the place. And the whole idea was to have it be flexible enough that it can reconfigure itself and evolve with the community that are using it. And that’s absolutely central to the model […] I think we have to start using people as filters again. We have to start trusting, you know, like at the moment we’ve got a bureaucratic black box. Which is that things get shuffled up to government, or to big organisations or consultants, and they get finessed there by a group of people and then it comes, you know (participant 9, in-depth interview).
Discussion and conclusion

‘If you just impose something to the community you are going to end up fracturing community.’ (Focus Group 1)

The common exploration of practices and discussion around the alternative network model proved that collaboration between stakeholders is not only beneficial but necessary. Although participants disagreed about issues of leadership, legitimacy and authority, they recognised that current practices are failing to take account of the coexistence of different branding discourses and are consequently ineffective in managing the image and reputation of the place that is Tasmania. Thus, a more collaborative and inclusive approach is needed. In this context, the role of government was discussed in detail, with most participants reinforcing the need for other actors to take a more active role in decision-making around place branding policies. However, the commitment of actors operating within the traditional approach to branding seems to be impeding their capacity to enhance the network model, despite their recognition of the many limitations of the traditional model.

The case study presented in this paper sought to contribute to develop more holistic stakeholder engagement structures for regional place branding. The paper identified and analyzed current issues around stakeholder interaction when pursuing the common goal of branding a place, and explored avenues for increasing democratic collaboration of direct and indirect stakeholders, overcoming issues of power and particular interests. The research explored the relational characteristics as well as particular context and dynamics in the process of branding Tasmania, taking into consideration interests, historical background and particular roles of different stakeholders. The research focused on observing the existing governance arrangements underlying place branding practices to introduce the concept of network governance as an alternative collaborative policymaking platform capable of accommodating different interests and mediating conflict, that would result in a more coordinated and stronger brand identity and positive reputation for the place. Although the empirical data collected in the study are related to the region of Tasmania, there are implications for the broader field of place branding. Tasmania acts as a micro-cosmos of bigger problems affecting the branding efforts of regions.

As posited by Kavaratzis (2012), engagement is key for successful place branding practices. Hence, this research suggests a reconsideration of the hierarchical model of decision-making for place branding strategies, in favour of a more inclusive arrangement that focuses of the relationship between stakeholders in the co-creation of branded discourses about the place. The proposed model acknowledges the dynamic, multifaceted and complex relationship of places and its stakeholders, and has implications for the practice of place branding. Recognising the necessity for a shared governance model calls for the revision of institutionalized forms of branding and a different approach to the management of resources and planning. Several hurdles to structural change, as identified in the empirical research, include issues of authority, access to resources, legitimacy, compliance and trust. Further research is needed to explore the extent to which wider stakeholder engagement in decision-making whilst maintaining effectiveness in deliberation and implementation of practices is possible, given that participants were deeply concerned about the apparent lack of authority and compliance processes of the model, as part of the democratization of stakeholder roles and responsibilities. In addition, further research on the application of all-inclusive network structures or platforms for collaboration in different spatial identities (cities, regions, nations) will help identify common challenges to network governance in this context. The development of a platform to enable communication and interaction between all actors affecting the branded discourse, a common space to construct and negotiate meaning about the place, would greatly increase the effectiveness of place branding practices.

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Chinese and American “First Lady Diplomacy” and National Branding

Nina Wang
School of International Relations and Public Affairs
Shanghai International Studies University
No. 411, Dong Ti Yu Hui Road, Hong Kou District, Shanghai, China
Email: katherinebl@shisu.edu.cn; Tel: +86 13818268064

Introduction

The western countries have a long tradition of “First Lady Diplomacy” as part of the soft diplomacy, and we can easily name a list of western especially American first ladies like Jacqueline Kennedy, Nancy Reagan, Hillary Clinton and Michelle Obama, who have influenced the whole country’s public diplomacy to various degrees. However, China is quite a different case. After Song Mei Ling, who has created a hilarious stir when she visited America in and had her impact on some of the key diplomatic negotiations, there has been no real sense Chinese first ladies since the founding of the People’s Republic of China until Peng Liyuan, wife of the Chinese President Xi Jinping, made her diplomatic debut during President Xi’s visit to Russia in 2013.

For the past three years, Peng Liyuan’s “First Lady Diplomacy” is undeniably an effective complementary to Xi Jinping’s transformational, proactive and assertive “Big Country Diplomacy”. Facing the increasing tension of global competition and western country’s containing and hostile attitude towards a fast rising China, how to improve China’s country image has become an imminent national strategy. Peng Liyuan’s timely debut is mostly required to create a new China image in the global arena. By her delicate Chinese stylish dressing, her elegant performance and the benevolent charity activities, each of her appearance causes the pursuit and admiration of the global media and the public. We can say that Peng Liyuan’s visibility has made some subtle and positive changes to the present busy and tense Chinese diplomacy. At the same time, on the other side of the ocean, Michelle Obama have been played the typical role of American first lady ever from 2007. Throughout 2007 and 2008, Obama campaigned for her husband's presidential bid, delivering a keynote address at the 2008 Democratic National Convention, and speaking at the 2012 Democratic National Convention. As First Lady, she has become a fashion icon, a role model for women, and an advocate for poverty awareness, nutrition, physical activity, and healthy eating. (Donahue, Wendy)

Media always plays a crucial role in the field of public diplomacy. With the hilarious praises from the domestic media and honored as the “new Chinese diplomatic name card”, it’s been repeatedly reported that Peng Liyuan’s elegant and stylish diplomatic performance has obviously changed to some extent the traditional totalitarian and rough country image in the global public affairs. However, does the western media write the same comments or put it in a completely different frame? What are the differences between western media’s framing of Michelle Obama and Peng Liyuan’s diplomatic excursions abroad?

Based on the above observation, this paper aims to illuminate Chinese First Lady Peng Liyuan and American first lady Michelle Obamas’ diplomatic force from the western media’s perspective, in order to research on its real effect on the two country’s political strategy, especially on how far it can contribute to enhance the national image and soft power. I want to firstly represent the two first lady’s charisma from the perspective of both verbal and nonverbal communication, followed by an analysis of their roles with the national public diplomacy and soft power. Finally I’ll take evidence from the western media coverage to testify the Chinese First Lady Diplomacy strategic success.

Literary Review

Public Diplomacy, Country image and Soft Power

According to Edmund Guilin, public diplomacy is the influence of public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies. It encompasses dimensions of international relations beyond traditional diplomacy . . . [including] the cultivation by governments of public opinion in other countries; the interaction of private groups and interests in one country with those of another . . . (and) the transnational flow of
information and ideas (Melinda Crane). Building an ideal country image is one of its major targets. A Western analyst living in China who is sensitive to the issues around China's development on the international stage, declared, “China's greatest strategic threat today is its national image.” In a report titled *Brand China*, he further advanced what he called the “image sovereignty” problem for China (Yiwei, Wang). In the current stage when the global public is overwhelmed with the “China Threat” impression, how to build a self-confident, trustworthy, cooperative, peace-loving China is the basic goal for Chinese public diplomacy. This, in the long run, serves China's national development goal to be "a prosperous and strong, democratic and civilized responsible country" (Wen 2007).

Nye and Owens (1996) defined “soft power” as “the ability to achieve desired outcomes in international affairs through attraction rather than coercion. It works by convincing others to follow, or getting them to agree to, norms and institutions that produce the desired behavior” (p. 21). Attraction depends in large measure on the diffusion of information in order to sway public opinion (Gilboa, 2002, p. 731). To build a favorable national image can greatly enhance a nation’s soft power, which is a necessary adding asset to the already fervorized hard power competition, especially between the US and China.

**First Lady Diplomacy**

First Lady can be defined as a foreign concept, and despite the disputes over its origin, R. P. Watson (1997) identified three ways that presidential spouses wield political influence: (a) direct influence, such as by lobbying or writing speeches; (b) behind-the-scenes pillow influence as lover, confidante, and partner; and (c) influence as a public figure which includes entertaining dignitaries and traveling overseas.

First lady diplomacy is an important part of a country’s public diplomacy, which is operationally defined here as the first lady’s performance abroad of an international relations role. Their diplomacy performances are non-adversarial and distinguishable by their protocol-driven adherence to political codes of prudent and decorous relational conduct (Rourke & Boyer, 2009). Keith V. Erickson & Stephanie Thomson classified nine objective diplomatic roles of first lady: Managing Presidential Credibility, Escort role, Aesthete role, Surrogate role, Managing International Relations, Goodwill role, Cultural role, Managing Social Issues and Social activist role. They escort, enchantment, and surrogate performances typically augment or bolster the president’s political image and political agendas. Culturally and administratively obligated to do so, first ladies bolster their husbands’ credibility as a statesperson. (Keith V. Erickson & Stephanie Thomson). An escort role may also draw the attention of foreign witnesses to less well-known presidential “attitudes” and “beliefs.” John F. Kennedy once gushed about Jacqueline Kennedy, “She’s the best ambassador we’ve got” (Gould, 1996, p. 38). Similarly, the feminine style and engaging demeanor of Laura Bush helped soften her husband’s forceful style and hardline posturing that called into question the United States and French relationship.

Furthermore, First ladies often travel abroad as ambassadors of goodwill or cultural envoys. Designed to enhance international relations, their appearances prudently observe intricate protocols, relational power differences, and strategic political issues. Accordingly, first ladies carefully guard their remarks and activities. Likewise, first ladies traditionally acknowledge mutual cultural values. Thus, goodwill and cultural diplomacy roles are immensely important for establishing and maintaining global relationships (Erickson, 1998). First ladies, for example, have appreciably improved the lives of oppressed and disadvantaged peoples worldwide. Rosalynn Carter’s visit to Thailand’s impoverished refugee camps, Pat Nixon’s distribution of financial relief to Peruvian earthquake victims, and Laura Bush’s efforts on behalf of Afghanistan’s women are but a smattering of first lady efforts to assist populations in need. Goodwill roles demand that first ladies establish authentic relationships with foreign nations because “even ideologically opposed countries can reach agreements and forge alliances if their leaders know and trust one another” (Clinton, 2003, p. 409).

The need for an administration’s awareness of foreign ways of life has increased dramatically insofar as global disorder is, in part, attributable to cultural confusion. As Laura Bush (2006) expressed it, “One of the best ways we can deepen our friendships ...is to better understand each others’ culture” (p. 1). Michelle Obama’s solo excursion to Mexico, for example, featured a tour of the National Museum of Anthropology in order for her to “get a sense of Mexico’s history and rich culture” (Sweet, 2010, p. A6). First lady cultural performances typically consist of obligatory nods to a host-nation’s social customs and its influence on the development of civilization. In addition, first ladies dutifully participate in cultural rituals that are often casually reported by the media. (Keith V. Erickson & Stephanie Thomson). In our estimate, first lady
cultural appearances best promote an appreciation of American culture, including art, dance, literature, music, and manner of life.

Feminism and Gendered Politics

The study of First Lady Diplomacy and its correlation with the media can’t avoid the mentioning of gendered politics and feminism. Obviously, the First Lady’s aesthetic or enchanting roles are gendered feminine. They attain their effect because they merge utility with affective pleasure or awe. Jacqueline Kennedy’s grace and beauty, for example, enamored both the venerable Charles de Gaulle and crusty Nikita Khruschev (Schwalbe, 2005, pp. 111–117). Even hardened journalists appeared smitten by her enchanting personality. She adroitly adapted to then-current gender expectations by appropriating both cultural and mythic norms regarding feminine conduct.

On the other side, a first lady whose ability to influence others rests primarily on her physical appearance or personality, rather than reasoning or rhetorical skills, reinforces the notion of woman as insufficiently equipped to reason logically. (Keith V. Erickson & Stephanie Thomson).

Media Framing theory

The framing theory with two major premises that issues can be viewed in many aspects and individual's attitude towards an issue varies has been developed as a tool for analysis in various kinds of fields. It first appeared in Goffman's work (1974), which described framing as "the principles of organization which govern events," and "a psychological model for explaining the external world around us." In communication field, scholars tended to study frames to compare coverage across different media outlets (Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000). Tuchman (1978) indicated that a frame "organizes everyday reality", he was the first scholar who introduced framing to media studies. From then on, framing research has been confused with content analysis until Smith (1997) pointed out, "many different things to different researchers because of the variety of potential locations and level of specificity." Although the tropism of framing theory research varies, the core concept includes meaning construction in which certain attitudes or views can be given prominence to. As Entman (1993) pointed out, "To frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described"(emphasis in original). After being highlighted, certain frame can be indicated by demonstrating the statistic data. So framing theory usually forms the basis of research which applies content analysis method just like this study.

In the western academia, there are a considerable amount of papers and books regarding media and feminism, media and country image and soft power respectively, with only a few focusing on the relationship between media and female diplomacy and country image/soft power, and most of which have a strong preference on feminism and are often limited to typical political environment like presidential campaigns. Other scholars studied the relationship among the three elements but more from cultural perspective, not referring to political aspects like country image and soft power. For instance, the British scholar Pippa Norris’ Women, Media, and Politics mainly discusses whether the media coverage of women in America reinforces rather than challenges the dominant culture, which focuses on the media influence of American women as citizens, political leaders, and feminist activists in recent decades. Ross Karen’s Gendered media: women, men, and identity politics also shares a similar theme but in a global concept.

In China, we can find some books studying media and gender, with Cao Jin’s Media and Gender Studies: Theories and Cases as the ice-breaker, which elaborates on the interdisciplinary research of media and social gender studies. In addition, we can find many articles and dissertations in the above-mentioned field, with one group continue to emphasize on the feminism theory to analyze the cross-cultural research between China and western female politicians, like Fang Ming’s The Comparative Research of the International Female Politicians and Zhou Hang’s The Reporting Changes of China’s Political Figures-Take the Diplomatic Debut of Peng Liyuan as an Example. While the other group is centering on the media exposure of national cultural identity and its relation with soft power, like Xiaowei Zheng’s Complicated Currents: Media Flows, Soft Power, and East Asia and Kang Liu’s Searching for a New Cultural Identity: China's soft power and media culture today.
We can clearly see that both the Chinese and western researchers either focuses on the relationship between gender and media or media and soft power, which haven’t touched upon the interrelationship between three of them. Moreover, there haven’t been a systematic research to evaluate and compare the global media framing towards both the Chinese and American current “First Lady Diplomacy” and its contribution to the national image construction. In order to fill in the gap of the academic field and to evaluate the real effectiveness of China’s new diplomatic effort, I proposed the following questions for this study:

Research Questions

RQ1: Whether the framework of western mainstream media news articles for US and China “First Ladies” differs? If yes, what are the differences?
H1. The western media focuses on different diplomatic activities of the US and China “First Ladies”.
H2. The western media focuses on different salience of attributes in each diplomatic activities of the US and China “First Ladies”.
RQ2: What are the US and China country images constructed by the media coverage of the two countries’ First Lady Diplomacy”?
RQ3: What are the western mainstream media’s attitudes towards the US and China First Ladies?

Research Methodology

Methodology Approach

The study will mainly apply qualitative analysis with the assistance of framing theory in order to find out and evaluate the western mainstream media’s construction, framing and agenda-setting system of telling American and Chinese first lady diplomatic news. The qualitative work will be supported by quantitative view of the overall reportage and sorts out the most frequently covered topics and the salience of attributes. Samples on the related issues will be selected to be analyzed with approach of content analysis and critical discourse analysis (CDA).

Moreover, gendered politics theory will also be applied here in order to analyze the uniqueness of female politics (First Lady Diplomacy) in comparison with the traditional male-dominated diplomacy, and its complementary role to US and China’s established country image.

Since it’s an interdisciplinary study, a small part of the research analysis will also go to the theory of “Mutual Knowledge” in the Political Constructivism, aiming to analyze deep into the root of the different eastern and western comprehensions of the two country’s diplomatic behaviors and especially western public’s biased construction on the Chinese national image.

Data Collection

Methodologically, this study will investigate journeys taken by US and China’s first ladies between the years 2013 and 2016. I plan to gather examples of both minor and major first lady foreign excursions taken either solo or in the company of the president. I want to take the mainstream media like New York Times and The Washington Post from U.S. and The Times and The Guardian from Britain as sample studies, which have the global media influence of setting agendas and guide global public opinions. Additionally, American media has a long tradition of creating a negative and hostile agenda-setting when reporting Chinese stories, which is even getting worse during Xi Jinping’s “Big Country Diplomacy” period since 2013; while in the past two years, Britain is showing a gradual hospitality towards China in the cooperative fields of politics, economics and culture, and its media is undertaking a changing period by holding various opinions about China’s changes.

Conclusion (TBC) and Literary Value

The rise of China in the 21 century and the realization of China dream urgently require a positive international image. With America as the chief competitor, who also races China for the more favorable country image to enhance its soft power and global influence, this study’s unique perspective from the two major country’s public diplomacy ambassador undoubtedly will be an interested and valuable research. With
a distinct comparison with the American first lady Michelle Obama’s image as representing American value and culture, Peng Liyuan’s active and attractive performance on the world’s diplomatic stage timely offers China a so called “new name card” to catch the world’s attention and build up a brand-new nation image. By conducting quantitative research to support the qualitative analysis and conclusion, this study’s final result will call for Chinese policy maker’s critical awareness of the real media effect of Chinese new diplomatic strategy, specifically focusing on the “First Lady Diplomacy”. The result will also weigh the value of this diplomatic behavior in the targeted area of enhancing China’s soft power by building a desirable country image and provide references for the Chinese diplomatic and media leaders and professionals.

References

On the Role of Public Diplomacy in Beijing Branding: Dilemma and Prospects

Ou Ya
Department of Diplomacy and Foreign Affairs Administration
China Foreign Affairs University
No.24, Zhanlanguan Rd,Xicheng District,Beijing,PRC 100037
Email: Eurasia11@gmail.com; Tel: 86-10-68323947

Xiong Wei
Department of Diplomacy and Foreign Affairs Administration
China Foreign Affairs University

Zhu Jiao
School of International Relations and Public Affairs
Fudan University

Abstract

Within the context of the rise of China, Beijing is urging to promote its world city identity, however, much of its efforts might be in vain. Based on a survey of foreigners’ understanding of Beijing, this paper finds that the foreign public’s perception of the city shaped by international news coverage such as the New York Times, in which Beijing is typically stereotyped as political icon shadowing its cultural or social identity by content analysis of the coverage from 2005 to 2016. Public diplomacy might provide new approaches to alter the status quo but the effects depends on Beijing’s real understanding of public diplomacy and its willingness to change the communication mode and mechanism.

Keywords: News Media Image, City Branding, Public Diplomacy, Beijing.

Introduction

Place branding is a complicated but vague concept, and there’s a multitude of definitions. Moreover, for the past two decades, scholars have compared it with many other concepts such as nation image, marketing, public diplomacy, and strategic communication(e.g., Anholt, 2006;Gilboa, 2008; Szondi, 2008;Ying Fan, 2010). Though there’s no agreed definition, this thesis considers several components and takes this concept of place branding: due to the complicated components of place brand itself, which lays beyond economic behavior and includes political objectives(Wang, 2008), we should regard branding as the management of a place’s image by central or local government, let it be cities, regions, or nations(Fan, 2010). According to Ying Fan, one of the vital missions of promoting nation brand is to find the gap between a nation’s existing image and its ideal image in the future. Then utilizing effective communication to change audience’s outdated and incorrect impression of the nation to a newer one(2006). This definition is better suited because it states clearly the capability of place branding. That is, to change what is perceived as misrepresented about a place’s image but not to cover problems of a place itself. As it’s hold by Anholt, nation branding is more about what’s done than what’s said by a nation(2013).

If we are familiar enough with the history of research on communication and juxtapose it to Ying Fan’s concept of altering the image, more questions arise that are worth thinking and tackling. For example, should the concept “public image of place” be divided further to several parts, namely public’s cognition, attitudes and potential behavior disposition? It will not be feasible to approach this topic via existing disposition attitudes and its mechanisms to process, understand and assimilate information, simply because a purposeful
communication campaign is more likely to intensify public’s attitude predisposition instead of changing it (Lowery & DeFleur, 1995).

These questions are paramount for Beijing, as an emerging world city, as well as its status as the only city of oriental culture and Communism. Theoretically, for branding, Beijing could choose a package with a variety of instruments. However, what kind of package would be effective? What are we actually referring to when we talk about Beijing branding?

In conformity with previous research on the topic (Jain, 2013; Fan, 2016; Sevin & Björner, 2015), and based on the results of a questionnaire survey carried out on foreigners in Beijing, this research uses New York Times’ report on Beijing between 2006 and 2015 as a case-study. Through this, we intend to see the continuity and change of Beijing’s image in media, attempting to find a proper solution to the dilemma of Beijing branding. Furthermore, we try to discuss the role of public diplomacy in Beijing branding.

**Last Mile Dilemma for Beijing Branding**

City image is a subjective impression of people, which is created and influenced by media coverage, interpersonal communication together with personal experience and environment. From the angle of communication, it’s a course of information processing. That is, how people process, understand and assimilate the conveyed message about one city (Wang, 2009 & 2010).

According to a survey we’ve conducted on foreigners in Beijing, from whom we collected questionnaires about their impression of Beijing, shows that foreigners tend to choose their own countries’ mainstream media or international well-known media as major means to get information about Beijing. Even when they visit or live in Beijing. Consequently, the role of Chinese media has been marginalized. (see Table 1)

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6 At least it is safely to say that, at macro level, effect of mass communication is embodied in the construction of the pseudo-environment, or to say it public opinion climate. So if message carried by mass media is intended to persuade audience, this kind of efforts will be in vain. Or the result is negligible.

7 This research result is to the question “Please rank, by order of frequency of use, 3 types of media that you’ve used most to learn about Beijing before you came here from the following choices and fill their numbers on the underline below”. It’s part of the survey on “Beijing Foreigners’ perception and acceptance of ‘Beijing Spirit’” carried out by the authors cooperated with the Global Times’ Public Opinion Survey Center in 2013. According to data on foreigners’ occupation from the Exit and Entry Administration of Beijing Municipal Public Security Bureau, and making a reference to how other institutes like Renming University of China, select samples in doing similar research, we set quota of people with different occupation. Then questionnaire surveys is taken in the streets with a random manner, and we finally get 485 samples. There are 136 international students, 35 embassy personnel, 67 foreign teachers/technology experts/journalists, 230 foreign enterprise staff/joint venture foreign staff, and 17 with other professions. Afterwards, we also send emails to get more samples of embassy personnel, and we finally have 500 in total. There are researches that have similar results with us. For references, seeing Zhao Yonghua and Li Lu(2015), A study on audience’s choices and usage of media about international communication of Beijing’s city image: based on research International Communication, No. 1, pp49-52; Yang Kai, New thought about city image branding: based on a research on foreigners’ impression on Guangzhou city and their habit of using media, Social Science of Nanjing, 2010, No.7, pp117-122.
This means that foreigners’ image of Beijing is constructed and communicated by external media, rather than defined and explained by Beijing itself. To foreigner who has never been to Beijing, international media is often the only instrument to get acquainted with Beijing. International media especially western mainstream media’s constructed image of Beijing might be stamped into their minds. In addition to that, other media products such as film, television programmes, books as well as promotion campaign launched by Beijing has minor effect.

In other words, there’s Last Mile Dilemma for Beijing branding. Beijing’s voice is missed in the reception of information by an international audience as the mainstream media will process its own information and deliver it to its audiences.

Poor Media Image Dilemma for Beijing Branding: A Political Icon?

As Walter Lippmann introduces in his *Public Opinion*, "the real environment is altogether too big, too complex, and too fleeting for direct acquaintance" (1995), thus people depend on “pseudo-environment” created by mass media to make sense of things "out of sight, out of reach and out of mind". Even if that is a “subjective, biased, and necessarily abridged mental image of the world, and to a degree, everyone's pseudo-environment is a fiction”. On this sense, it’s rather suitable to explain Beijing’s image and its media image: mass media becomes one of the most important sources for outsiders to learn and evaluate Beijing, but at present, maybe in quite a long period of time in the future, it’s unlikely for Beijing to effectively disseminate to its foreign audience through its own media. For this, we did a specific research on Beijing’s image on one of the international mainstream media: New York Times, to find how it creates and communicates Beijing’s image through content and framing analysis (Vreese, 2005).8

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8 All news reports that contains the word “Beijing” were searched and collected in the database of LexisNexis Academic from 2006 to 2015. Excluding results such as advertisements, index of news, for each year, we randomly draw samples for two constructed weeks. Thereout, 422 valid sample remains in total. In the pilot study, all samples fell into two categories: one kind of report merely mentions the word Beijing when covering other things, which occupies a large portion; the other kinds covers what happens in Beijing, but these are rare in our samples; So we add two more constructed weeks for each year. Thus, we have 40 constructed weeks within 10 years between 2006 and 2015, and 73 valid reports of this type. All reports were coded with different indexes. The first type were encoded by three indexes, news page, reason and number of time mentioned; The second type, by news page, style, length, source, theme, quotation, standpoint, etc. Framing analysis was also adopted to analyse the second type of articles for further insight into the main theme and narrative strategy.
The main findings are as follows:

**The presence of Beijing in New York Time increases year by year peaking in 2008.**

Table 2 shows a comparison between Beijing and another Asian city, Tokyo, over how many times their names are mentioned. As can be seen from the table, Beijing occurs more than Tokyo in New York Times within all ten years, and the number goes up rapidly to 2082 during the Beijing Olympics 2008. There are totally 499 articles that were directly related to Beijing Olympics in New York Times in 2008. Though numbers drop after that, it still maintains at a relatively high level. This shows that Beijing has a relatively good presence in world media coverage.

**However, Beijing is seen as a political icon of China or Chinese government.** This is the biggest dilemma for Beijing. In all 422 valid reports, 391, nearly 90% of them just mention the word Beijing once or twice when covering other things. The main reasons why Beijing gets referred to include:

- Beijing as a symbol of China or the Chinese government regarding the latter’s position, attitudes, decisions or actions towards domestic or international affairs, these account for 47%.
- Secondly, 17% of reports merely cover or mention Beijing Olympic Games.
- Finally, 13% cover cultural activities about Beijing.

In short, Beijing is regarded and used as a political symbol of China or Chinese government in New York Times.

**When it comes to contents of these news reports, more than half of them (56%) focus on political issues, and most of them are negative themes.** The cultural theme takes the second place, which holds 23%. Then social (13%) and economic (7%). When categorizing according to more specific themes, that is, secondary level of theme, we find that many of the articles deal with negative issues. Taking political related reports as an example, the following table shows the amount of articles dealing with different topics. Among them, domestic control, human rights, trade barriers, religion are topics that contain more negative cover.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First level theme</th>
<th>Politics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary level theme</td>
<td>Domestic regulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total No.</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**As for framing analysis,** reports of New York Times usually select, highlight or omitting some elements of the news events, as well as the core details, history, background, or opinions towards them, thus to interpret what’s happening in Beijing. Conflict frame is the most frequently used frame, not only when covering social governance, human rights or religious topics, but cultural related themes. A typical example is the news *At China’s Grand New Museum, History Toes the Party Line* published on April 4th, 2011, discussing the opening of the newly renovated National Museum of China in Tiananmen Square, sets a background of conflict and tension in its introduction:
“visitors interested in the recent history of the world’s fastest rising power can gaze at the cowboy hat that Deng Xiaoping once wore when he visited the United States, or admire the bullhorn that President Hu Jintao used to exhort people to overcome hardship after the Sichuan earthquake in 2008. But if their interests run to the Cultural Revolution that tore the country apart from 1966 to 1976 and resulted in millions of deaths, they will have to search a back corner of the two-million-square-foot museum, which will complete its opening this month, for a single photograph and three lines of text that are the only reference to that era.”

Then the rest of the article develops according to those two opposite settings. On one hand, the article intends to show that there’s a political concern about the display of the museum, as it beautifies ancient history while manipulating some elements of modern history following the Opium War.

On the other, it introduces the tortuous process of reconstruction of the museum. It implies that by constructing a second to none museum of the world, Chinese leaders want to promote Beijing’s City image in line with China’s image as an emerging country. In doing so, this report suggests that contents and forms of the National Museum are decided by political authority. The article’s author also directly quotes the historian Yang Jisheng as stating that: “The party wants to determine historical truth. It worries that if competing versions are allowed, then its legitimacy will be called into question.”

Indeed, deep reports on social and sports themes also take conflict-framework narration. For instance, Single Mothers in China Forge a Difficult Path, published on April 6th, 2008. This article follows two single mothers in Beijing and Shanghai as cases. It intends to show that China’s on-child policy and hukou system creates dilemma for single mothers since they can’t escape from social pressure despite being sufficiently economically independent to raise their children.

Another article, Saying No to the System, on August 19th, 2011, introduces China’s Youth Basketball team members’ request to change their coach. It then discusses other things such as a former gymnastics’ champion who becomes a beggar; Li Na quits the national team for her own career path; Authorities’ refusal to allow some racing drivers to compete as they do not want to wear the exact sportswear with sponsor logo. In doing so, the article aims to uncover and analyze China’s shortcomings in cultivating talents, as well as their indifference to athletes’ individual interests. It’s obvious that reports that use conflict-framework narration are most likely negative in tone.

Beijing Olympics, as one media-event, has offered Beijing the instant chance of being rich media image. Numbers tell the facts. Due to this event, reports of New York Times on Beijing in 2008 almost doubled compared to those in 2006 or 2007, and more diversified. Also angles of view are diversified. Topics include on one hand, efficiency of preparation and organization, high level of service. In the eyes of journalists of Times, on one hand, the government implements temporary policy, intending to achieve perfectness at any cost while being nagged by air quality; on the other hand, without neglecting of pro-democracy activists, they also recorded citizens’ active participation, and the increasing sense of national pride and patriotic emotion. Nevertheless, centered on Olympics, these articles also cover Beijing’s ancient and modern construction, catering culture, art and so on. Particularly five reports on common people’s life, like the detailed description of taxi driver’s friendliness, illustrate Beijing’s social features and customs. Thus, these present a much more diversified, comprehensive image of Beijing, and build a rich image of Beijing(Avraham,2000). Though the popularity of Beijing in New York Times reports decreases after 2008, phrases like the Olympic, Olympics, the game, always show up with Beijing within those ten years.

Public Diplomacy: Potentials for Beijing Branding

As discussed above, Beijing branding, if trying to modify international news media reports through marketing, promotion campaign, or even media event like the Olympics, most of its efforts might go in vain to a large extent. Featuring of continuity, repeatability and overwhelming, mass communication is like a ceaselessly river, while event or campaign is like stones threw into it, causing only a few waves and then disappearing. Despite that this research on New York Times’ reports in ten years is an one-case-study, it does make a footnote.
To answer the two questions put in the introduction of the thesis, public diplomacy could be potential for Beijing branding, both strategically and tactically. Public diplomacy was coined in 1965 by Edmund Gullion, US former ambassador and Dean of Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy at Tufts University, to replace the “evil word”: propaganda(Cull, 2008). Far earlier before it got its new name, the content of public diplomacy includes two primary activities: government sponsored information programme and education or culture programme to win hearts and minds of foreign audience. The ideal practice of public diplomacy in the 21st century is defined as a two-way communication, or dialogue between one government and its targeted audience so as for a country to pursue a good reputation(Cull, 2009). Scholars have compared similarities and differences between public diplomacy and place branding(eg Anholt, 2006; Gilboa, 2008; Szondi, 2008). This thesis is not to compare, but to point out that, managing image in a way of public diplomacy might be the remedy for Beijing branding.

First of all, at a strategic level, to learn about “what to do” and “where to do” is more important than mastering the tactics concerning “how to do”. Place image management might compose three phrases: to deal with audience’s perception, then attitudes, finally arouses behavior tendency including investment, travel, seeking education and immigration. Altering is difficult but try to influence audience’s perception through other more effective channels in stead of traditional mass media.

Government’s role in Beijing branding matters. Still functioning as the most important player in Beijing branding, Beijing authority might think about playing the role of resources allocator and public services provider instead of promoting its image at the frontline. To cultivate full-developed civil society and to motivate cultural institution, NGO, citizen’s initiative in Beijing branding would be much wiser than to make effortless efforts to have all in control.

Secondly, any city has its own unique cultural attributes or could have a quite good economic image if it enjoys a sound economic development. However, not all cities could possess the political reputation. Neither do they have a chance. Only a few big names of cities have been frequently heard in world political arena. Capital city has innate characteristics to be under the spotlight of political center. To Beijing, one dimension of its image—deep related with politics, could be an asset against China’s arising, if Beijing might makes the best of it. So how? Here might be some choices for Beijing to be more well-reputed: to fully implement city diplomacy to solve common problems such as development, economy and environment issues with other countries; try to become a central node for city cooperation network(Pluijm & Melissen, 2007). To be realistic, as a capital city of an authoritarian state and the only city shouldering the overseas communication, it is impossible for Beijing to step back from envolving with high-politics areas.

Currently, Beijing has already have 53 twin-cities. So it should be patient in implementing cultural and exchange programmes, laying down the social foundation with sister cities. New Media may also help a lot, comparing with Beijing’s powerlessness in international mass communication fields. In line with the logic of new media, Beijing might motivate travelers, investors, international students and foreigners in Beijing to share informational and their experiences online to promote mediated interpersonal experience for Beijing image shaping.

In all, public diplomacy have a potential for Beijing branding. However its effectiveness depends on how great is Beijing’s determination to give new thoughts to image management, to improve institutions and integrate resources.

Conclusion

In nature, city branding tackles with complexity in an environment with full of uncertainty, especially in today’s world facing new-media-empowered individuals and political power transferring to NGOs, conglomerates and super nation organizations. These greatly increases difficulties and challenges to city branding. But, do remember that at around B.C. 3000, the reason why cities appeared in Mesopotamia plain is that human civilization is developed well enough to cope with complexity.

In addition to some pragmatic purposes like attracting investment and gaining political reputation, the genuine value of city branding lays on, by pursing the ideal model of city but pauses and reflects during the
process, making constant progress for its shareholder—citizens to live within, even better for global citizens’ commonwealth. To Beijing, a mega city of an emerging power, it’s a long, winding way but full of great expectations.

References

A Tale of Two Rivers-
How “Region-Based Tourism” promotes the enhancement of a place’s cultural creative industry.
A comparative case study between Yili river valley at Xingjiang Yili and Lanyang river valley at Taiwan Yilan

Randy Tung-Jung Hsiao
Room 306, School of Journalism and Communication
Tsinghua University
Haidian district, Beijing, China, postal code 100084
Email: randyxiaothu@qq.com; Tel: +86-137-0108-1558

Abstract

Aims- "Region-Based Tourism" (RBT) is the guiding principle and direction of general reform of regional development proposed and promoted by the China National Tourism Administration early 2016. The paper aims to explore the role of RBT in terms of enhancing the cultural creative industries of a place. The focus is especially for influence of branding and marketing on the industry chain (e.g. the grape’s primary, secondary and tertiary industries are vineyard, winery and wine culture industries) of a place.

Main approach- the study is based on direct observations, govenmental document information and interviews with government officials, enterprise staff, civilians and social workers. The first step is to sort out the interaction between every two parts of the tripods namely government, residents and industry. The second step is to analyse what is the core/common interest that might affect/ influence all 3 parts. The third step is trying to simulate out a model that could be used for different places to adopt and work out a best solution accordingly. And how/in what ways eventually “Region-Based Tourism” can enhance a place’s cultural creative industry.
The study reveals preliminary results from two cases, namely Yili river valley at Xingjiang Yili and Lanyang river valley at Taiwan Yilan. The researcher has been working on city branding and communication of Yili’s newly built city Kekedala (a preliminary report presented in 2013 Tsinghua City Forum-Positioning City) .

Key arguments/findings- the study found that there exist three major co-related factors: the visionary of government policy, the power of culture industry innovation, and the coordination of residents and industry to share local resources. The sum of positive interaction among these three factors is the main key to the implementation of the RBT and to generate positive contribution to it. In the mean time, as part of the cultural creative industries the branding and marketing of the industry chain has played an important role in promoting regional economic development, because it integrates the local elite of agriculture, manufacturing and service industries, attracts external marketing teams and stimulate innovation vitality.

Originality/value- This is the first time a paper from three perspectives -namely government, the industry and civilians - explores how RBT can yield the best from cultural creative industries; and to study how the cultural creative industries can rediscover its value out of branding and marketing of the industry chain.

Keywords- Region-Based Tourism, cultural creative industries, the industry chain, branding, Xingjiang Yili, Taiwan Yilan.
Introduction

China's "national 11th Five-Year cultural development planning outline" clearly put forward the national development of cultural and creative industries the main task. For 20 years of development, the culture creative industries have come to a critical bottleneck. Creative industries chain hasn’t been built thoroughly yet, while there is no sufficient carriers of projects, technology and talents on board. (Hu, 2016) On the other hand, culture tourism and creative cities have become the prime market where culture creative industries are aiming for. (Wang, 2016)

In 2014, the State Council clearly put forward China's efforts to promote cultural and creative design services and the integration of tourism development in its report of " A number of opinions on promoting the integration and development of cultural and creative and design services and related industries". (Guangming Daily, 2016) Director of the National Tourism Bureau 2016 Li Jinzao put forward the "Practically and scientifically developing the Region-Based Tourism", with the publish of "Region-Based Tourism (RBT)" China has then officially announced tourism as the driving industry of China economy. (Li, 2016)

What is Region-Based Tourism?

"Region-based tourism sees an administrative region as a scenic area where all sectors, all departments and all residents are actively involved to make full use of all the local tourist attractions to create a rich travel experience for visitors and meet their diverse needs.” (Zhao, 2016) RBT, as government's leading policy, is paving the way to an even bigger market, and has lighted up the way for cultural creative industries. “It’s significant for integrating regional resources, building a unified image, unifying marketing efforts and resources, coordinating regional development, achieving urban-rural integration and comprehensively promoting industrial construction and economic growth.” (2016)

RTB drives the whole area via "tourism + " making the tourism industry and other related industries fully fused, and forming new productivity and competitiveness. Through “tourism + new urbanization”, to develop towns with touring features; through “tourism + new industrialization”, to develop business of tourism equipment manufacturing industry, outdoor activities equipment and other tourism products; via “tourism + agricultural modernization”, to develop rural tourism and leisure agriculture industry; via “tourism + IT”, to foster tourism as the most IT oriented industry; via “tourism + eco-friendly industry”, to develop ecology tourism. (Li, 2016)

According to CNTA’s release of Tourism Statistical Report for the first half of 2016, the combined tourism revenue stood at RMB 2.25 trillion (US$357 billion), up by 12.4%. (Zhao, 2016) This huge piece of cake will provide a huge platform and sufficient projects to feed up the cultural and creative industries so as to evoke the change. However, in the past, tourism at the tourist attractions did bring incremental economic income to tourism related industries, but bring nothing to the surrounding local residents except disturbance to their lives. Nevertheless, what RBT emphasizes “all sectors, all departments and all residents are actively involved” is rather obvious and explicit to the residents. How to seek a balance between the government, the service providers and the residents, to figure out a model that can look after the interest of each party is the main purpose of this study.

The paper comprises six sections. Following this introduction, the second and third sections provide a thorough review on RBT, cultural tourism and creative industries, and also investigate the development of the branding and marketing of industry chain with that places promoting their tourism. The research also tries to sort out the common interest of government, service providers and residents.

The fourth section introduces successful nationwide, and some international practices that link creativity, tourism and the brand and marketing of industry chain in the destination tourism promotion. The fifth section presents the findings of two case studies of Yilan, Taiwan and Yili, Xinjiang, focusing on the interaction among government, investors and residents.

The final section concludes by discussing the implications of the preliminary findings of the research reported in this paper on RBT and cultural creative industries.
RBT and Cultural Tourism

The tourism in China today consists of traditional area, new developed area and pan area. (Wei, 2016) Wei Xiaoan said “RBT is nothing new from what it was but a new way to describe what the tourism is today.” (2016) But for the new development of natural ecological and cultural scenic spots, there may exist an issue of homogenization and being replicable. In that case, we need to examine the geographical environment, re-visit the local culture and try to give it a lift; or re-implant it with a market influential cultural theme. (Ma, 2016) “In the history of China there was manor, but we didn’t have fun in the manor life, because we have no taste about living in manor. President Xi Jinping visited England and was invited to a manor house, into a bar, why, the English host is showing his culture.” (Wei, 2016) Culture is important to product development and planning in tourism. Examples are well discussed in literatures such as Mogan Mountain at Zhejiang Province. It says a bed of bnb worth RMB15,000 a year over Mogan Mountain because of the historical story behind. (Haisan, 2016) Places like Mogan Mountain there are historical stories along with the attractions such as buildings, foods and people. Hence visitors do not just come for sightseeing but also for entering into stories and experience the cultures behind the brand- Mogan Mountain.

The most basic difference that RBT achieved is deleting the boundaries between attractions and its surroundings. (Wu, 2016) The culture then becomes a platform where all sectors, all departments, all companies and all residents can work ideas out on it. In Huaian, the place where “the Journey to the West” was born, nowadays there exists not only a theme park and a museum of “the Journey to the West”, but also lots of orchards, restaurants and bnb run by the local residents. (Haokoo, 2015)

Employing common historical assets of a place is now the most direct and simple way to begin private business and to be part of RBT. And it's free the acquisition of the historical cultural assets.

The common interest amongst government, service providers and the residents existing in the link of RBT and culture tourism is the identical common asset of the place, and it’s free.

Creative Industry and Brand and Marketing of Industry Chain

Cultural and creative industries in UK, US, Japan and many other countries have been promoted and developed for years, and have become a very important pillar of the economic growth of each country respectively. (Xiong, 2012) China has clearly referred to "to accelerate the development of cultural industry and to promote cultural industry has become a pillar industry of the national economy" in its " The Twelfth Five-Year Plan of PRC's national economic and social development ". (Xinhua News Agency, 2011)

The raging-storm-like emergence of cultural creative industry park around the country is a direct response to this central call. In Huaian, Jiangsu Province, at the south bank of the Grande Canale there will introduce thousands of institutions in the planned Cultural Creative Industry Park. (Douding, 2014) Creativity is the core of cultural creative industries. The integration of audio and video books, film and television, animation and games, network media, theatrical performances, advertising and exhibition, etc., forms the first round of value. Different development opportunities create different second and third rounds of value. (Xing Hua, 2009) West Journey Group’s first cartoon movie "The Return of the King"- 1st episode of “Journey to the West" series was successfully launched in 2015. The second round of its value has smoothly realized when the “Journey to the West” theme park officially open to the public in 2016. To achieve the third round of value will be relied on accessories marketing scheme going with next episode’s readiness at the same time. (Haokoo, 2015)

Industry chain refers to a series of inter - dependent and upstream and downstream chain relations which are related to the service for a specific demand or for the production of specific products (and services). (Xu Jinan, 2008) The core of the industry chain brand is the specific needs of the service, which is a group of products and services for a certain population of people. These products and services are organized in ONE brand to service the targeted people. (Aaker, 2005)
People yearning for pure ecology may be of interest about the lavender essence, on-tree dried apricot, grapes, rice produced over Yili River Valley. They may also be interested in traveling to Yili river valley for the same sake. Therefore, Yili's agricultural products and tourism products are on the formation of an industrial chain brand.

The industrial chain brand value is to maximize the brand value. There are lots of mutual value exchanges between the upstream and downstream relationship in industry chain. In the exchange, the upstream delivers products or services to the downstream, the downstream feedbacks information to the upstream. Every level of products has the opportunity to create brand value and the ability to share it upwards or downwards.

The common interest amongst government, service providers and residents existing in the link of creative industry and branding and marketing of industry chain is benefit out of not replicable positioning and branding.

**RBT and Creative Industries**

Region-based tourism is a concept, a platform. Over the concept/platform people refine features out of the culture. Just like the tourists who go to Chengdu not only for Wuhou Temple, Jinli Street, Kuan Alley and Zhai Alley, but also go to teahouses, hot pot restaurants, see the face-off juggling and sense a feeling of Chengdu way of life. (Wu, 2016)

Within the concept of RBT, a group of people living in the same cultural background, it is not only a choice ready for a living but also a chance to attract the eyes of the world. Because with creativity inside people can easily make the business bigger and stronger together. Being well known for a thousand years Jingdezhen is the capital of porcelain in China. Though ceramics and porcelain production is the major business for the residents, there are still lots of people who are not in ceramics and porcelain business. To serve tourists and trade from everywhere, they are in different business by sharing the same culture. Some in restaurants, some in hotels and resorts, some in home furnishing creative design, but all are surrounding the culture of ceramic and porcelain. Which is not only bring good business for them, but also enrich the signs of Jingdezhen.

Similarly, Canada Calgary stampede is a brand. The brand’s essence is going to Calgary to experience the Wild West era exploring the wilderness lifestyle. During the festival, the whole city of Calgary is a tourist attraction. The whole city is serving visitors. Alberta province makes the best of Calgary to create this cowboy event. Because they understand, according to the statistics, for each CND spent in Calgary, there will be another 2.65 CND spent elsewhere of Alberta.

Hence, building brands based on the local cultural assets is the first step to build the RBT business pie. There are several ways to building brands. To seize public resources, such as non-branded local native products; to give cultural value, for example, Dongpo's braised pork, Zuo Zongtang chicken and paper expensive in Luoyang (good writings make people copy them) etc.; to establish a certain quality of differentiated brands, such as Japan's OTOKOMAE tofuten; to enhance brand awareness through creative drive, such as farming festival of Pinggu Peach Blossom Festival and Rape Flower Festival in Wuyuan; lastly, leading the entire industry to create a standard, such as the leading brand of peanut oil- Luhua in Shandong China.

Without cultural and creative industries, the tourism industry is nothing but that tourist eating, staying over night if possible, taking buses or driving to the places, seeing scenery, buying native products, playing mahjong or card games on the road.

Cultural and creative industries play a cultural input and brand promotion role in the RBT Arena. The travel experience of tourists is enriched to eat food with more local characteristics, to live in the hotel or bnb featured with local cultural heritage, to drive on roads featured in local cultural corridor, to see not only the scenery but the local life, to buy local products that branded with cultural characteristics, to play games with local people together.
Observation from Yilan and Yili

Yilan

Back against mountain facing sea, flatland is very few in Yilan. Very limit crops can be grown along the valley of Yilan Greek and the Dongshan River. Living in limit space between mountain and the sea, with traditional hardworking spirit, Yilan has well established all these elements in its brand and delivered. (Chen, 2013)

The development of cultural and creative industries in Yilan has been paid more attention. (Taiwan Design Center, 2014) The entire genuine old building of Yilan railway station is covered with painting of Jimmy’s famous work. The buildings along the street near the railway station are now preserved under the name of a project led by an honorable old writer Huang Chunming with a budget from the government. From this entire scene, the personality of Yilan is respecting the tradition, open and innovative, childishness and playfulness.

The local government of Yilan positions itself as a museum of all its lively lifestyle. International Children's Folklore & Folkgame Festival that Yilan has continuously run for 20 years. It’s an activity that typically created out of limited resources of tourism and cultural creative industries. Yilan has always insisted on its planning style of innovative content route, which is combining with the "childishness and playfulness". Standing at front of local well-known illustrator Jimmy’s works, it can be clearly felt in the works of this feature. For 20 years, this campaign has created wealth covering but not limited to agriculture, manufacturing and tourism industries by bringing more than 500,000 tourists every year, (Yilan County.gov, 2016)

Tourists to the festival they shuttle around towns and villages in Yilan, realize the Yilan Sanxing green onion, Yuanshan rice noodle and local brewed whiskey of King Car Co. etc. In total they experience a hilly coastal city’s fishery economic lifestyle. Through the branding process of these elements, visitors’ impression about Yilan will be enhanced again.

The touring of factories is one another special tourism project. It is planned by the government to revitalize the traditional industries distributed in the towns and villages. Dozens of factories and workshops join the program. It is agricultural tourism and industrial tourism in the phenomenon, yet it presents itself in entertaining ways. Especially with dedicated creative packaging design they feature the attractions of Yilan on the products and result in prosperity of sales achievement.

There are 7000 bnb in Taiwan and 20% of them are located in Yilan. Just like the personality of Yilan, these bnb owners take the way each acts in their own way for their own business. Without any coordination mechanism among them, within the limited government requirements, respectively they develop their own business with character at different location, with diversified ideas creating distinctive appeals. (2016) The bnb owners’ creative and distinctive way of business management has won them very high remark. The interview with the residents and visitors also reveals that the bnb owners are echoing the brand positioning of Yilan at catering their business.

A branded Yilan is now a destination of innovation and ecology to visitors. Its lifestyle is as impressive as its products and both lifestyle and products are the major reason luring people to visit Yilan.

Yili

Putting down the guns and lifting up the hoes for 65 years, cropping along the valley of Yili Rever, with the corps spirit Yili Agricultural Fourth Division has set a very unique standard at place making and so as the brand of the place. (Cocodala.gov.cn, 2016)

Located in high latitude, with sufficient summer sunshine, Yili valley does not only yield rich fruits that taste sweet, but also produce good quality general agricultural products. With abundant rain and snow, the river flows rapidly in the summer. Along the river valley the graziery is well developed. It is typical southern scenery beyond the great wall. (Fan and Zhang, 2015)
The new city Cocodala located at north shore of Yili River, 20 kilometers east to Yining City- the capital city of Yili State, is a model of new urbanization.

The 65th regiment is named the Lavender Town of China. (Ding, 2016) Every year in June the pleasant scenery of lavender brings lots of tourist and the essence oil is a must-buy for everyone. (Li, 2013) Though the farmers aligned together and created a Lavender Fair, the overall effectiveness was not as big as expected. The investigation shows there are five inadequacies in the marketing support efforts. Firstly, only a few news reports released. Secondly, products design and the packaging design are yet to be improved. Thirdly, the spatial design of the lavender chateaux and its showroom are way to stimulate the tourists’ desire to purchase. Fourthly, the business model is still rather state-owned model. The enthusiasm and the knowledge of branding and marketing are yet to be advanced. Fifthly, the transportation infrastructure is not convenient.

Every year from April to October is the tourist season. The tourism market is relatively well equipped and developed. A few local brands experience strong market sales, but the brand building is relatively junior. (Zi, 2012) The cultural and creative industries are yet to be developed and operated.

Yili is a brand with the value of "pure ecology". Products produced in Yili share the value of the brand, including lavender, lavender essence, food and liquor made from grains, fruits and packaging fruit products etc.. (Ling, 2009) Yili is building the "Yili Valley" brand umbrella; let all the products from the valley share its brand value.

**Conclusion**

In the process of RBT development, government, service providers, residents plus visitors are the four main stakeholders. Though their interests are diverse, all these interests still have to be all taken care from a perspective of RBT. None can be ignored.

2. Service providers in pursuit of return on investment, profits and the steady growth of the future.
3. Residents in the pursuit of comfort and harmony of life and the stability and safety of livelihood
4. Visitors pursue the convenience of the journey and the perfect experience of every path over each course.

The aspects can be summarized as below:

**RBT:**

- City is the center.
- Country is the base.
- Needs of self-driving travelling has to be satisfied.
- Leisure is the theme. (Wei, 2016)

**Cultural and creative industries:**

- Culture is for the meaning.
- Creativity is the core.
- Digital is means.
- Brand is the carrier.
Branding of industrial chain:

- Selected service targets.
- Precise positioning.
- Integrating resources.
- The formation of service content.

From the comparative analysis of Yilan and Yili, it can be seen in the pursuit of RBT, Yilan is lack of abundant natural resources like Yili possesses. Through the cultural and creative industries Yilan compensated for its disadvantage. And then it learned how to use industry chain brand management to enrich RBT tourist experience.

While Yili is far more than Yilan in the abundance of natural resources, but in the cultural and creative industries as well as the industrial chain of brand management is yet to be improved.

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Selective information sharing of grassroots diplomats in Macao: Implications for public diplomacy 2.0

Suh-hee Choi
Tourism College
Institute for Tourism Studies
Colina de Mong-Ha, Macao, China.
Email: suhhee@ift.edu.mo; Tel: + 853 8598 1360

Dong-min Lee
Department of Geography Education
Catholic Kwandong University
Gangneung City, Gangwon Province, 25601, Republic of Korea
Email: dr.dongminlee@gmail.com; Tel: 82-10-4140-3849

Introduction

New public diplomacy acknowledges the role of diversified actors involved with the implementation of public diplomacy strategies (Fitzpatrick, 2007). Among such actors, individuals with international mobility and their direct and indirect roles as enhancing or degrading the soft power of the host and the guest countries have been recently highlighted. These individuals who function as unofficial yet effective diplomats and participate in public diplomacy activities are called the grassroots diplomats (Cull, 2008; Payne, 2009a, b; Payne et al, 2011). International programs for the exchange of scholars and students are typical examples utilized for public diplomacy carried out by the grassroots diplomats, assuming the power of such individuals as positive influencers of international publics.

Not only the involvement of diversified actors but also the effective listening and monitoring of their communication patterns are required for effective implementation of public diplomacy programs (Cull, 2008). Traditionally, such monitoring has been conducted by public diplomacy practitioners as a process of collecting data on publics and their opinions. What needs to be highlighted in the era of Public Diplomacy 2.0 for public diplomacy academics and practitioners is not only to directly listen to grassroots diplomats but also to understand the environmental scanning and information transmitting pattern of those actors. In particular, what needs to be highlighted is the importance of capturing hidden information shared through closed platforms. With the development of information technology and social media usage, the platforms which have been academic focus have mostly been openly-shared postings and content on blogs and social media such as Facebook and Twitter. As can be seen from the case of the Arab Spring, such social media noticeably influence international public opinions and thus lead to important diplomatic, political, and social decision making or even significant changes of global policy and diplomacy (Cha et al, 2010; Khatib et al, 2012). However, research gaps exist in that there still are the media where regional information can be shared unofficially and in a closed manner where information sharing among the grassroots diplomats takes place, which cannot be openly monitored.

In this respect, understanding the grassroots diplomats’ information behaviour, especially differentiated content shared on different platforms and thus scrutinizing the motivations and constraints of open and closed information sharing, is expected to shed light on the new generation public diplomacy practices. In particular, the lesser known realm of their communicative activities, which are usually unofficial, tacit, implicit, face-to-face, and context-dependent (Cull, 2008; Payne, 2009a) are highlighted in this study. Acknowledging not only such a differentiated information processing pattern by media but also understanding the reason behind the differentiation, especially constraint recognition and risk perception, with the application of communication theory, is expected to shed light on holistic understanding of such grassroots diplomats’ role in the field of public diplomacy.

The present study focuses on the role of foreigners temporarily living in Macao as information mediators and the communication pattern of their regional information, highlighting what is covertly and overtly shared and the reason for that. By understanding how they share information about Macao and China, the study seeks...
better understanding of the grassroots diplomats’ communication pattern and it also attempts to yield implications on the explicit and implicit impacts of their grassroots public diplomatic activities on international publics. Macao as a regional context is worth a scrutiny not only because of its remarkably high proportion of foreigners temporarily living in the region for work and study but also because of the region’s unique economic structure and its human resources policy which prioritizes the employment of Macao residents.

**New public diplomacy and public diplomacy 2.0**

New public diplomacy highlights the non-state as well as state actors in communicating with foreign publics (Melissen, 2005). Grassroots public diplomacy (Payne, 2009a, b; Payne et al, 2011), discussed within this paradigm, emphasizes non-diplomatic individuals among other non-state, micro-level, and micro-scalar actors (Gilboa, 2008). Such actors are known to be active in sharing and spreading their lives with those in their home countries, and the impact of such communication on soft power of the host county has been acknowledged as remarkable (El Aouni et al, 2014). Although very limited studies have focused on the specialized role of this group, and their roles have not been rigorously differentiated from roles of those who immigrate more permanently, understanding of the behaviors of temporary migrants in forming local social networks and interacting with the original local communities and their relationships with the home countries or regions can be a starting point.

Recently, online grassroots public diplomacy, facilitated by the individuals’ digital communication, has been suggested, since there are an increasing number of online platforms which enable for general publics to actively and easily participate in the international communication (Payne, 2009a; Payne et al, 2011). The target of public diplomacy has been expanded to the virtual community of the target nationals rather than physically fixed territory of the target geographic region (Seib, 2011). Therefore, spatially and temporally dynamic and real-time processing of information of the host region is expected to be found among such grassroots diplomats. Considering the “multiplier effect” of local information spread by them (Seib, 2011, p. 20), the potential effect of attitude formed by direct experience and its effect on behavior are notable. Although there have been few empirical studies on this demographic group, previous studies on migrants, who may share similar communicational characteristics, support their expected roles. The amplifying effect of migrants in enhancing the public diplomacy effect has been addressed, as can be found in the case of Haiti, where the immigrants have much higher levels of accessibilities to the internet than the Haitians residing in their homeland where internet connectivity is very limited (Navarrete and Huerta, 2006; Seib, 2011). Seib (2011) exemplified public diplomacy of the United States in promoting its efforts to help Haiti in recovering from its earthquake.

The cases and examples discussed above show that the increasing availability of the digital technologies has facilitated their usage of such communication tools in sharing information with people in the host region and back home (Payne, 2009a; Payne et al, 2011). Public Diplomacy 2.0 is the term which describes the facilitation of such a digital platform (Auer and Srugies, 2013). In particular, grassroots diplomacy is known to be facilitated with the development of the internet and social media, which enhances two-way symmetrical communication (Auer and Srugies, 2013). Literature in Public Diplomacy 2.0 has focused on such media which enable individual-level, interactive, and symmetrical communication for the implementation of public diplomacy (Cull, 2011; Khatib et al, 2012). Despite the emphasis on Public Diplomacy 2.0, it still appears to be hard to achieve the openness and symmetry in communication for public diplomacy. Even with the usage of social media, two-way communication is limited (Auer and Srugies, 2013). While the bright side of grassroots public diplomacy in the digital era has been emphasized, its dark side—suppressed content shared among the actors and constraint recognition and risk perceptions as the reason for the limited information sharing—has not been focused on previously. Understanding the potential multi-layers of barriers in openly sharing information, which is to be explored through qualitative interviews, would enhance understanding of the communication behaviour of the grassroots diplomats and ultimately would provide clues for better facilitation of grassroots public diplomacy.
Selectivity in communicated content

Communication theories have attempted to identify the mechanism that triggers or hinders activeness of communication. The *situational theory of publics* (Grunig, 1997) suggests that, among other factors, those who recognize the issues and are more involved are more likely to be active in information seeking and processing. The theory proposes constraint recognition as the variable which negatively causes information behaviors. In the *situational theory of problem solving* (Kim and Grunig, 2011), which extends Grunig’s (1997) situational theory and illustrates more generalized communication in problem solving, constraint recognition is also identified as the antecedent which negatively affects the activeness in communication. It is defined as the perception of the obstacles which may lower the ability of or prevent people from effectuating actual communication of the issues. While the concept of constraint recognition has been conceptually developed and tested in communication theory mainly to predict the salience or activeness in communication, this study is differentiated from other previous studies in this academic domain in that it not only adopts the notion of this theory but it also explores how it affects the selectivity of the content and the platform as well as the activeness in communication among the foreign temporary residents from the perspective of public diplomacy.

An empirical qualitative study

This study adopted an exploratory qualitative approach. Twenty-five participants from different countries or regions—Hong Kong and mainland China—with diverse demographic and socioeconomic backgrounds who were living in Macao were recruited by posting messages both online and offline and were interviewed individually from July 2015 till June 2016. Guiding open-ended questions facilitated their information sharing pattern about their lives during the stay in Macao.

Overall, clustering of information sharing was revealed based on the informants’ regions of origin and their family lifecycles. Uniqueness in the content of the shared information with the friends and relatives back home appeared to have originated from the informants’ first-hand experience. Most importantly, the notion of “host gaze,” which is defined as the “perceptions and experiences as well as cultural observations and comments made by the hosts” and the “cultural stereotypes and assumptions often embedded in these observations and comments” (Reisinger et al., 2013, p. 47), was reflected in the way that the informants observed the attitudes and reactions of those back home.

Most importantly, the interview revealed that the perceptions of risks that are involved with the informants’ communication determined the content and the platform of information shared. Most informants utilized different types of media differently and showed selectivity in sharing different types of information targeting different groups of audience. Partly, perceived risk originated from the problem with the threats of job stability and immigration status. ID 6 stated, “I think, as a foreigner, you always have to be careful about what you might state openly politically because they might just refuse to renew your White Card [Macao’s non-permanent resident ID].” She added,

_There are things that can happen in Macao, and people don’t voice anything because they want to stay here. So, they don’t make a comment because they want to keep their jobs, and they want to keep the status that’s here._

The interviews revealed that such perceived risks in sharing opinions online on the first-hand and second-hand experience were not only about the host county but also about the home country. A synthesis of the interviews showed that activeness in online information sharing was not associated with the richness of information the informants had. Perceived risks, which are increased based on the accumulated personal experience facing risks in Macao, revealed to critically affect the activeness of online communication about the local issues. Personal and undisclosed offline information sharing on the issues may not be visible online. However, as the content of the information shared by using personal platforms may be done by those who are experienced both in Macao and their home countries and those with deep understanding of the regions, such uncaptured information should not be overlooked, as the statement from ID 6 showed: “I get so hot about the whole American immigration issues in the States . . . I can go on and on, but you can’t post on your Facebook page.”
Informants had a certain level of risk perception and concern over multi-level censorship, e.g., at the country level, the workplace level, and the societal level. The statement by ID 8 illustrated such multi-layered risk perceptions. At the country level, he stated, “I expect that Macao and Hong Kong will have less freedom in internet usage in the future.” He added, “I don’t also post things about hardship at my workplace. As colleagues from the company see my posting, I need to be careful when I post on Facebook.” At the same time, a tendency to avoid extreme positivity was revealed after being conscious about the potential negative reactions among the information receptors back home. ID 8 stated, “they [i.e., people in his home country] have a lot of life pressures. When I first came here, I was careful when I posted pictures of upscale restaurants and luxury hotels.”

One particular occasion from ID 17 revealed a unique risk factor that might hinder open information sharing: The risk of getting one’s own information stolen by sharing information openly may cause limited sharing of local information. She reported, “Once, a person stole my blog posting about Macao.”

One of the most commonly found perceived risks was about the privacy concern. Remarkably, informants utilized different strategies to cope with such privacy concerns. Most of the interview participants showed caution in the way they chose the platform for sharing information about Macao. Often, they avoided using media that they deemed exposed to unknown or uncontrollable public. Most informants showed a tendency not to share their lives in Macao openly. For information sharing to undesignated public, they tended not to reveal their exact identities or they diverted topics to something not sensitive—food oriented or not about Macao per se. Many of them were most active in sharing their lives in Macao within the controlled environment, and they mostly shared information with only identifiable acquaintances with the receptor of the information being designated. The tendency to use Facebook in a selective or a very limited manner was strong. A typical example of avoiding the usage of Facebook could be found from ID 4. The perceived risks of each platform differed for ID 4, and he showed selectivity in platform usage because of the difference in perceived privacy in different types of social media. He stated:

I use it [i.e., Facebook], but not so active. Not like every hour, every day. Once or twice a week, [I] log in and see what’s up. I don’t post pictures and stuff because I enjoy my privacy because there are too many people on Facebook. You have your working colleagues, you have your family, you have your little niece and kids. You don’t want locals to know where you are doing and where you are. So, I like to keep things private and confidential, not everyone to know. I want some of my colleagues to know, in Macao, having good time still working. So, this kind of things can still be a problem on Facebook. I load some pictures on Instagram because you know who your followers are . . . . But, for Facebook, there’s a privacy issue. Sometimes you want to keep some pictures [confidential]. You don’t want everyone to see it . . . . I went to Hard Rock Cafe last weekend. You can easily misinterpret the situation. I was in the Hard Rock because I enjoy the rock music. Some people may have a wrong perception. [Some people may misunderstand that] I am going to the bar and I got drunk.

Such a tendency echoed with many other informants. ID 6 reported that she shared her life in Macao on Facebook; however, she preferred to use social media privately. “My Facebook page is private. Friends only. And if somebody wants to tag a photo, I have to give permission.” She added, “I put mostly communicative pictures so the family can see.” Consistent with the informants above, ID 8 used and shared information on Facebook in a restricted manner. Rather than restricting the audience of shared information, he emphasized that he selected content in order for it to meet the audience’s expectations. He illustrated such selectivity by stating as follows: “I am conscious about the audience when I post. I select the content of the posting that the audience would enjoy watching.” With regards to the information shared on Facebook about Macao, he added,

I intend to gain sympathy. I upload pictures online to share the experience that I have been to such unique places . . . . Whenever I use social media, I am conscious about the fact that what I post will be shared with others. So, even if I talk something about myself, if it is not interesting, I don’t post things about personal thoughts and feelings. I post what I myself was surprised with, and the things that may be of interest to others. I am conscious about others because I post things to show others. It can be taken as the consideration of others, and it can also be seen as showing good things only. I don’t mind bad news; I also share weird information about Macao as long as it is interesting . . . . I would share good pictures online. I will not share detailed feelings . . . .
ID 13 reported that she deactivated her Facebook account after moving to Macao because the movement involved transition in her career and because she wanted to separate professional from private life. She stated,

*I want to carve my own niche again, developing my own professional career. I just want to think to connect with through Viber, through Gmail, Google, through email, but without having to fully expose myself.*

Therefore, she showed a tendency to select closed platforms to share information about Macao. She said, “I do like taking pictures, but I just share it in my own network. I email friends or something like that. We are not the type who post on social media.” ID 14 shared a similar concern. She was afraid of “broadcasting” identical information with the differentiated personal connections on social media. She stated that she hesitated to use Facebook because she felt that it was “out of my control.”

*Every time, all my friends have some updates or send something [by email]. WeChat is not such a broadcast. I keep my small circle. I write one sentence or one post on my Facebook, and all my friends see. All my friends are different. If you are on Facebook, you have to be mutual. So, if I post something interesting to my Chinese friends, maybe, my American friends are not interested in that . . . . But you can share the links together on WeChat, or I can message one by one. That’s why I feel comfortable with WeChat. When we take a picture, right away we send out by email and by WeChat.*

The tendency for her to use relatively closed social networking sites with less perceived threat and more perceived control was saliently found.

While ID 15 used Facebook relatively actively, the pattern that she used for Facebook appeared to be targeted, and the tendency for information selectivity was found from her narratives. First, the selectivity in terms of the audience was found. The interview with her reflected that the audience of her Facebook was mostly family. In targeting audience for sharing her life in Macao, the selectivity of media did not appear to be salient. She stated,

*I like Facebook, and I use social media and phone to keep in touch with my family. We use WhatsApp, Viber, and FaceTime to keep in touch and to watch with each other [i.e., children]. I use online to run our life. I think, if we didn’t have the internet, life overseas would have been more isolated.*

In addition, the selectivity tendency in the aspects of information shared was found to be unique.

*My husband does [post a lot of pictures on Facebook]. He is always taking pictures and posting them especially when we go up early in the morning for walking, where we live, that’s the wetland area, with the lotus flowers, and he takes pictures of that and posts it, to show people home how green Macao is. And he takes a lot of pictures on the golf course. Then, when we first arrived, he used to take pictures of the old part of Macao and the old part of Taipa . . . . I used to take pictures when I would go hiking in Coloane at the beach and up in the hills.*

ID 17 showed a tendency not to use Facebook, but she diverted information sharing to another anonymous platform—her blog—and the messengers for personal conversation. She stated, “I don’t like to expose the details of my life on Facebook. I can communicate on blogs.” Her tendency to rely on blogging for sharing information started before she came to Macao. “Before coming to Macao, I usually blogged about Taiwan. Afterwards, I got to blog about Macao.” ID 17 indicated that her motivation for sharing information through her blog was “to find potential opportunities.” She stated, “I slightly expect that blogging would be practically beneficial. So, I continue blogging.” Her reaction conforms to the benefit-driven motivation for the lay person to participate in the information sharing of their local life (Rehmet and Dinnie, 2013).

Emailing was found as a way to talk about Macao, and offline information sharing during the informants’ travel back home was revealed as an important way of communication. ID 2 reported that she used Facebook to share news about the local events often as a part of her offline local social organizational functions. She said, “If I post something, it’s an invitation for people to join me in Macao doing something in Macao only” because she defined such information as “in the category of not personal things.” Instead, she showed the tendency to use emails to share personal life in Macao. She said,
If I write something, it’s in an email that I send to people I know intimately. There’s no stranger involved. The decision of not to post publicly is extremely personal to a situation that it is in my own family that is not to be, that is not common among anybody else in the world.

The tendency to utilize emails as a controlled means of communication echoed with other informants. ID 3 exemplified the content and the means of sharing information about Macao in the following illustration:

I wrote our Christmas letter, and, at the end of the letter, I attached a link, because we only send it by email—I attached a link of a . . . tour of Macao by air, and the narration showing the cultural differences from air looking down between the Portuguese and [Chinese] . . . . I attached it to our letter when I sent out to about four hundred something people. ‘These are the cultural spots. We hope you are coming to see us, learning about another part of the country.’

In sum, regardless of the age group or nationality, many informants were hesitant in sharing information online openly, but instead, they chose the strategy to email pictures and stories personally or rather meet acquaintances offline and share most of the back-of-the-scene information and experience while they are back home or while the guests come to Macao. The most commonly used strategy was to avoid using platforms on which postings ran the risk of being shown to unknown public. When the audience of the information shared is more designated, informants felt more comfortable with sharing local information.

Conclusion

This study focused on the perceived constraints and risks in open online information sharing among the grassroots diplomats in the era of Public Diplomacy 2.0. Interviews with foreigners temporarily living in Macao revealed the tendency of self-screening of content as well as selectiveness of platforms for communication with those in Macao and in their hometown. Emails were considered personal and secure for most informants of this study while Facebook was utilized with caution. The implication that the present study provides is that, theoretically, it provided clues how the variable of constraint recognition is observed in the context of grassroots public diplomacy. The study also provided potential for this variable as the antecedent not only of the activeness in communication but also in selectivity of content and platform, which partially is reflected in information selection, a sub-dimension of the communicative action in problem solving (Kim and Grunig, 2011).

The findings also imply that the local information publicly available online would be the tip of the iceberg, especially in understanding the communicative behavior of residing foreigners in different countries and regions. The importance of tacit information sharing between the study subjects and others in the same host region and back home may need to be considered in more accurately capturing their communicative patterns. Many of them preferred to use platforms which are more controlled and shared by closed networks. Analyzing information publicly available online in examining the foreign communities’ communication pattern might involve limitations.

In recent years, some of the public diplomacy policies may have involved the facilitation of information exchange. However, without taking care of the risk perception involved with such information sharing, facilitation by providing tools for sharing may not be the sufficient condition. Understanding the dynamics in the gaps between the information such foreigners have about the host region and the activeness of information dissemination, with additional consideration of the impact of risk perceptions (Zenker, 2011) is crucial. The impact of unofficial information sharing might be more crucial than that of publicly available information if the information receptors believe that the information is more trustworthy and updated. Future studies may need to address such variables and figure out the impact of local information shared after considering such variables.

References


Establishing external validity for consumer-based place brand equity scales: Mission impossible or a matter of approach?

Thomas Leicht
School of Business
University of Leicester
Rippoldsauer Straße 6, 70372 Stuttgart, Germany
Email: tcl11@le.ac.uk; Tel: 0049 176 40599135

Abstract

Research in the field of place branding is searching for reliable approaches in order to quantify the impact of place branding activities. Recent publications (e.g. Bose et al, 2016; Florek and Kavaratzis, 2014; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007) suggest using the concept of brand equity and focus on place brand equity from the consumer perspective. Since brand equity is a relative measure that needs to be compared with competing brands (Lassar et al, 1995), brand equity measurement through scales is not only supposed to have internal (content, construct, etc.) validity, but also external validity (Winer, 1999). The dynamic complexity and inherent specificity of places might however pose issues for the operationalization of place brand equity scales. The main purpose of this paper is therefore to investigate 1) what external validity of statistical scales for measuring place brand equity actually means, 2) if and how existing place brand equity scales have dealt with the issue of external validity, and 3) how external scale validity for place brand equity measurement could be addressed by further research.

The paper starts with introducing the significance of validity for the development of statistical measures. Then, first attempts to measure customer-based place (or destination) brand equity are presented. A critical review of recent publications in which scales have been proposed in order to measure customer-based place (or destination) brand equity shows that most studies neither prove the external validity of the scale at different places, nor develop a theoretical problematization of this issue. The reasons for this may relate to the specificity and complexity of places, as well as the scope of the respective study. Drawing from previous research on place brand equity and the concept of place, new perspectives on the notion of external scale validity for place brand equity measurement are therefore explored. For ensuring external scale validity, the paper advances the argument that place brand equity measurement should include more than one place on 1) a comparable territorial scale (i.e. city vs city, region vs region, country vs country) but in 2) different spatial-cultural contexts (i.e. located at different places and/or different cultural 'spheres') offering at least to a certain degree 3) comparable types of place product or service offerings, as the assessment might otherwise have limited internal (i.e. content, construct) and ontological validity.

Introduction

Important amounts of taxpayers’ money are invested in the marketing of places (Jacobsen, 2009; Zenker, 2014). Therefore, research in the field of place branding is focusing on how scholars and practitioners could reliably measure the outcomes of place marketing activities. Theoretically, if place marketers want to manage the success of place branding, they also need to be able to measure, track and compare it. One of the most recent ideas of place branding scholars (see Bose et al, 2016; Florek and Kavaratzis, 2014) is to apply the concept of brand equity and to measure place brand equity from the consumer perspective. According to Papadolopoulos (2004:43), place brand equity describes the “real and/or perceived brand assets and liabilities linked to a place that differentiate it”. The idea of developing measures for assessing customer-based place brand equity has been informed by the development of scales for measuring the brand equity of destination brands (see Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). Since brand equity is a relative measure that needs to be compared with competing brands (Lassar et al 1995), brand equity scales are not only supposed to have internal validity, but also external validity (Winer, 1999). However, the inherent complexity and distinctive specificity of place brands might pose issues for brand equity comparisons of different places since places are characteristically dissimilar (Warnaby and Medway, 2013).
The purpose of this study is therefore 1) to investigate what external validity for measuring place brand equity actually means, 2) if and how existing place (or destination) brand equity scales have dealt with the issue of external validity, and 3) how external scale validity for place brand equity measurement could be addressed by further research. The paper starts with introducing the notion of scale validity and presents preliminary approaches to measure place brand equity. Then, the findings of a critical review of 18 scientific articles, in which scales for measuring place (or destination) brand equity have been proposed, are discussed. This provides the basis for new ideas about external scale validity in the context of place brand equity measurement.

The significance of scale validity

According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the development of measurement scales involves rules for assigning numbers to objects to represent quantities of attributes. Scales usually consist of dimensions represented by items that are used to measure aspects of the world. The inherent idea of such scales is to provide a universal measure that can be applied to different contexts. In order for a scale to be considered as valid, different validity tests need to be conducted in addition to assessments of statistical reliability and consistency (American Psychological Association, 1985). According to Churchill (1979:65) “a measure is valid when the differences in observed scores reflect true differences on the characteristic one is attempting to measure”. Content validity describes the adequacy with which a measure assesses the domain of interest and is given in the measure through the development of items (Stone, 1978). Items need to be face valid in order to be content valid. Face validity refers to the extent to which a measure covers what it is intended to measure (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Face validity is a necessary but not sufficient condition for ensuring construct validity, since items must also pass tests of criterion-related validity (e.g., discriminant, convergent, nomological and predictive validity) (Dorst, 1995; Hardesty and Bearden, 2004). Criterion-related validity describes the relationship between a measure and another independent measure (American Psychological Association, 1985). Discriminant validity for example measures the degree to which two or more latent constructs measure different constructs. Convergent validity measures the degree to which the variables of a latent construct measure the same construct (Churchill, 1979). Nomological validity measures whether a construct has the same relationships with other variables that have been tested and validated beforehand in other studies (Blanthorne et al, 2006). Furthermore, predictive validity ensures that models can be tested and re-tested over time (Fitchett and Davies, 2013).

Since one of the most desirable outcomes of research is to deliver generalizable results, external validity is also of great importance (Winer, 1999). External validity implies that the results of a study can be generalized among different samples, settings and times (Cook and Campbell, 1979). The rationale behind the idea of external validity is that the statistical significance of findings might in some cases not be applicable to other groups (populations) and settings. External validity therefore affects the relevance and practical utility of any research finding (Fitchett and Davies, 2013).

There is empirical evidence that statistical measures validated in one setting might not be applicable to the same degree in another setting. Vázquez et al (2002) for example identified four dimensions of brand utilities in order to measure consumer-based brand equity. Although statistical tests showed that their 22-item scale has strong psychometric properties, Koçak et al (2007) demonstrated that the scale developed by Vázquez et al (2002) had little or even no external validity when applied in another geographical context. Instead, a similar but not identical 16-item scale was supported by their data (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010).

Generally speaking, Christodoulides et al (2015) argue that the issue of external validity is widely recurrent in research into product or service brand equity, as most studies mainly focused on data from one single country.

The issue of (customer-based) place brand equity

Bose et al (2016) note that most of the place branding literature has already implicitly or explicitly dealt with one or several dimensions of brand equity. According to Konecnik and Gartner (2007), one of the central assumptions of applying the concept of brand equity to places is that places (or destinations) are not only
evaluated from objective or perceived attributes but also according to their underlying brand and its intangible components. Florek (2015) argues that for place brand equity to fulfil its strategic functions, it is imperative to identify the sources of brand equity and its results and to show how they change over time. However, Florek (2015:230) finds that “to date, there has been hardly any discussion on how (place) brand equity should be interpreted and how it should be measured irrespective of its scale”. Existing publications on place brand equity differ with regards to scope (city, region, country, etc.), context (tourists, investors, residents, etc.) and the methods applied (Florek, 2015).

For instance, Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) advance the understanding of country brand equity, whereas Dinnie (2008) proposes an asset-based model for nation brand equity. Bose et al (2016) focus on the region of West Bengal for measuring place brand equity, whereas Lucarelli (2012) focuses on cities and Konecnik and Gartner (2007) on tourism destinations. Besides, certain authors develop measures of place brand equity for specific groups of place brand stakeholders. Tourists have received most of the attention in this regard (e.g. Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Pike et al, 2010). On the other hand, Jacobsen (2009; 2012) and Bose et al (2016) examine place brand equity from the investor perspective. Florek (2012) in turn focuses on residents. There is also much diversity when it comes to methods for measuring place brand equity. Shafranskaya and Potapov (2014) for example draw from signalling theory and apply conjoint analysis, whereas Jorgensen (2015) proposes a balance sheet for measuring, comparing and tracking city brand equity. Donner et al (2014) use interviews and secondary data to analyze the place brand equity of ‘Sud de France’. Lemmentyinen et al (2013) conduct multi-layered content analysis and combine secondary data with interviews to analyze the impact of the Pori Jazz festival in Finland on place brand equity. Besides, Andehn et al (2014) use semantic and content analysis of user-generated web content in order to examine city brand equity. One of the most recent methodological ideas is to develop statistical scales for measuring place brand equity (see Bose et al, 2016). According to Bose et al (2016:2), the measurement of place brand equity with scales is “a welcome addition to the place branding literature”.

The development of scales for measuring place brand equity has been informed by research on tourism destinations (see Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Boo et al, 2009). Recently, a growing number of scales has been developed for different types of destinations, which can in this context also be considered as place brands. Since brand equity is a relative concept that only provides interesting insights when it is tracked over time or compared among different competing brands (Crimmins, 2000; Lassar et al, 1995), it needs to be questioned how previous assessments of place (or destination) brand equity could be operationalized? In fact, many place branding scholars (e.g. Blichfeldt, 2005; Kavaratzis, 2009; Warnaby and Medway, 2013) argue that places are inherently distinctive. Therefore, it seems to be important to examine how recent contributions in the field of place (and destination) branding have dealt with the issue of external scale validity.

**Methodology**

For addressing the objectives of this study, a critical review of literature in the field of place and destination branding has been conducted. A literature review describes according to Fink (2005) the analysis of the content and quality of knowledge already available. Findings from previous studies are explained to ground subsequent ideas that could advance theoretical development. As an academic procedure, a literature review must contribute to the scholarly debate by synthesizing the findings delivered by previous contributions and by offering a new, often rather critical perspective on commonly accepted paradigms (Fink, 2005). According to Grant and Booth (2009), a critical review of literature goes in this context beyond the mere description of publications to include degrees of analysis and conceptual innovation. Critical reviews do not strictly need to provide a formal quality assessment, the aim of critical reviews is rather to provide a conceptual contribution to embody existing theory or derive new hypotheses (Grant and Booth, 2009).

For the purpose of this study, recent publications in which the concept of place or destination brand equity has been dealt with were identified in the online database of EBSCOhost Business© and on the website www.researchgate.net/. The Boolean search string “(place OR destination) AND brand equity” was used in order to find relevant publications. This led to 223 results in the database of EBSCOhost Business© and 271 results on the website www.researchgate.net/. A formal check (reading through abstracts, etc.) of the search results was conducted in order to identify publications 1) written in English, in which 2) a statistical scale has either been developed or tested for 3) either a place (in general) or a tourism destination. This resulted in a final data sample of 18 scientific articles that are shown in table 1. The critical review focused on how the
authors addressed external scale validity and whether they developed a deeper discussion of this issue. Publications explicitly focusing on country-of-origin (COO) effects or place/destination image and their relationship with place brand equity were omitted in the data sample, as they would have extended the scope of this study.

The studies presented in table 1 were published between 2007 and 2016. Most of them appeared in internationally renowned journals (Tourism Management, Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, etc.). The spatial entity on which place brand equity was measured ranged from single places such as cities and tourism destinations to countries all over the world.

Table 1: Overview of scientific articles analyzed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s) (year of publication)</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Journal (Issue/No.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Konecnik and Gartner (2007)</td>
<td>Consumer-based brand equity for a destination</td>
<td>Annals of Tourism Research (34/2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boo, Busser and Baloglu (2009)</td>
<td>A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations</td>
<td>Tourism Management (30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gartner and Konecnik (2011)</td>
<td>Tourism destination brand equity dimensions: Renewal versus repeat market</td>
<td>Journal of Travel Research (50/5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong, Lee and Kim (2012)</td>
<td>An analysis of the components and measurement of brand equity in residential areas: A case study of Bundang and Island in Korea</td>
<td>Journal of Asian Architecture and Building Engineering (54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florek (2012)</td>
<td>Measurement of city brand equity</td>
<td>Actual Problems of Economics (2/7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sartori, Mottironi and Corigliano (2012)</td>
<td>Tourist destination brand equity and internal stakeholders: An empirical research</td>
<td>Journal of Vacation Marketing (18/4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Im, Kim, Elliott and Han (2012)</td>
<td>Conceptualizing Destination Brand Equity Dimensions from a Consumer-Based Brand Equity Perspective</td>
<td>Journal of Travel &amp; Tourism Marketing (4/29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pike and Bianchi (2013)</td>
<td>Destination brand equity for Australia: Testing a model of CBBE in short-haul and long-haul markets</td>
<td>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bianchi, Pike and Lings (2014)</td>
<td>Investigating attitudes towards three South American destinations in an emerging long haul marketing using a model of consumer-based brand equity (CBBE)</td>
<td>Tourism Management (42)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although Florek (2015:236) notes that the authors who examined the issue of place brand equity “clearly indicate that a consumer-based approach works for place brands”, certain questions arise when analyzing recent attempts to measure place brand equity with scales.

Analysis of scale development and employment

First of all, it can be distinguished between articles in which new scales for measuring place brand equity have been developed (e.g. Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Boo et al, 2009; Im et al, 2012; Bose et al, 2016) borrowing items from general research into marketing, and articles in which parts of scales developed by previous studies about place brand equity were employed (e.g. Pike et al, 2010; Zanfardini et al, 2011). In all articles, the authors used literature reviews to create items, but in only 8 articles, the authors also considered expert opinions in order to address face and content validity. Although the items tested in the articles in which new scales for measuring place (or destination) brand equity seem to be collected from different publications, most of them refer in some form to Aaker’s (1991) and Keller’s (1993) conceptualizations of brand equity and the work of Yoo and Donthu (2001). Regarding the articles in which previously developed place brand equity scales or items have been employed (and thus re-tested), items validated by Konecnik and Gartner (2007) and Boo et al (2009) were widely recurrent.

In general, there seem to be two conceptual issues with the items used in the articles presented in table 1: Either the authors used rather generic items (e.g. Boo et al, 2009), which implies that the items might poorly account for the specificity of places, or the authors used generic and location-specific items (e.g. Im et al, 2012; Samsi et al, 2015), which means that the items might only account for the specific type of location for which they have been tested.

Emic types of scales can provide insights from the perspective from within a certain social group (i.e. from the perspective of the subject), whereas etic types of scales provide insight from the outside of a certain group (i.e. from the perspective of the observer). Yuwo et al (2015:21) for example argue that it is “potentially valuable to take less of an emic approach and look into the possibility of a more parsimonious scale that might be useful in a wider variety of locations”. Using generic items such as “this destination is very famous” (see Boo et al, 2009) might in fact tell something about the degree to which the surveyed person is amazed by the destination, which serves for purported comparisons among brands. However, it does not tell anything about how or for which reasons the surveyed person is amazed by the destination. For
targeted place (or destination) branding campaigns, it is necessary to understand what a place is famous for. Moreover, comparisons of brand equity among place (or destination) brands need to be ontologically valid, as they should compare brands that are indeed comparable.

On the other hand, the articles in which location-specific items have been tested in addition to generic items had to acknowledge that the scale is only applicable in a certain context (see Im et al, 2012). Boo et al (2009) for example argue that the applicability of their 21 measurement items is limited to gambling destinations. However, location-specific scale items account more for the specificity of places than generic items.

### Analysis of theoretical development of external validity

Boo et al (2009: 227) for example argue that “constructs in the destination brand equity model should be developed to measure its operation and management across destinations”. However, in only 8 articles, the brand equity of more than one place (or destination) has been measured in order to compare it with other places (or destinations).

It could be argued that the measures used by Pike et al (2010) and Zanfardini et al (2011) for example, who successfully re-tested the items developed by Konecnik and Gartner (2007) and Boo et al (2009), might indicate the external validity of the scales developed by Konecnik and Gartner (2007) and Boo et al (2009). However, Yuwo et al (2015:15), who also used the scale developed by Konecnik and Gartner (2007), removed attributes “which were not appropriate for Bandung city” and added attributes “to reflect important aspects such as beautiful Dutch architecture, comfortable resorts and hotels, interesting events, and delicious cuisine” because the scale of Konecnik and Gartner (2007) seemed not to fit their specific research setting.

In almost all articles, the authors argue in the discussion or research recommendation part that their findings need to be replicated in other settings and with other populations in order to make the assessments more robust (e.g. Bose et al, 2016; Hong et al, 2012; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). In only 6 articles, the authors make a deliberate attempt to discuss or even problematize the issue of external scale validity. This means that most of the reviewed articles did not develop a critical reflection about external scale validity and the potential drawbacks of measuring place brand equity with scales. On the one hand, this could be due to the scope of the respective study and lacking funds. Pike et al (2010) for example focus on the role of long haul versus short haul markets, whereas Bose et al (2016) concentrate on investor place brand equity. However, since external validity is critical for generalizing findings, how could further research address this issue more adequately?

### Addressing the issue of external scale validity

There is consensus in the academic debate that places are inherently distinctive (Blichfeldt, 2005; Warnaby and Medway, 2013). Boo et al (2009:227) for example also acknowledge that “every destination has unique characteristics and different environments”. In order to address place-specific aspects, certain authors suggest using location-specific items (e.g. Im et al, 2012; Samsi et al, 2015). Sartori et al (2012:338) for example underline that place brand equity measurement “should be driven by case-specific considerations”. As such, items “should address the characteristics of destinations, including the physical, environmental, and socio-cultural features” (Boo et al, 2009:227). Kladou and Kehagis (2014:9) even argue that “non all-inclusive lists of cultural and destination assets might be a limitation to any study”.

In fact, the diversity of place-specific aspects calls into question whether the development of generic scales is ontologically valid. This implies that place brand equity scales might only be applied across types of places that are at least in some way similar to each other. Yuwo et al (2015:21) for example argue that their “scale should be tested in other contexts to commonalities that might lend themselves to more of an etic type of modelling”. In practical terms, this means that place brand equity could be assessed among places that show commonalities based on place associations of similar types of product and service offerings. Crimmmins (2000) argues that brand equity is ought to be measured in comparison with other brands proposing products and services from the same or a similar category. Lassar et al (1995) also argue that brand equity can be measured only in comparison with other brands in the same category. With regards to place brands, Boo et al (2009) for example selected intentionally two destinations within the same category (Las Vegas and Atlantic City), since both are entertainment and gambling cities offering similar products and services. Kladou and Kehagis (2014:8) also notice that they developed a model “focusing on a specific brand category (i.e. cultural destinations)”. Kim et al (2016:2) measure and compare the destination brand equity of
Switzerland and Austria, since both are “Alpine countries in the heart of Europe” where the “mainstream of their tourism products is more or less similar and mainly based on nature, landscape, and culture”. Zanfardini et al (2011) also measure the brand equity of two mountain destinations in Patagonia both being renowned as nature and snow destinations, while Florek (2012) measures the place brand equity of the two Polish cities Poznan and Wroclaw, since these two cities are “within the same destination category” (Florek, 2015:231).

**Discussion**

Churchill (1979:65) argues that “it is the attributes of objects that are measured and not the objects themselves”, and that “the definition does not specify the rules by which the numbers are assigned”. However, Churchill (1979:65) also notes that “the rigor with which the rules are specified and the skill with which they are applied determine whether the construct has been captured by the measure”. The assessment of costumer-based place brand equity with two or more categorically similar places might provide the basis for addressing external scale validity. However, Boo et al (2009) warn that their study potentially excluded possible differences of destination characteristics, even if the two examined destinations are in the same category. Besides, even if two places from the same category are compared, items that prove particularly valid for one destination might “inappropriately represent the other destination” (Boo et al, 2009:227).

Among others, this might be due to the fact that places represent locations that are composed by locations (Kavaratzis, 2004), so the scalar level on which place brand equity assessment needs to be addressed seems to be of key importance. Giovanardi (2015:597) for example argues that “city, regional, country and supranational branding actually converges in a complex mechanism of intertwined practices and discourses”, so it might be difficult to tie place brand equity measurement to a specific scalar entity. A reflection on place brand architecture seems to be important. For example, how can one be sure that city brand equity is not an outcome of wider, nation or country-specific branding activities that make it difficult to tie place brand equity scores to the success of city branding campaigns?

**Conclusion**

This paper tried to provide a new perspective on previous publications that advanced scales for measuring place (or destination) brand equity from the consumer perspective. Although no statistical tests were conducted in order to substantiate the idea that the scales could have limited external validity, it was stressed that most of the scales have not been tested at several places to demonstrate external validity. Besides, most of the authors did not develop a theoretical problematization of external scale validity. In order to address this issue in the future, this paper advances the argument that place brand equity measurement should include more than one place on 1) a comparable territorial scale (i.e. city vs city, region vs region, country vs country), but in 2) different spatial-cultural contexts (i.e. located at different places and/or different cultural 'spheres') offering at least to a certain degree: 3) comparable types of place product or service offerings, as the assessment might otherwise have limited internal (i.e. content, construct) and ontological validity. Further research should also focus on repeated and longitudinal applications of the scales used in the articles presented in table 1 in order to test whether these scales prove still valid when being tested at different places and over time.

In general, the validity of highly generic items that are used for measuring place brand equity can be called into question due to the specificity of places. The measurement of place brand equity might rely on context-specific items that match the distinct assets associated with places. Although places may have many meanings, products and services, research designs in which qualitative and quantitative research approaches are used sequentially so that “the first method is used to help inform the development of the second” (Greene et al, 1989:260) could provide answers to ontological questions. Further research could therefore focus on developing factors or dimensions in order to categorize places that are similar in terms of attributes. In this way, external scale validity could at least to a certain degree be addressed. However, categorizations of place associations imply again that place aspects are being generalized, so one may ask whether there is a cut-off criterion where one can no longer accept generalization?
References


