

**Is Japan able to become an attractive
country? Nation Branding in Tourism**

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**Dissertation submitted to Oxford Brookes
University for the partial fulfilment of the requirement
for the degree of
MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

September 2003

DECLARATION

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Osamu Fukuda

Word length: 20,049 words

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Great thanks to my wife, Ikuko Fukuda, and my daughters, Murasaki and Kanon.

ABSTRACT

Until recently, Japan has exported not only electrical products but also tourists to all over the world. People know about Japanese products that are fashionable, reliable or trustworthy. Therefore, Japan has an established brand image for consumers as product oriented country.

On the other hand, as an economic consequence, the reception of inbound international visitors has in some extent been over looked and tended to be at low-key level over the years. At last, Japanese government determined to take the initiative in tourism, which is called as the inbound tourism initiative of Japan.

This paper seeks to examine the assumption that nation branding – which will affect the consumer behaviour – is important to help foreigners understand Japan not only as a country of industry but also as a tourism country.

This paper investigates into generic brand theory, destination branding theory, and as a challenge, Beanie Babies (BB) model, a high involvement/relationship-prone brand model, for destination branding.

To test this model, BB model, this paper compares three characteristic destinations such as New Zealand, Spain, and Central Eastern Europe (CEE) or Croatia. Then, Japan's case is applied to the model.

Based on the result of these case studies, this paper puts forward the recommendation.

In parallel with the main discussion, methodology, especially generalisation, is stated.

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CHAPTER 1.

Introduction

‘All this, perhaps, add to the mythology of Japan, a country which is the subject of more gullible and misguided musings than any other place in the world. The best way to approach Japan is by discarding your preconceptions. Somewhere between the elegant formality of Japanese manners and the candid, sometimes boisterous exchanges that take place over a few drinks, between the sanitised shopping malls and the unexpected rural festival, everyone finds their own vision of Japan. Come with an open mind and be prepared to be surprised.’ (Rowthorn et al., 2000: 15)

‘Because of this unique synthesis of East and West into a culture that is distinctly Japanese, Japan is not easy for Westerners to comprehend. Discovering it is like peeling an onion – you uncover one layer only to discover more layers underneath. Thus, no matter how long you stay in Japan, you never stop learning something new about it – and to me that constant discovery is one of the most fascinating aspect of being here.’ (Reiber and Spencer, 2002: 4)

‘There are those, Japanese and foreigners alike, who retain an image of a Japan of Zen-like serenity. It is a wistful image, a nostalgic retreat. On its surface, Japan appears to be changing. Underneath, one wonders if it is capable of doing so, or if it wants to change. Even Japanese don’t know. But for the traveller, Japan as it is today is a supremely embracing and fabulous – and, yes, special – experience.’ (Rutherford, 2002: 16)

Japan has been introduced such above Western authors. Nonetheless, the number of visitors to Japan ranks 35th in the world, and 9th in Asia. (MLIT, 2003: 1) (See Figure 1-1)

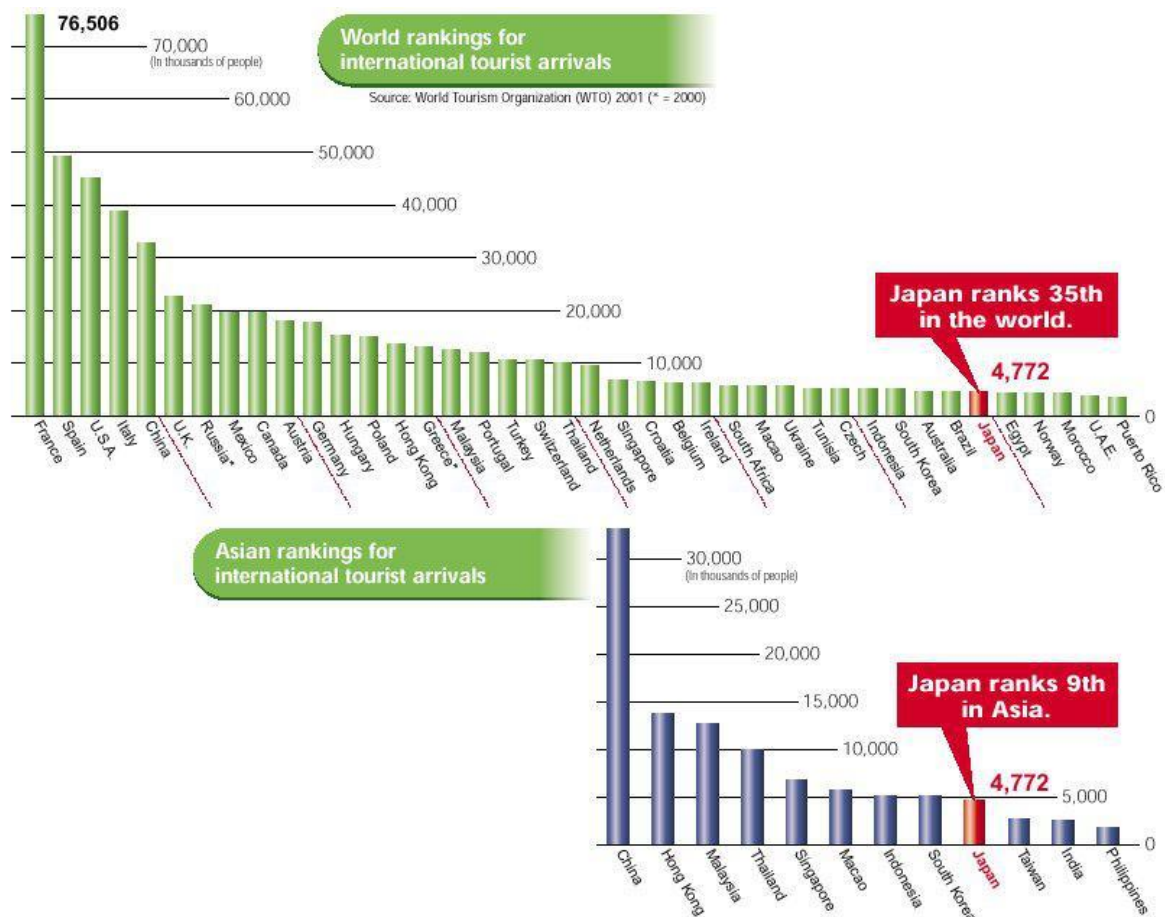


Figure 1-1 World and Asian ranking for international tourist arrivals (Source from: MLIT, 2003)

First of all, this paper states background of Japanese tourism situation. Second, objectives of this paper are stated. Third, methodology is mentioned. Fourth, generic branding theory based on Chernatony and MacDonald (2002) is evaluated; followed by destination branding model by Kotler et al. (2003), which is critically discussed. Fifth, then, as a challenging model, Beanie Babies model is evaluated as a destination branding model to form a destination branding mix. Sixth, case studies of New Zealand, Spain, and Croatia are carried out to find best practice. Seventh, Japanese current destination branding model is discussed based on the interview and facts. Finally, this paper reviews the destination branding mix model and makes recommendation for Japanese future destination branding.

CHAPTER 2.

Background

Until recently, Japan has exported not only electrical products but also tourists to all over the world. People know about Japanese products that are fashionable, reliable or trustworthy. For example, Sony and Panasonic are the famous brand names. On the other hand, it is known that MATSUI is not a Japanese brand name 'in order to borrow a little of the "public domain" equity of Japan' (Morgan et al., 2002: 51), but it camouflages its products as if they are made in Japan. Therefore, Japan has an established brand image for consumers as product oriented country.

Moreover, there is no exception for non-Japanese tourists in any other country. In Japan, tourism, traditionally, is thought of domestic and overseas or outbound travels. For example, such famous cities as London, New York and Paris have Japanese tourists over the year around. The number of outbound tourist has increased exponentially. On the other hand, that of inbound tourist has grown gradually. (See Figure 2-2) As a result, there is a big gap between the number of outbound and inbound tourists. Before 1964, opportunities travelling aboard for the Japanese were limited due to World War II. However, on 1st April 1964, overseas travels were deregulated in fact. Since then, the number of outbound tourists has increased. At the beginning of 1980s, the fact that GDP exceeded \$5000 per head led to expand the number of outbound tourists.

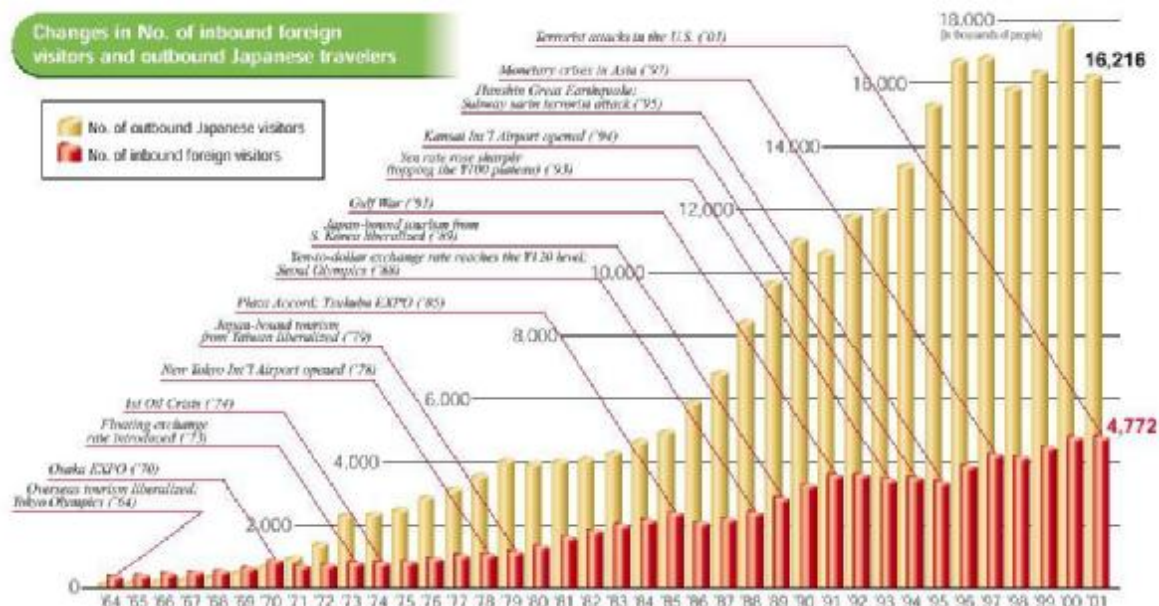


Figure 2-2 Changes in No. of inbound foreign visitors and outbound Japanese travellers (Source from: MLTI, 2003)

On the other hand, ‘with high value of the yen in December 1971, known as Smithsonian treaty, Japan lost its price competitiveness in the world, which resulted in turmoil in inbound tourists’. (JNTO, 2002b: 17)

For example, whenever I travelled a country, I could see Japanese tourist groups. Because there was a tour conductor with a flag and participants were the same travel style. Moreover, they wanted to be collective, which led to forming a group. It, therefore, was easy to distinguish who they were. On the contrary, I seldom see foreigners in Japan. Here, in the UK, multi-national culture is natural, but once I returned to Japan, I felt a strong monoculture. But why? There might be some problems such as a language, cost of living and cultures. As a consequence, it is likely to occur this imbalance.

As an economic consequence, the reception of inbound international visitors has in some extent been over looked and tended to be at low-key level over the years. Foreign visitors to Japan numbered 4.77 million in 2001, which was only about 30% as compared with the 16.22 million outbound Japanese travellers. ‘In terms of acquisition of foreign currencies, the reception of inbound overseas visitors should be regarded as an export industry. In this respect, the nation’s international balance of payments was in deficit by

approximately US\$29 billion'. (Source from: Bank of Japan, cited in MLTI, 2002: 1) (See Figure 2-3)

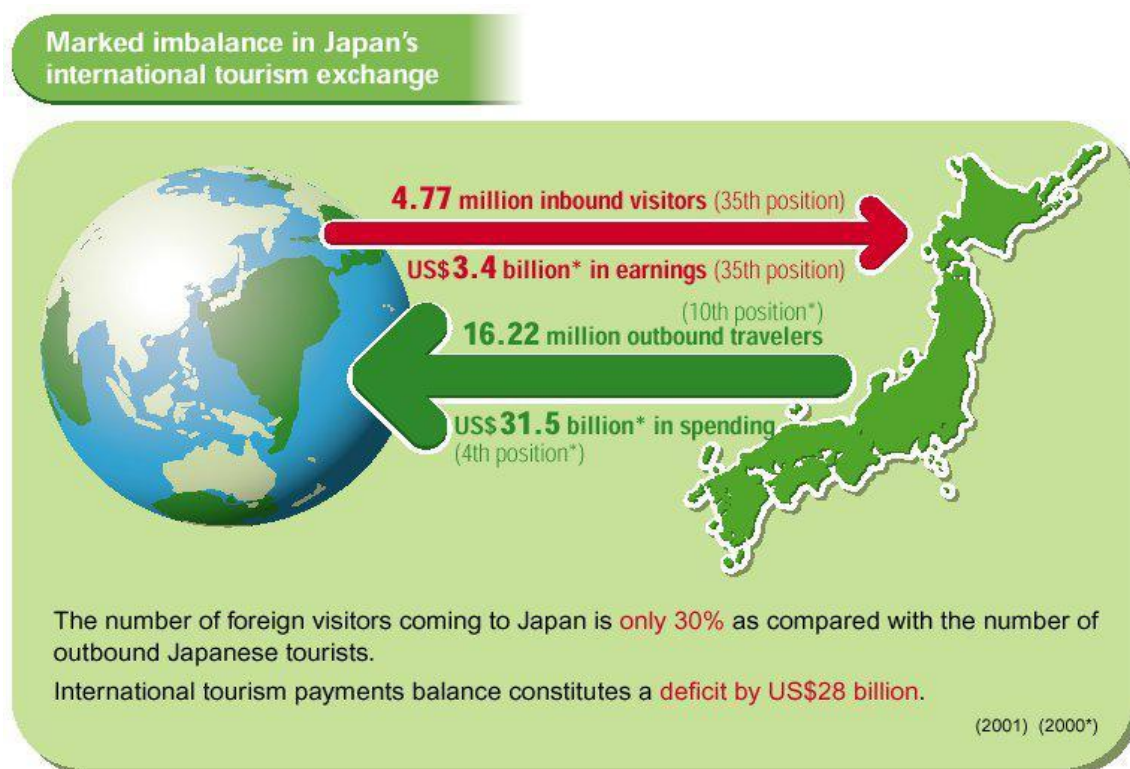


Figure 2-3 Market imbalance in Japan's international tourism exchange
(Source from: MLTI, 2003)

International tourism has seen as a steady increase the world over. Focusing on the East Asia/Pacific region including Japan, 'international tourist arrivals have shown an annual average growth of 6.0% during the period 1996 through 2000, accounting for approximately 100 million international travellers' (WTO, 2003). The World Tourism Organization (WTO) estimates that this region will enjoy the world's highest growth rate of 7.7% on average for the period 2000 through 2010. (See Figure 2-4)

Japanese government determined to take the initiative in tourism, which is called as the inbound tourism initiative of Japan. There are three rationale: 'development of international understanding, a desirable trigger in revitalizing Japan's economy, and momentum to provide people with deeper confidence and pride' (MLTI, 2003: 4).

Especially, the economic factor is vital. MLTI (2003) estimates that ‘the current (2001) 4.77 million foreign visitors alone translates into earnings worth US\$33.5 billion and create employment opportunities for about 230,000 people. These positive effects to Japan are generated by foreign visitors spending their own assets and leisure time. Therefore, the promotion of inbound foreign visitors is an issue of vital and pressing importance to help get the Japanese economy back on the track to propriety’.

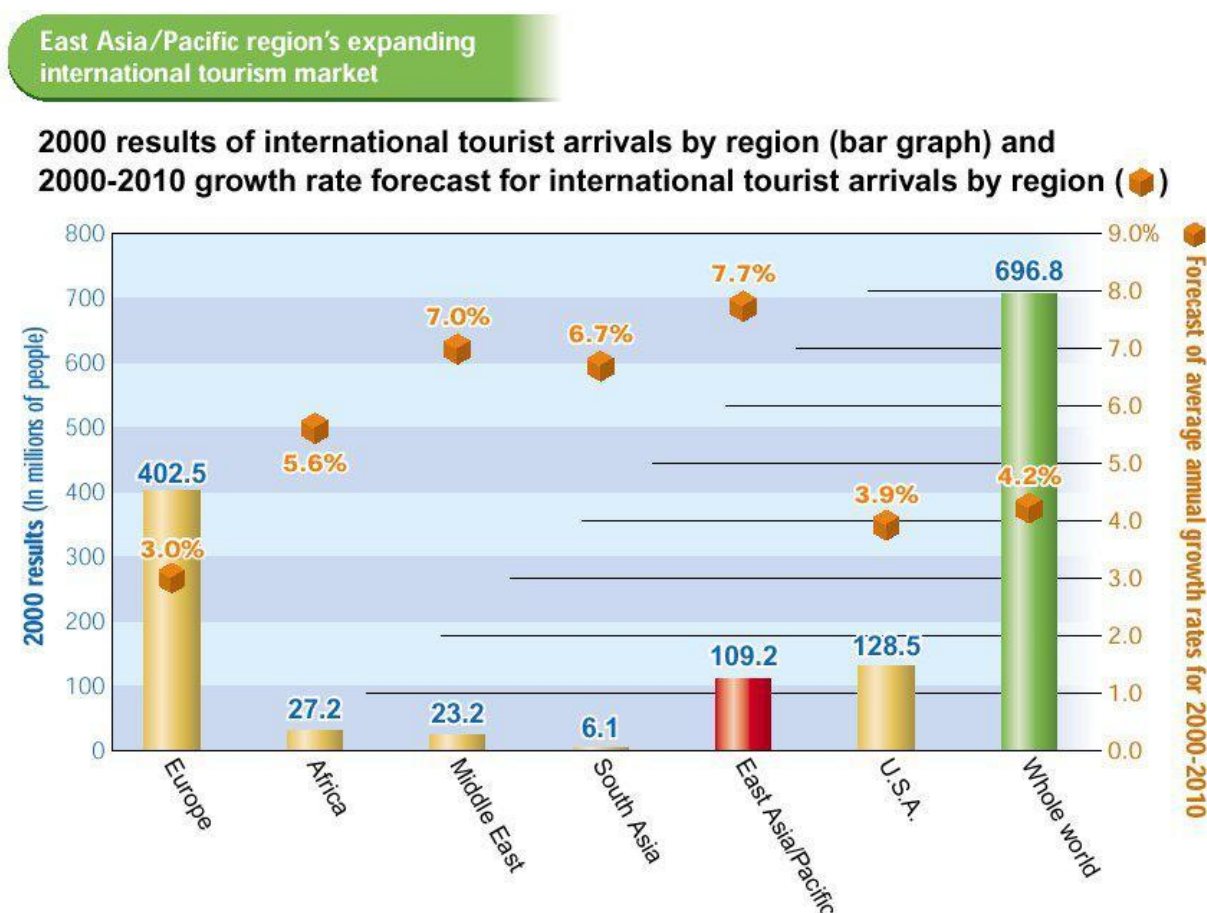


Figure 2-4 International tourism market estimation (Source from: WTO, 2003; cited in MLTI, 2003)

This paper seeks to examine the assumption that nation branding – which will affect the consumer behaviour – is important to help foreigners understand Japan not only as a country of industry but also as a tourism country.

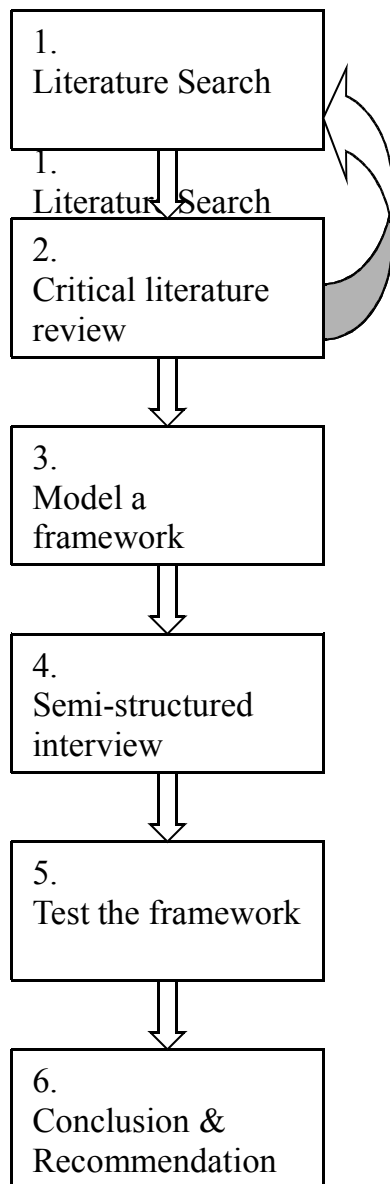
CHAPTER 3.

Objectives

There are some objectives below on this paper:

- ◆ This paper reviews the literature on generic branding model and destination model critically.
- ◆ This paper critically analyzes the Beanie Babies model: a high involvement/relationship-prone brand to adjust it into the destination model context.
- ◆ This paper compares three case studies about New Zealand, Spain, and CEE with a view to applying the Beanie Babies model to evaluate their destination branding.
- ◆ This paper investigates in development of Japanese destination branding.
- ◆ This paper makes recommendation for future development as a destination model.
- ◆ Finally, back to the model, this paper reviews the effectiveness of destination mode.

CHAPTER 4. Methodology



My research process takes 6 steps as shown in Figure 4-1.

4.1. Research prerequisites

4.1.1. Research philosophy

My research philosophy bases on the principle of ‘positivism’. (Saunders et al., 2000: 85)

This paper is going to analyse, and try to interpret the fact that several literatures about destination branding have handled with; for example, each country or region such as New Zealand, Spain, and Central Eastern Europe (CEE) or Croatia. Therefore, it is crucial for this paper to find a framework to consolidate.

Figure 4-5 Research Flow

By adapting the attitude towards such literature coolly, this paper could go

forward the research with an assumption to that ‘the researcher is independent of and neither nor is affected by the subject of the research.’ (Adapted Remenyi et al., 1998) As a result, the independence of the researcher as I am is the primary condition to start the research.

This paper challenges ‘the taken-for-granted assumptions that we all have the way the world works’ (Saunders et al., 2000: 86) through modelling from case studies such as Beanie Babies.

My research is ‘cross-sectional’ rather than ‘longitudinal’ studies (Saunders et al., 2000: 96), because this study treats a particular phenomenon at a particular

time. In addition to them, this research project undertaken for the MBA course is necessarily time constrained. Therefore, I employ ‘cross-sectional’ study.

4.1.2. Research approaches

Deduction: testing theory

By adapting five sequential stages (Robson, 1993: 19; cited in Saunders et al., 2000: 87) for deductive research, they are as follows:

- ◆ Deducing a hypothesis from the theory
- ◆ Expressing the hypothesis in operational terms that propose a relationship between two specific variables
- ◆ Testing this operational hypothesis
- ◆ Examining the specific outcome of the inquiry
- ◆ If necessary, modifying the theory in the light of the findings

4.2. Literature search

Literature search was conducted by database, books, library and the Internet.

Database

The following database was used in the light of tourism:

Articles in Hospitality & Tourism - hospitality, tourism

Business Source Premier - management, economics, finance, accounting and business. Over 2000 full text journals plus abstracts only from over 540 journals

CAB Abstracts - agriculture, environment, tourism, nutrition, public health, Third World development

Economist - politics, economics, current affairs

Emerald Library - MCB Journals ([guide to searching](#))

Euromonitor - market research reports on UK, European and world markets, and reports on world retail sectors.

Financial Times

Mintel - market research, retail intelligence, leisure intelligence (including hospitality, tourism)

Proquest newspapers - collection of UK newspapers. Daily Mail, Daily Telegraph, Evening Standard, FT, Guardian, Independent, Times plus Sunday versions.

Books

Books are chosen from the library catalogues inside the Web pages

(<http://www.brookes.ac.uk/services/library/>). If it is not in the library, then I browse the Internet book shops and then ordered:

Amazon: <http://www.amazon.co.uk>, <http://www.amazon.co.jp>

Blackwell: <http://www.blackwell.co.uk>

Japan National Tourist Organisation: <http://www.jnto.go.jp>

Library

Library is used for the printed material especially journals and magazines.

Just in case for lack of resources, I joined a member of Bodleian Library through submitting application form with supervisor's sign.

The Internet

The Internet is used to search information such as World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and each country's tourism organisation, mainly through search engines and gateways:

Google: <http://www.google.co.uk>, <http://www.google.co.jp>

MSN search: <http://www.msn.co.jp>

Biz/Ed: <http://www.bized.ac.uk>

Yahoo: <http://www.yahoo.co.uk>, <http://www.yahoo.co.jp>

Yellow Pages UK: <http://www.yell.co.uk>

Assessment

As the Internet is so to called 'cyberspace' (Clausen, 1996: 4), the amount of information is huge; however, the problem is remaining such as quality and freshness. Therefore, I selected the resources carefully by the site and the options, when finding materials. More concretely, I have checked the peer review and full text on the database screen. As for the Internet, I have checked the quality through references. If the source includes the reference, I judged it to some extent worth reading. The quality inside is another problem; in other words, I have checked whether it is worth reading or not. When I find the web sites useful, I bookmarked them. However, as Saunders et al. (2002: 68) state that material can literally disappear overnight, I have saved the articles by using the software: Internet Suguremono, which stores articles, addresses and dates. The point of this software is that it enables me to read them whenever I wish through Microsoft Internet Explore and if the site exists yet, it can connect again. This is extremely useful for later bibliography work, because I have to include references for the paper. The reference format follows Harvard System by Oxford Brookes University Business School (2002).

4.3. Critical literature review

Literature review is essential to know whether the literature gives the relevant information to ‘my research questions and objectives’ (Saunders et al., 2000: 73). When I felt lack of the discussion, I returned and searched literature again. Therefore, this worked as a feedback. However, in this process, the biggest problem is that the database shows only the titles and some information; what is worse, I have to go to library to find the printed material based on the result from the database. This is time consuming process. I wish it could be better; at least, the students could withdraw the literature electronically as other business materials can do.

4.4. Model a framework

Based on Beanie Babies case study, modelling a destination branding framework is carried out because of the fact that ‘there is nothing special about the destination branding theory’ (Morgan et al., 2002). In addition, Pike (2002) states in the historic context that, ‘relatively few papers attempted to measure the destination image for any specific travel context’; moreover, ‘it was apparent from the review, however, that there is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models’. ‘While the destination image construct has proven difficult to measure, consumers’ overall perceptions of a destination may be either favourable or unfavourable’ (Milman and Pizam, 1995; cited in Pike, 2002). Therefore, I would like to adopt a challenging model from the best practice ‘Beanie Babies’ (Morris and Martin, 2000) by critical review.

The essence here is that Beanie Babies are tangible products; whereas, destination branding is intangible. However, branding gurus such as Kotler and Morgan infer that destination branding can handle as tangibles or companies do. Therefore, based on this inference the paper tried to model a framework: destination branding mix.

Some case studies such as New Zealand, Spain and Croatia are tested. Saunders et al. (2000: 94) state that ‘case study can be a worthwhile way of exploring existing theory. However, these cases provide a source of new hypotheses.’ Therefore, it is case studies that help to forge a hypothesis about destination branding.

If the product, the destination, has ten characteristics such as nostalgic value, personification, facilitation, engagement, aesthetic appeal, quality/excellence, association, social visibility and image congruence and price risk, then the consumer is highly involved and strengthened relationship. That could be the theme of destination branding.

4.5. Semi-structured and in-depth interview

Some semi-structured and in-depth interviews were conducted so as to test the model that had been modelled beforehand. This is due to the nature of the destination branding. This has not been explored yet deeply and established the proper framework; therefore, this research could not adopt the survey. Instead, this paper chose snowball method to collect information.

The linkage between the typology of the interview and the main research categories is summarised as follows:

	Exploratory	Descriptive	Explanatory
Structured		√ √	√
Semi-structured	√		√ √
In-depth	√ √		

Table 4-1 Uses different types of interview in each of the main research categories (Source from: Saunders et al., 2000: 245)

- ◆ In an exploratory study in-depth interviews can be very helpful to ‘find out what is happening and seeking new insights’ (Robson, 1993: 42). Semi-structured interviews may also be used in relation to an exploratory study.
- ◆ In descriptive studies structured interviews can be used as a means to identify general patterns.
- ◆ In an explanatory study, semi-structured interviews may be used in order to understand the relationships between variables. They may also be used in relation to an explanatory study.

In the context of destination branding, Japan has just started promoting itself as a destination. Therefore, the concept of destination branding may not be established yet. That is to say, the interview needed to be flexible to find out what is going on and to quest for new insight. In other respondents’ cases, the interview could be exploratory rather than descriptive and explanatory, since ‘semi-structured or in-depth interviews may also be used as a means to validate findings from the use of questionnaires.’ (Wass and Wells, 1994) On the other hand, this study starts from broad ideas to far narrower by interviewing the professionals and concerning people.

4.5.1. Data quality issue

A number of data quality issues can be identified in relation to the use of semi-structured and in-depth interviews: (Saunders et al., 2000: 249)

- ◆ Reliability
- ◆ Forms of bias
- ◆ Validity and generalisability

4.5.2. To overcome data quality issues

Reliability

Robson (1993) insists that ‘the lack of standardisation in interviews may lead to concerns about reliability’. First of all, I phoned an interviewee about an interview for my dissertation. Then, to confirm the date and time, I used an email. After receiving the reply, I attached the questionnaire about destination branding based on the created framework. All the interviews were conducted as above the procedure in order to increase reliability. As a consequence, ‘researchers using a qualitative, non-standardises approach need to make this clear – perhaps to transform an aspect perceived to be a weakness by some into a strength based on realistic assumptions about the ability to replicate research findings.’ (Marshall and Rossman, 1999)

Interviewer and interviewee bias

To reduce interviewees’ bias, I had read the material published by the interviewees’ organisation in order to show my knowledge and interview smoothly. Healey and Rawlinson (1994: 136) backups this point, ‘A well informed interviewer has a basis for assessing the accuracy of some of the information offered.’ Moreover, Saunders et al. (2000) state

‘Researchers need to be knowledgeable about the organisation or situational context. The ability to draw on the type of knowledge such as financial data in the interview should help to demonstrate researchers’ credibility and thereby encourage the interviewee to offer a more detailed account of the topic under discussion. In addition, research question and objectives should also help researchers to establish credibility.’

Besides, the day of the interview, I put the semi-formal clothes with a tie, with a view to adjusting the situation. Because Robson (1993) advises researchers to adopt a similar style of dress to those to be interviewed. In general, 'researchers will need to wear clothing that will be generally acceptable for the setting within which the interview is to occur' (Saunders et al., 2000: 254).

While the interviews, I asked a couple of questions to indicate my active listening and used the open questions without theoretical concepts or jargon, "What is going on in allocating the budget?", "Why does the government choose Asian countries not the UK?". Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) point out that the use of open questions should help to avoid bias.

Generalisability

Generalisability of finding could be an eternal issue. This is because there are twofold on qualitative and anti-qualitative view. The former is supported by the words,

'The main reason for the potential superiority of qualitative approaches for obtaining information is that the flexible and responsive interaction which is possible between interviewer and respondent(s) allows meanings to be probed, topics to be covered from a variety of angles and questions made clear to respondents.' (Sykes, 1991: 8; cited in Saunders et al., 2000: 250)

It is talking about a case study approach.

As for the latter case, it is related to the significance of type of research to theoretical propositions (Bryman, 1988; Yin, 1994) Besides, Marshall and Rossman (1999) insist that the researchers have to demonstrate a broader significance than the case or cases.

However, Saunders et al. (2002: 259) conclude that it will be up to researchers to establish this relationship to existing theory. In my position, I would like to indicate some extent about destination branding through semi-structured and in-depth interview and case studies, which means that this paper can not quest

for the generalisability of destination branding due to some constraints such as time and resource.

In conclusion, to avoid bias during semi-structured and in-depth interview, I take care of preparation and readiness, appropriateness of the researcher's appearance, demonstration of attentive listening skills. However, researchers must bear in mind that 'there is possibility of misinterpretation of responses because of cultural differences between the interview and the interviewer' (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). In addition to it, researchers need to be aware of generalisability of findings whether they could demonstrate the significance.

4.5.3. Logistical and resource issues

The interview was conducted in London and Tokyo. London is about one and half hour away from Oxford. Therefore, there was no worry about logistical and resource issues. However, the problem is Tokyo. Since Tokyo is by far from the UK, I arranged the temporarily return to Japan in the summer. I therefore could manage the interview.

Saunders et al. (2000: 262) state that 'interviewing is a time-consuming process. Sometimes it takes two hours or more. However, thinking about managers' sides, they or other potential participants receive frequent request to participate in research projects, they will clearly need to consider how much of their time they may be willing to devote to such activities. Therefore, this issue may result in either the completion of a questionnaire or participation in an interview'.

Moreover, 'conducting interviews may become a costly process where it is necessary to travel to the location of participants. Moreover, it almost certainly likely to be more expensive than using self-administered or telephone questionnaires to collect data' (Saunders et al., 2000: 263).

However, ‘choice of method should be determined by the nature of the research question and objectives and not by cost consideration’ (Saunders et al., 2002: 263). This highlights the need to examine the feasibility of the proposed question and research strategy in relation to resources constraints, including time available and expense, before proceeding to the collection of data. Therefore, I considered the logistics of scheduling interviews beforehand.

4.5.4. Questionnaire

‘Questionnaire as a general term is defined as all techniques of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order.’ (deVaus, 1996)

As this research adopted the semi-structured and in-depth interview, the questionnaire consists of two open questions. (See Appendix A and B for English and Japanese version respectively)

4.5.5. Snowball

This research chose snowballing in the non-probability sampling, which provides a range of alternative techniques based on researchers’ subjective judgement. ‘To answer research question(s) and to meet objectives, researchers may need to undertake an in-depth study that focused on a small, perhaps one, sample selected purposively’ (Saunders et al., 2000). Therefore, this would provide me with an information-rich case study in which I explore my research question. Alternatively, limited resources or the inability to specify a sampling frame may dictate the use of one or a number of non-probability sampling techniques.

There are five techniques for non-probability sampling as below:

Sample type	Likelihood of sample being representative	Types of research in which useful	Relative costs	Control over sample contents
Quota	Reasonable to high although dependent on selection of quota variables	Where costs constrained/data needed very quickly so an alternative to probability sampling needed	Moderately high to reasonable	Relatively high
Purposive	Low although dependent on researcher's choices: extreme case heterogeneous homogeneous critical case typical case	Where working with very small samples focus: unusual or special focus: key themes focus: in-depth focus: importance of case focus: illustrative	Reasonable	Reasonable
Snowball	Low but cases will have characteristics desired	Where difficulties in identifying cases	Reasonable	Reasonable
Self-selection	Low but cases self – selected	Where exploratory research needed	Low	Low
Convenience	Very low	Where very little variation in population	Low	Low

Table 4-2 Impact of various factors on choice of non-probability sample techniques (Developed from: Kervin, 1992; Patton, 1990, cited in Saunders et al., 2000: 171)

Snowball sampling

Saunders et al. (2000: 175) explain that snowball sampling is commonly used when it is difficult to identify members of the desired population. Researchers therefore need:

1. To make contact with one or two cases in the population
2. To ask these cases to identify further cases
3. To ask these new cases to identify further new cases (and so on).

I could find the initial contact by using my Japanese alumni network and direct access from the web site by sending an email. They are three interviewees as a core of snowball: a retired Englishman who had worked for a Japanese advertising agency, DENTSU, an officer who works for Japan Tourist Bureau (JTB) in London, and an officer who works for Japan National

Tourist Organisation (JNTO) in London. Then, I ask the interviewee to introduce me another person for interview. However, it is very difficult to find the next person, one of three could introduce me. It is because of the theme, destination branding and resources such as timing in the year.

In conclusion of sampling, I chose snowball sampling in non-probability sampling section. This is because it depends on the dissertation theme, destination branding. It was difficult to identify members of the desired population; therefore, it is difficult to find next interviewees.

4.6. Test the framework

On the basis of this framework, I would like to test three destinations such as New Zealand, Spain and Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) or Croatia. New Zealand, ‘a little bigger than the UK and slightly smaller than Japan’ (Morgan et al., 2001), has also succeeded in destination branding in spite of geographical disadvantage same as Japan. On the other hand, Spain is recognised as a major destination from not only the UK but also European countries, inasmuch as it has succeeded in destination branding. Whereas, Croatia in CEE is chosen, too, because it is struggling for the independence from post communism countries; namely, Croatia is associated with one of post communism countries, even it is not. It is similar to that Japan is one of Asian countries; however, it is far stronger than any other countries in economic respect. That seems to be one developed country in the developing countries.

After that, the primary purpose, the destination branding about Japan, will be investigated based on the three country cases and the interviews.

As Robson (1993: 40; cited in Saunders et al., 2000) explains that case studies are defined as the ‘development of detailed, intensive knowledge about a single “case”, or a small number of related “cases”’. On the other sides, case study must be handled with care because of the ‘unscientific’ fell it has.

(Saunders et al., 2000: 94) Case study can be a worthwhile way of exploring existing theory. In addition, a simple well-constructed case study can enable this paper to test a challenging model and also provide a source of new hypotheses. Therefore, it is case study that helps me to forge a hypothesis about destination branding.

4.7. Conclusion & Recommendation

Conclusion is stated to reflect the discussion in this paper. Moreover, some limitations are also stated. Recommendation is put forward based on recognised limitations and generalisability.

CHAPTER 5.

Theories

5.1. Branding Generic model

5.1.1. Generic strategies for brand

The definition of a brand is defined as (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 280) 'A successful brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant, unique added values which match their needs most closely. Furthermore, its success results from being able to sustain these added values in the face of competition.' Moreover, Kapferer (2003) states 'brands are a direct consequence of the strategy of market segmentation and product differentiation'. And he adds 'The brand should have its own specific point of view on the product category' 'Under the circumstance that different brands are identical, a brand is nothing but a 'bluff, a gimmick used to try to stand out in a market folded with barely differentiated products'. In addition, Brassington and Pettitt (2000: 274) insist that 'branding is a means of linking items within a product line or emphasising the individuality o product items. It can also help in the development of a new product by facilitating the extension of a product line or mix, through building on the consumer's perceptions of the values and character represented by the brand name'. As well as above, Kotler et al. (2002: 469) define 'a brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design or a combination of these, which is used to identify the goods or services of one seller or group and to differentiate them from those of competitors'.

The key to success lies in finding a competitive advantage that others find difficult to copy. Unless the brand has a sustainable competitive advantage, it will rarely succeed in the long run. As Kotler et al. (2002: 469) mention 'a sufficient number of customers demand these brands and refuse substitutes, even if the substitutes are offered at somewhat lower prices'; Furthermore, 'companies that develop brands with a strong consumer franchise are insulated

from competitors' promotional strategies'. Thus, it makes sense for a supplier to invest heavily to create strong or even global recognition and preference for its brand name.

The competitive advantage is defined (Grant, 2003: 227) as 'when two or more firms compete within the same market, one firm possesses a competitive advantage over its rivals when it earns (or has the potential to earn) a persistently higher rate of profit'.

That is to say, competitive advantage is the ability of the firm to outperform rivals on the primary performance goal – profitability. However, competitive advantage may not be revealed in higher profitability: a firm may trade current profit for investment in market share or technology, or a firm may forgo profits in the interests of customer satisfaction, philanthropy, employee benefits, or executive perks.

On the other hand, Federal Express proudly boasts its positioning in their advertising as, "when it absolutely, positively has to be there overnight" in the market for overnight delivery of letters and parcels there are many competent brands to choose from. This promotion thus enables Federal Express to facilitate differentiate from others.

5.1.2. Cost-driven or value-added brands?

Brands succeed because they are positioned to capitalise on their unique characteristics, which others find difficult to emulate – their competitive advantages. This positioning is a coherent, total positioning, since it is backed by every functional department in the firm. As Arnault (2000) insists threefold; first, every function should interrelate in order to be successful. Kapferer (2003: 33) shows that investments in R&D can help the company acquire know-how, a knack which cannot be imitated and which in accounting terms is also an intangible assets. Second, those in research and marketing studies in order to detect, to sense and to anticipate the changes of consumers' tastes and lifestyles in order to be able to define any important innovations which will match these evolutions. Third, those in listing allowances, in the sales force and merchandising, in trade marketing and, naturally, in communicating to consumers to promote the uniqueness of the brand and to endow it with prominence (awareness), perceived difference and esteem. That is to say, at least these departments in the firm work for the positioning.

A brand's competitive advantage gives it a basis for out-performing competitors because of the value that the firm is able to create for consumers. 'Consumers perceive value in brands when it costs less to buy them than competing brands offering similar benefits, i.e. "cost driven brands" And/ or when they have unique benefits that offset their premium prices, i.e. "value-added brands"' (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 281).

Besides, from the marketer's point of view, they have a choice about the scope of the market they wish their brand to appeal to. Marketers are able to refine their brand strategies further by considering whether a cost-driven or value-added competitive advantage should support their brand for either a narrow or a broad target market. As a result, the four possible generic strategies are shown Figure 5-1.

Target Scope	Advantage	
	Low Cost	Value-added
Broad (Industry Wide)	Broad cost	Broad differentiation
Narrow (Market Segment)	Focus cost	Focus differentiation

Table 5-3 Generic Strategies for brands (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 298; Adapted from: Porter, 1998)

Focus cost

Brands succeed in this quadrant because companies focus solely on a clearly-defined group of purchasers, often less than the much broader needs of other groups. Any temptations to add new features that may appeal to a closely-related group are resisted, since the marginal volume gains incur significant costs. ‘Such costs as ones investigating in R&D, ones of a national, indeed international, sales forces, advertising costs, ones of legal registration, ones of capital invest should be carefully considered’ (Kapferer, 2003).

Broad cost branding

It is Fujitsu, a Japanese electric manufacturer, which adapt this broad cost branding strategy. Its good quality computers appeal to a broad range of industries and, as a global competitor, it is able to gain significant ‘economies of scale’ (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 298). Therefore, it can market a wide range of computers that are seen as providing a more than capable facility for most users.

Broad differentiation

IBM has developed a range of computers that appeal to virtually all industries. Not only does it have a significant R&D investment, giving it a basis for functional excellence, but it has also developed a strong image as a total solution provider. Broad differentiators succeed 'by creating value for buyers and communicating this' (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 298). A heavy cost is incurred achieving a value-added positioning and, while attempts are made to hold down costs through more effective process. The higher process is used positively to reinforce the quality positioning. Gerstner (2002) explains that the budget for marketing and advertising doubled than ever. Relating to the advertising creation, the budget and the purchase of media were reorganised.

Focus differentiation

Cray research computer is an example of a firm following a focus differentiation strategy with their super computers. Offering the most powerful computers in the industry, backed by a very large R&D investment, the philosophy at Cray Research is to focus only on customers for supercomputers. Besides, even with the advent of mini-supercomputers, Cray refused to be drawn into this related market, arguing that it would dilute its total effort and jeopardize its position. 'For a carefully targeted, small number of customers, they created a unique brand with many benefits, for which a significant price premium has been charged' (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 299). However, in the fashion context, this focus differentiation can be interpreted as exclusivity. And recently, The Economist (2003) cited the article from *Le Monde*, Bernard Arnault, "Some brands reached their peak of notoriety at the end of the 1990s because they symbolised the show-off attitudes of the period. They have slid off the map of prestigious goods to become part of a sort of mass market for luxury items." That is to say, products or goods in this quadrant price premium. However, this provides the customer with prestige.

In conclusion, as a brand strategy, marketers have to select either cost-driven or value-add brand strategy.

5.1.3. Sustaining a brand's competitive advantage

Having identified the sources of the brand's competitive advantages, and positioned it with the most appropriate generic strategy, the marketer is then faced with the problem of 'sustaining the brand's uniqueness' (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 299).

Brand's uniqueness is likely to be undermined by several reasons: insides and outsides. The former is communication managers, managing innovations and personnel turnover. The latter is the brand policy between the advertising agency and the company.

On one hand, communications managers should have the power to prevent actions that go against the brand's interest. Thus, Philips never succeeded in fully taking advantages of its brand baseline. The manager cannot stop inconsistent advertising. The same situation as Gerstner (2002) explains that 'the dealing advertising agencies counts over seventy in 1993 and there is no adjustment from the headquarters. Therefore, the branding is in chaos.' Consequently, it is the evil of empowerment in old days.

On the other hand, when looking to protect their brand's competitive advantage, some managers attempt to stay ahead of competitors by concentrating, as Porter (1998) has shown, 'on operational effectiveness – performing the same activities better than rivals. A far more effective route to sustain a brand's competitive advantage is by concentrating on performing different activities from rivals, or performing similar activities in different ways'.

'Being clear about what the brand does and, equally importantly, does not stand for, managers can sustain their brand's competitive advantage through the way its activities fit and reinforce each other. These two factors are important contributors to sustaining competitive advantage. The fit between

different resources and processes needs be assessed in terms of both “consistency between each activity” and “reinforcement between activities” (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 300).

In conclusion, by looking at the whole system of activities, a more integrated investigation of fit can be addressed enabling a greater likelihood of sustaining competitive advantage. Moreover, the brand competitive advantage is to be remembered to be jeopardised by internal and external factors. Therefore, the company have to pay special attention to prevent from losing competitive advantages.

5.1.4. Characterising winning brands

The core of a successful brand is that it offers benefits to consumers in a way that other brands are unable to meet.

Profitable brands are leaders

Leading brands have lower-costs than followers. As Kapferer (2003) states ‘the cost of the factors is the most important which leads to a long-lasting competitive advantage.’ Besides, ‘economies of scale are one way that costs are reduced. The learning curve presents a further opportunity for leading brands to curtail costs’ (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 310). In addition, leading brands instill more confidence in risk-averse consumers. They also attract high quality employees, who are proud to be associated with a winning brand and willing to stretch their own involvement with the brand so that it maintains its dominant position. As FEL (2003) explains that if the brand has positive image, it can be the powerful arms. These advantages are established as a ‘first-mover advantage’ (Grant, 2003: 240). Kotler et al. (2002: 474) also state that branding also increases innovation by giving producers an incentive to look for new features that can be protected against imitating competitors. Thus, branding results in more product variety and choice for consumers. As for global brand leadership, Aaker and Joachimsthaler (1999) state that using organisational structures, processes, and cultures to allocate brand-building resources globally, to create global synergies, and to develop a global brand strategy that coordinates and leverages country brand strategies is global brand leadership; in addition, easier said than done. Consequently, profitability owing to the brand is achieved by allocating internal activities.

Profitable brands are committed to high quality

Having a brand that consumers perceive to be of superior quality than other brands makes it easier for the marketer to charge a price premium. Part of the extra revenue should be used for R&D investment to sustain the quality positioning for future earnings. Also ‘by coming everyone in the organisation

to doing their job in the best possible way there is a greater conformance to standards, which results in less rejection, less brand recalls, less re-working and, ultimately, greater profitability' (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 308). They explain the point that the second point is that quality is assessed by consumers on a relative basis. Kotler et al. (2002:474) support that those who favour branding suggest that it leads to higher and more consistent product quality. On the other hand, Kapferer (2003: 161) insists 'mastering technology and quality is a key success factor' in a business circle. This is because turning down any offer to yield helps companies to keep for themselves their main 'added-value leverage' (Kapferer, 2003: 162). This is what enables them to constantly innovate and to remain the reference of the market in terms of quality. That is to say, it creates the barrier. Consequently, higher quality results in higher brand shares and all the benefits that this brings.

In conclusion, having achieved a reputation amongst consumers for a quality brand, marketers need to work continuously to improve this, because, as markets become more mature, competitors try harder to emulate the leader.

Profitable brands capitalise on their environment

By actively seeking markets that have the right characteristics, the marketer can more successfully utilise resources to nurture a profitable brand.

Chernatony and McDonald (2002: 310) state that some of the factors that have an impact on brand profitability are market evolution, markets with a high level of exports, and markets with frequent new product launches are subject to lower return on investment. However, in the context of protecting the profitability, Kapferer (2003: 163) mentions that based on legality, the brand must defend its exclusive image against counterfeit products, models or signs. In addition, he continues, 'it should not hesitate to defend the exclusive character of its distinctive signs against imitations and distributors' copycat brands.' This is because the latter, under the pretence that these are signs of the category, actually try to make their brands benefit from the value of signs developed by the leading brand. Consequently, legally protected environment help the company keep profitable.

Winning brands are memorable

‘Brands win the minds of consumers because they are distinctive and stand out as having relevant added values. In order to penetrate in the mind, communicating a brand’s added values is an essential component contributing to long-term success’ (Chernatony and McDonald, 2002: 311). One of the ways for communication, word-of-mouth endorsement is an important ingredient in the success. Kapferer (2003: 162) agrees that putting a name on a product in itself yields a uniqueness of offer and an added-value that competitors will lack. As for naming, Kotler et al. (2002: 473) stress that the company must first decide whether it should put a brand name on its product depended on its nature. Generic products, for example, are unbranded, plainly packaged, and less expensive. Kotler et al. (2002: 473) point out benefits of the brand name:

- ◆ Brand names tell the buyer something about product quality.
- ◆ Brand names increase the shopper’s efficiency.
- ◆ Brand names help call consumers’ attention to new products that might benefit them.
- ◆ Brand names not only give supplier several advantages but also add values to consumers and society.

As a consequence, winning brands have a supporting communication strategy that results from a deep understanding of the myriad of clues that consumers use to interpret them. For those brands differentiating themselves primarily through their unique image, advertising is invaluable. It reinforces the essential images amongst consumers and their peer group alike. By establishing the brand on a unique and highly valued pedestal, which helps shoppers because it provides much more information about products and where to find them, the marketer is yet again able to keep profitability.

5.1.5. Conclusion

Brand marketers can choose either cost-driven or value-added strategy. Either choice has possibility to be undermined by internal and external factors. Once marketers choose the strategy, they have to map out concrete plans to bring up brands to winning ones.

5.2. Destination branding model

‘Today, branding has become a powerful force in the hospitality industry’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 312). In addition to the initial advantages of branding, the characteristics of travel and tourism suggest that ‘other specific benefits may be gained from successful branding’ (Middleton and Clarke, 2002: 133). A brand is the part of a brand that can be vocalised. Examples are Disneyland, Hilton, Club Med, and Sizzler. To support this argument, Morgan et al. (2002: 11) insist that branding is perhaps the most powerful marketing weapon available to contemporary destination marketers confronted by increasing product parity, substitutability and competition. Furthermore, ‘branding associations (the attitude, the information, the reason to buy implanted in the mind of consumers) help differentiate travel destinations’ (Aaker, 1991). In addition, ‘destination branding, with its core objective of producing a consistent, focused communication strategy’ (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998: 147). Therefore, destination branding becomes important driver.

We can see that some brands are very valuable. The following are some brand values of companies in the hospitality business: Disney, \$32.6 billion; McDonald’s \$25.3 billion; Starbucks, \$41.8 billion; Burger King, 2.4 billion; and Hilton, \$1.2 billion. (Source from: Kotler et al., 2003: 313) Thus, by properly managing the brand a company can create a lot of equity.

As Richard Branson of Virgin Airlines insists, “It is my conviction that what we call shareholder value is best defined by how strongly employees and customers feel about your brand. Nothing seems more obvious to me that a product or service only becomes a brand when it is imbued with project and customers embrace.” (Cited from: Kotler et al., 2003: 313) Besides, ‘given the nature of this brand-consumer relationship, there is increased focus among marketers on differentiation through loyalty and the emotional appeal of brands, rather than through discernible, tangible benefit’ (Westwood et al., 1999). Lury (1998: 4) says ‘it is our perceptions – our belief and our feelings about a brand that are most important’. However, more emotion is not enough,

the key is to develop a strong brand that holds some unique associations for the consumer – ‘while emotion has always been an important component of branding, emotion in the absence of a point of difference that can be articulated and firmly seated in the memory is arguably a recipe for consumer confusion’ (Hallberg, 1995).

Destination branding in history

According to great contribution from Pike (2002), ‘relatively few papers attempted to measure the destination image for any specific travel context. In fact, travel context was explicit in only 23 of the 142 papers. Over a half of the papers (75) measured the perceptions of only one destination, without a frame of reference to any competing destinations.’ In terms of operational destination image, ‘there has been recurring criticism of the use of attribute lists’ (Dann, 1996). ‘It was apparent from the review, however, that there is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models’ (Pike, 2002). ‘While the destination image construct has proven difficult to measure, consumers’ overall perceptions of a destination may be either favourable or unfavourable’ (Milman and Pizam, 1995). Consequently, there is need for destinations to develop favourable frames for their images.

5.2.1. Conditions that support branding

The following five conditions contribute to the branding decision (Adapted from: Kotler et al., 2003: 312)

- ◆ The destination is easy to identify by brand or trademark.
- ◆ The destination is perceived as the best value for the price.
- ◆ Quality and standards are easy to maintain.
- ◆ The demand or the general product class is large enough to support a regional, national, or international chain. Developing a critical mass to support advertising and administrative overhead is important.
- ◆ There are economies of scale.

I would like to think these points in the context of destination.

The destination is easy to identify by brand or trademark

Hotel and restaurant chains provide many examples of easily identifiable features. ‘The red-and-white awnings and distinctive painting of T.G.I. Friday’s and Holiday Inn’s green sign are recognisable to customers. Most freeway billboards are directional signs relying on brand identification’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 313). In the destination branding of Australia, they create ‘a logo depicting a yellow kangaroo against a red sun over a background of green and a blue sea’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 32). (See Figure 5-6)



Figure 5-6 Australian Logo (Source from: ATO, 2003)

And they symbolised each colour (See Table 5-4) in order to ‘makes the destination brand relevant, contemporary and appealing – establishing the brand’s architecture can be critical to this process’ (Morgan et al., 2003: 32).

Colours	Symbolize
Red	Earth, desert, centre, outback
Blue	Sky, sea, cool, endless
Green	Bush, rain forest, environment, clean
Yellow	Warm, nights, life, energy, sun, youth, friendly

Table 5-4 The heart of the Australia logo (Source from: Brand Australia, video produced by the Australian tourism Commission, 1997)

They simply display the brand name and/or brand mark and directions to the outlet. Among the desirable characteristics of a brand name are these:

(Adapted from: Kotler et al., 2003: 313)

- ◆ It should suggest something about the destination's benefit and qualities.
- ◆ It should be easy to pronounce, recognise, and remember.
Short names help.
- ◆ It should be distinctive.
- ◆ Some destination names have a negative meaning when translate into the language of the countries.
- ◆ It should be capable of registration and legal protection.

Middleton and Clarke (2002: 336) exemplifies these points; "I love New York", Canada's "The World Next Door" and British Tourist Authority (BTA)'s "Heritage themes" all serve to brand and identify their destinations with unique labels.' Furthermore, they suggest that to be successful in practice, such labels must:

- ◆ Be based on genuine destination values and attributes that can be delivered and that visitors recognise as authentic, not fake.
- ◆ Be readily understood by customers at the point of purchase.
- ◆ Involve at least the leading players in the commercial sector.
- ◆ Be incorporated into the promotional efforts of a country's regions and resorts.
- ◆ Be sustained over several years if they are to overcome the communication inertia and barriers.
- ◆ Be systematically exploited in a range of sales-promotion and customer-servicing techniques designed to reach visitors on arrival at the destination as well as prospective visitors in countries of origin.

Clearly, a name for a brand is crucial for the consumer. Therefore, the marketer must carefully derive the name from the nature of the destination.

The destination is perceived as the best value for the price

Brands attract consumers by developing a perception of good quality and value. Customers must perceive the brand as a better value than other existing choices.

Kotler et al. (2003: 314) state that ‘the concept of a brand name extends to tourist destinations. Vail, Aspen, Acapulco, Palm Springs, and the French Riviera have developed strong reputations, consumer perceptions, and expectations. People who promote and develop tourist destinations must assume responsibility for enhancing and ensuring favourable brand images’.

Strict building codes, promotional coordination, presentation of historic sites, and protection against environmental degradation are essential to the success of tourist destinations. In other words, chambers of commerce, visitor promotion associations, town councils, county commissioners, environmental groups, and historical societies must play a vital role in protecting enhancing the brand image of destination.

These stakeholder roles are summarised by Middleton and Clarke (2002: 133) as follows:

‘Branding provides the focus for the integration of stakeholder effort, especially for the employees of an organisation or the individual tourism providers of a destination brand. In popular destinations, reflecting the complexity of the overall tourism product, local residents are also stakeholders in the meaning and values of ‘place’ even if they consider themselves to be uninvolved in tourism. A strong brand can help provide a common understanding and some unity of purpose for staff, residents and business alike.’

Moreover, in order to support strongly this point, Morgan et al. (2002: 63) insist that the key characteristic of service brands is that people deliver them and the quality of the brand experience is entirely dependent on the people involved in a given transaction.’

Consequently, destination brand have complex factors; part of them is stakeholders. However, to unify its complexity, the brand leads them to the uniformity.

Quality and standards are easy to maintain

In WTO (2003) there is a guide of quality as ‘the result of a process which implies the satisfaction of all the legitimate product and service needs, requirements and expectations of the consumer, at an acceptable price, in conformity with the underlying quality determinants such as safety and security, hygiene, accessibility, transparency, authenticity and harmony of the tourism activity concerned with its human and natural environment’.

To be successful, a brand must develop system-wide standards to meet the expectations of the customer. If the brand is successful in developing an image of quality, customers will expect quality in all outlets carrying the same brand name. Inconsistent standards and policies will detract from the value of the brand. That is to say, ‘consistency and standardisation are critical factors’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 316). On the other hand, Morgan et al. (2002: 42) state about the consistency that just a nation brand can behave just like a manufacturer’s brand, providing an umbrella of trust, a guarantee of quality and a set of ready-made lifestyle connotations which kick-start the entry of its new “sub-brand” to the marketplace’.

‘Consumers often become brand loyal’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 316). The major benefit of branding comes from the development of loyal customers. They purchase the brand whenever it is available; the greater the availability, the greater the power of the brand name. Most major hotel chains try to have locations at major destinations in their market areas. Some chains in the United States have opened hotels that they knew would not be profitable for years in order to provide a hotel for their customers in a major city. Clearly, the brand must meet the demand.

On the other hand, Middleton and Clarke (2002: 133) shows the benefit of loyal customers such as ‘branding helps reduce medium and long-term vulnerability to the unforeseen external events that so beset the tourism industry. Recovery time after a crisis may be shorter, whilst resilience to price wars or occasional hiccups may be improved’. In addition, ‘branding reduces risk for the consumer at the point of purchase by signalling the expected quality and performance of an intangible product. It offers either an implicit or explicit guarantee to the consumer’.

In conclusion, the brand that has consistency in quality and standards help make the customer loyal, which could help from the crisis.

The demand or the general product class is large enough to support a regional, national, or international chain. Developing a critical mass to support advertising and administrative overhead is important.

Some hospitality products are strictly regional in nature. However, ‘in a nation as large as the United States, a strong regional brand is worth multimillions of dollars in sales. As regional tastes cross boundaries, firms that were once considered to be geographically limited have expanded nationwide and even internationally’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 317). In addition, Morgan et al. (2002: 13) say that ‘most national tourism organisations have limited budgets and yet they have to market globally, competing not just with other destinations, but also with other global brands. Procter & Gamble, the world’s biggest advertiser, may spend millions each year promoting their various brands but countries such as Spain, France and Thailand still have to view with them for consumer mindshare in a crowded environment characterized by spiralling media costs’.

Country	Advertising spend (US\$ millions)
Australia	30
Thailand	26
Cyprus	17
France	16
Puerto Rico	16
Brazil	15
Portugal	13

Table 5-5 Top National tourism organisations' advertising spend, 1997
(Source from: WTO)

Thus, the first challenge facing destination marketers is their extremely limited budgets by comparison with the marketers of many consumer goods and services. So how can destination marketers compete with eh mega consumer brands and penetrate the fog of advertising overload? Clearly they have to outsmart rather than outspend the competition – and that means ‘creating innovative, attention-grabbing advertising on a budget and maximizing the media spend’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 14). However, Morgan et al. (2002: 14) state that this is simple, self-evident truth but in destination advertising it is extremely difficult to achieve. This is not to say that destination marketers are not good at their job, but that effective place branding is often compromised by the politics of destination branding. Whereas, Coventry (2000) cites that ‘to benefit from tourism growth we must ensure it is sustainable – not just economically but also culturally, socially and environmentally ... Tourism growth must not come at a cost to our natural heritage and our way of life’. Furthermore, Morgan et al. (2002: 110) claim that an identity problem can lead to commercial failure. This is true not jut for companies and for product and service brands but for also for countries. In conclusion, a positive national identity can bring tangible benefits across a wide range of industry sectors.

There are economies of scale

‘Branding costs money’ (Kotler et al., 2003: 318). The company promoting a brand name has to develop standards, systems, and quality assurance programs. The brand name must be promoted. For example, ‘although one corporate giant such as Sony would spend in excess of US\$300 million on its annual advertising globally, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) estimates that the world’s governments are currently spending around US\$350 million each year on destination advertising’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 13). To justify expenditures for administration and advertising, the brand should provide economies of scale. Typical economies of scale include reduced promotional costs, because all brand units in the area of influence of the advertising benefit from the promotion. Management information systems, reservation systems, national purchasing contracts, and common architectural designs are ways in which brands can provide economies of scale.

On the other hand, word-of-mouth promotion is a direct result. Because the cost of advertising in local or regional media such as newspaper, television, and radio broadcast can be allocated among several units. A single stand-alone restaurant or hotel lacks the mass impact of multiunit and does not have the advertising budget to make an impact in a regional or national market.

5.3. Conclusion

This chapter shows the characteristics of winning destination brands. They are easy to identify by colour, perceived reasonable in price, controlled in quality and standards, large enough to generate profit, and achievable in economies of scale. As important implication, marketers could deal with destinations as if they were products. This makes them handle easily.

CHAPTER 6.

Case studies

6.1. Destination model from case studies

‘The positive elements of brand identity can be called “communication equities” (referring to the “ownable” brand communication assets that reflect the brand ideology and could be any number of the following: a logo, a strapline, a series of works, a visual language used in every context, a particular colour or colours, a sound, a packaging shape or material, the architecture of the retail outlets, the physical design of the product) and they can come in all forms’ (Gilmore, 2002). This is because countries have already both positive and negative images; therefore, Gilmore (2002) insists that ‘the greatest challenge is to refute the stereotypical imagery, because a country’s stereotype can lag behind reality’.

Gilmore (2002) stands such a position as effective country branding is like a preventive injection against bad publicity. Great brands – whether they are country, corporate, or product, are not easily destroyed by disaster. For example, the enormous power of the ‘I Love New York’ brand is being demonstrated as tourists return to the city after the 11th September attacks.

Positioning

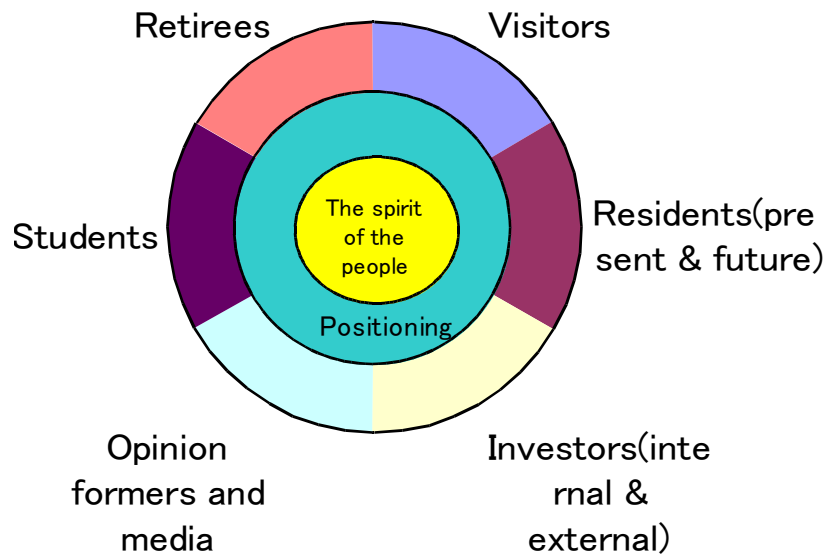


Figure 6-7 The brand at the heart of the country (Source from: Gilmore, 2002)

Gilmore (2002) insists that ‘the core of a country’s brand must capture the spirit of the people of that nation and their shared purpose. The spirit of the people and the spirit of their place are deeply connected’. Furthermore, ‘part of this spirit consists of values – these are values that endure no matter what the times because they represent what the nation’s citizens believe in and believe about themselves. Other factors such as environment, resources, culture, history, economy, and the people’s experience will also all have played a part of influencing the development of this spirit – making it unique to the country’. Consequently, values develop the spirit, which lead a country to unique.

The second layer in the positioning wheel works as catalyst, which has ‘aspirational, inspirational, and translatable’ (Gilmore, 2002) elements. Gilmore (2002) explains that ‘this is the most difficult part of the branding exercise. Aspirational and inspirational are defined as a country’s brand will not get off the ground unless it manages to capture hearts and mind. The need for “translatable” positioning is because a country has different stakeholders to address with its positioning’. Consequently, to transfer the value to stakeholders, ‘the aspect of “challenging” is to ensure that positioning is forward looking, energized, stretching’ (Gilmore, 2002).

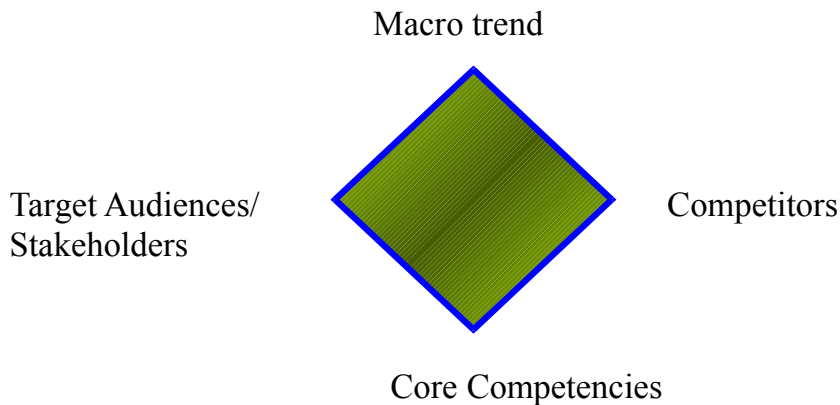


Figure 6-8 A positioning diamond (Source from: Gilmore, 2002)

Gilmore (2002) also suggests the positioning diamond. This consists of four elements: macro trend, target audiences/stakeholders, competitors, and core competencies. However, Gilmore (2002) warns that the process of using this positioning diamond is invaluable because it forces marketers to assess the priorities of your branding exercise, to think broadly as well as to narrow the parameters governing the development of your country brand.

On the other hand, Morgan et al. (2002) suggest the destination celebrity matrix. (See Figure 6-3) It illustrates a range of destination brands measured on the axes of emotional appeal and celebrity value. 'Obviously, how people relate to any destination brand depends on their own individual interests, opinions and experiences' (Morgan et al., 2002: 23). 'Image is all-important and how a place is represented can inspire people to visit and revisit' (Coshall, 2000; Tapachi and Waryszak, 2000). Morgan et al. (2002: 22) stand the position that 'branding can help bridge any gap between a destination's strengths and potential visitors' perceptions. Place reputations are not made in a vacuum and neither are tourist choices, so place marketers must establish how their destinations' images compare with those of its key competitors'. This position seems similar to that of Gilmore; that is to say, branding helps fill in the gap between destinations and tourists.

In conclusion, in looking at each country, it seems to have already positioned based on some individual perception. As Morgan et al. (2002: 23) state that on any positioning map, brand winners emerge as those places which are rich in emotional meaning, have great conversation value and hold high anticipation for potential tourists. And each perception could be presumably changed.

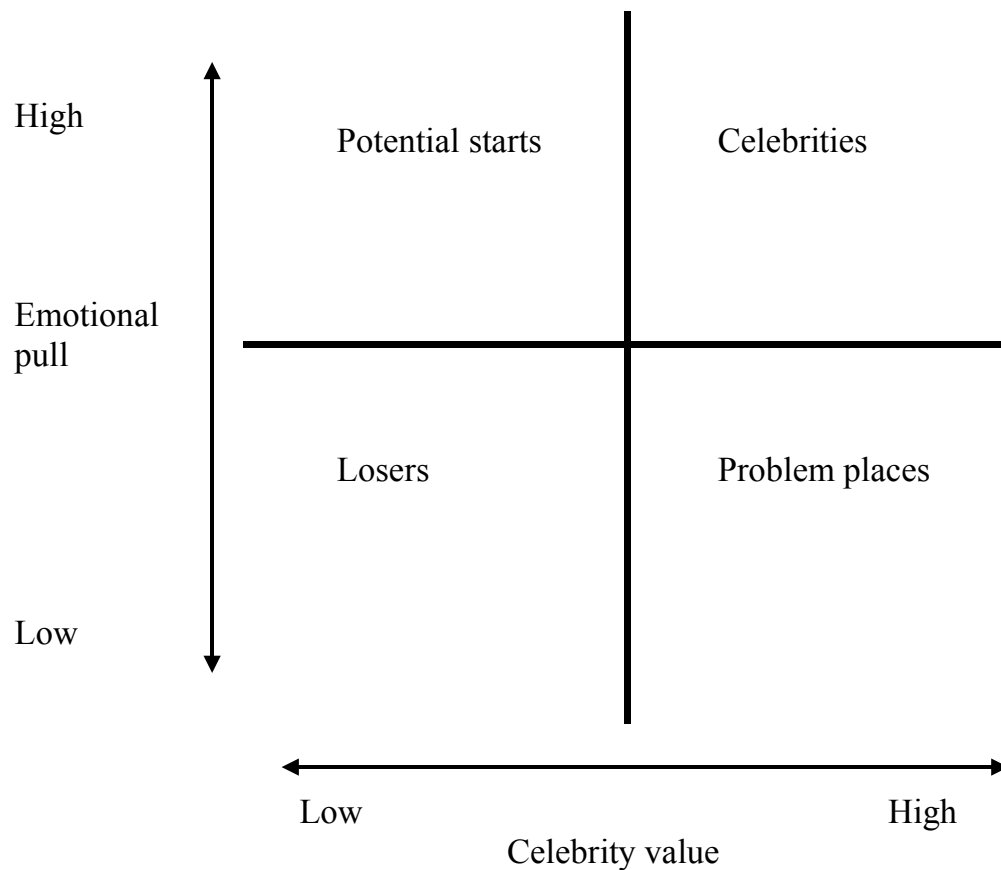


Figure 6-9 The destination celebrity Matrix (Source from: Morgan et al., 2002)

Politics

Impacts from Politics cannot ignore as an element of analysis. Morgan et al. (2002a) claim that ‘public sector destination marketers are hugely hampered by a variety of political pressures. The branding was as much a political response to the initiatives being undertaken by other local authorities as a marketing reaction. Branding destinations becomes therefore not simply a rational response to competition, but of politics based to a large part on local pride and concern’. Furthermore, Hall (2002) states that ‘relatively authoritarian regimes can impose some control and coherence over the component part of a destination image, it is more difficult within market economies to develop a coherent brand for destination that are composed of a myriad of product and environments’.

On the other hand, the trend of privatisation and commercialisation 1970s such as many national governments’ involvement in the tourism industry are recognised by Davis et al. (1993: 24). According to them, ‘governments are interested in reducing the dependency of public enterprises on public budgets, in reducing public debt by selling state assets, and in raising technical efficiencies by commercialisation’. However, the economic reasons are themselves ‘shrouded in political rationales that relate to broader philosophical perspectives which have most often been associated with a “New Right”, corporatist or neo-conservative economic agenda which in various countries was labelled as “Reaganism”(USA), “Thatcherism” (UK) or “Rogernomics” (New Zealand)’ (Bramwell and Lane, 2000).

Conclusion

Positioning has complex problems inside and outside the destination: in other words, stakeholders and segmentation. However, as an example, celebrity matrix seems useful. Of the stakeholders, politics cannot be ignored due to its strong power. The harmony in politics will lead to successful destination branding; on the other hand, it would be in vain.

6.2. Beanie Babies: a case study in the engineering of a high involvement/relationship-prone brand (Morris and Martin, 2000) In Destination branding context.

This case study provides an example of a firm's use of distinguishing product attributes to engineer and nurture strong consumer-brandships. Ty Inc., manufacturer of the popular Beanie Babies (BB) brand, has effectively engineered the brand to incorporate attributes of nostalgic value, personification, uniqueness, facilitation, engagement, aesthetic appeal, quality/excellence, association, social visibility and image congruence, and price risk. By incorporating these attributes and actively nurturing consumer-brand relationships, Ty has benefited from greater customer satisfaction, which has led to higher purchase volumes, brand loyalty, and positive word-of-mouth communications.

6.2.1. Conceptual underpinnings

At least three streams of marketing inquiry converge to provide meaningful insights into the investigation of consumer –‘product relationships: relationship marketing, product meaning, and involvement’ (Morris and Martin, 2000).

Relationship marketing

Relationship marketing suggests that successful firms are shifting the focus of their marketing efforts from marketing mix manipulation for the purpose of the immediate exchange transactions to those that focus on longer-term relationships (Kotler, 1991; Reichheld and Sasser, 1990) ‘achieved by connected customer database’ (Middleton and Clark, 2002: 167) ‘Driven by intense competition, escalating marketing costs, and a shortage of new sales prospects, firms employing a relationship marketing approach place their emphasis on customer satisfaction and repeat patronage’ (Kotler, 1991). ‘The relationship paradigm, however, is not restricted to linkages between companies per se, and their customers. Relationships between products/brands and customers are also highly relevant’ (Fournier, 1998; Martin, 1998).

‘Customer relationships with products (or brands) help insulate the brands from competitors, and sometimes from the company’s own mistakes’ (Shocker et al., 1994). ‘When the bond is particularly strong, customer sentiments toward the brand extend beyond simply repeat purchase behaviour or a preference based on cognitive considerations; rather the perceived ties with the brand can become emotionally charged and based on intense affective considerations that –to the casual observer –may defy logic and reason’ (Fournier, 1998) as is the apparent with many tourists.

Product meaning

‘A product’s (or brand’s) meaning is the consumers perception or interpretation of it’ (Kleine and Kernan, 1991), as well as ‘his/her affective reactions toward it’ (Friedmann, 1986; Szalay and Deese, 1978; cited in Morris and Martin, 2000). That is, products mean very little in and of themselves, apart from the meanings ascribed to them by consumers. These meanings affect consumers’ purchase behaviours (Kleine and Kernan, 1991) and ‘their perceptions of value’ (Richins, 1994) ‘Although the meaning of products ultimately may depend more on the nature of consumers than the nature of products’ (Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton, 1981),

‘variations in the products themselves may explain why some objects “become cultural icons and not others”’ (Wallendorf and Arnould, 1988) Clearly, destinations have considerable personal meaning.

Involvement

Although the term ‘involvement’ has dozens of definitions and multiple dimensions, Morris and Martin (2000) use the term ‘to describe the largely affective aspects of the consumer-brand relationships’. That is, ‘involvement refers to the degree of psychological identification and affective, emotional ties the consumer has with the product category or specific brand’ (Martin, 1998). The complexity and intensity of consumers’ attitudes and feelings toward brands with which they are highly involved can extend beyond simply preferring one brand to another. The highly involved consumer may perceive and emotional relationship with the brand. Hence, ‘high-involvement products or brands may also be described as relationship-prone’ (Morris and Martin, 2000).

Consumer’s involvement

Research has shown that ‘consumer involvement with some product categories such as dresses, bras, television sets, washing machines, calculators and automobiles tends to be higher than with products such as instant coffees, breakfast cereals, mouthwashes, and oils’ (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1985) This suggests that ‘the characteristics of the products/brands themselves or their usage contexts may systematically act to arouse consumers’ involvement’ (Morrison and Martin, 2000). If so, ‘it follows that the stimuli that arouse involvement may be engineered into the brand, or highlighted through promotional or other marketing efforts – i.e. to enhance brand meaning and strengthen customer-brand relationships’ (Martin, 1998) Thus, the high involvement level associated with Beanie Babies is unlikely a coincidence.

Characteristic of high-involvement/relationship-prone products

Building on the conceptual foundations offered by relationship marketing, product meaning and involvement research, Martin (1998) empirically identified ten key product attributes that explain why some products are more relationship-prone products tend to share these attributes: nostalgic value, personification, uniqueness, facilitation, engagement, aesthetic appeal, quality/excellence, association, social visibility and image congruence, and price risk. These attributes are shown in Table 6-6.

‘Although Martin’s research was conducted using product categories as the units of analysis, he maintained that the implications of his research extend to the brand level as well. Indeed, to the extent that some consumers perceive a brand to be so unique that it has no acceptable substitutes, the two levels of analysis merge into one’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Specifically, ‘brand managers and new product development teams can strengthen consumer-brand relationships by incorporating these ten distinguishing attributes into their brands’ design and marketing efforts’ (Martin, 1998). Engineering and nurturing strong consumer-brand relationships is in marketers’ best interest because such relationships imply ‘greater customer satisfaction and trust leading to higher purchase volumes, brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth communications’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Moreover, ‘it is possible significantly to enhance the benefits that products provide to target segment, especially the all important repeat buyers, and thus develop reasons for choosing according to product attributes rather than the lowest price’ (Middleton and Clark, 2002: 148). These relationships are depicted in Figure 6-10.

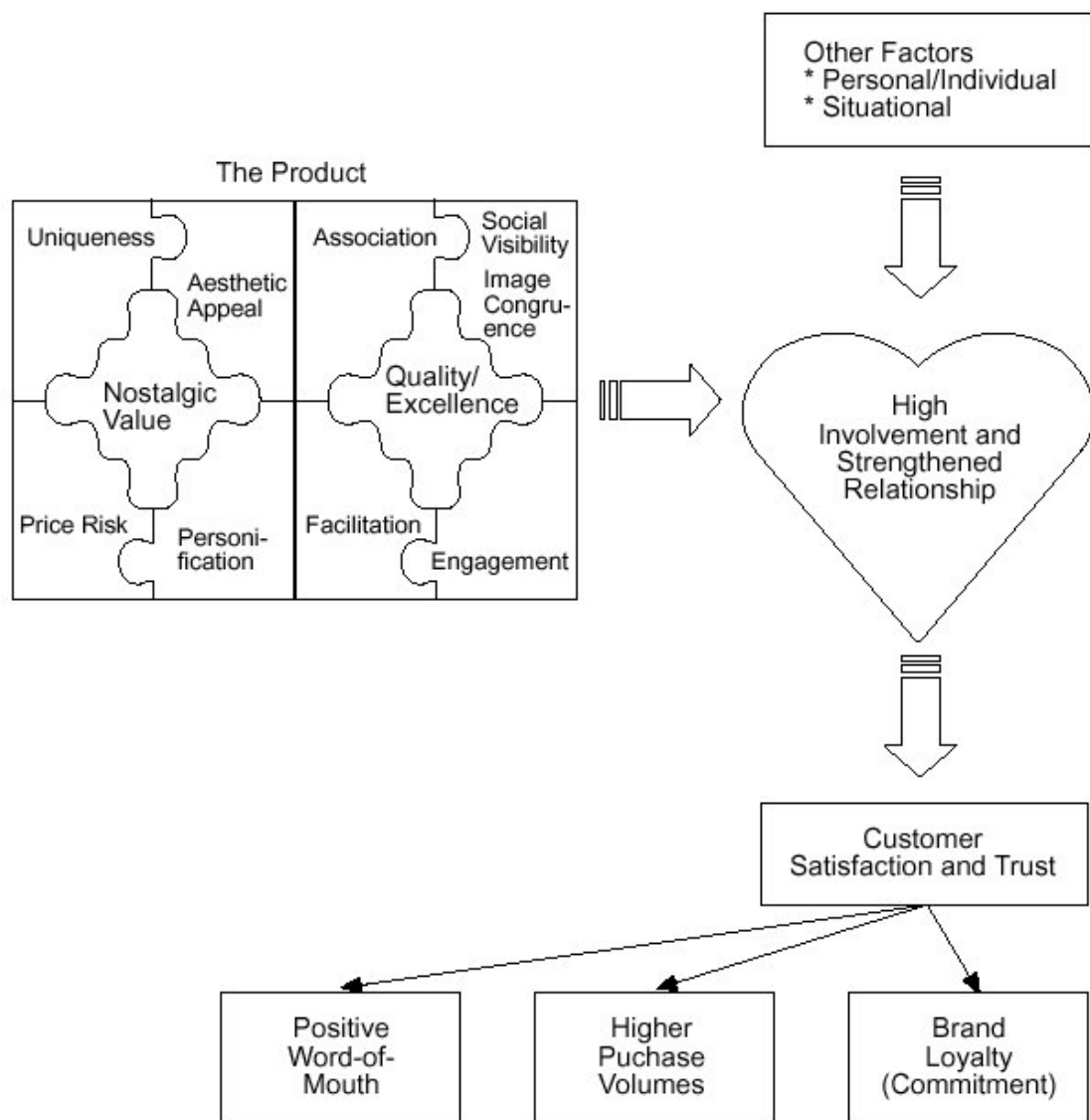


Figure 6-10 Attributes of high-involvement/relationship-prone products and expected outcomes (Source from: Morris and Martin, 2000)

Nostalgic Value	Sentimental linkages with some aspects of user's childhood or past
Personification	Product's features resemble human characteristics
Uniqueness	Somewhat rare or one-of-a-kind item, or clear differentiation between brands in the product category
Facilitation	The ability of the item to help the users engage in valued behaviours or attain important personal goals
Engagement	The extent to which the item engages the user, requiring or inviting him/her to exert mental or emotional energy to use it
Aesthetic appeal	The item's attractiveness or artistic value, or qualities related to the way it feels, tastes, smells or sounds
Quality/excellence	The overall superiority or excellence of the item on one or more key attributes relative to other brands, or images
Association	The extent to which the item is linked to other people, places, organizations, activities, events, issues, other brands, images
Social visibility and image congruence	The extent to which the user is seen by others when using the item which is also congruent with the user's self identity
Price risk	The degree to which the consumer may be concerned about the purchase price, replacement price, or other expenses associated with the item – such as insurance, storage, or repair cost

Table 6-6 Characteristic of high-involvement/relationship-prone products
(Source from: Morris and Martin, 2000)

In the following section, this paper examines each meaning in the destination branding context.

Nostalgic value

‘Beanie Babies reminds adults of their fond childhood memories of low-tech stuffed animals, thereby making them more inclined to purchase Beanie Babies for their children. Also, collectors envision the day when they can pass their Beanie Babies on to their children and grandchildren’ (Morris and Marin, 2000). Bell (1996: 63) comments that ‘the reconstruction of a gold town of the past is far more highly valued than a gold town of the present. History is colourful, a form of recreation for those reconstructing it in the present; in this process of reconstruction, history can be controlled. The historic village belongs to those who live in Ross, and who built it. A new gold mine on the same site belongs to somebody else from outside; anonymous, exploitative, capitalistic, who no sentimental links with the place and its past’. ‘The market penetration of picture postcards is far greater than any advertising could achieve, particularly when they are shown in countries such as the UK and Japan’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 141).

Personification

‘Giving the name, birth date and short poems. Poems printed on the unique, heart-shaped tags’ in addition, Web pages are cleverly designed to further personify their animals’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Moreover, Morgan et al. (2002: 124) insist that in the highly competitive and dynamic global tourism environment, there is a need to develop a clear identity, or ‘brand’, based on reality while also reflecting the core strengths and ‘personality’ of its product. For a brand to be successful in the long term, it needs to reflect the entire ‘state’s culture or personality’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 144). Clark (2000; Westwood, 2000) adds that ‘photographs, videos and “wish you were here” postcards are shared with friends and relatives, and logo emblazoned merchandise and luggage labels proclaim “been there, done that” to any observers who care to notice’.

Uniqueness

‘Just as knowledge and appreciation of individuals’ uniqueness helps explain interpersonal involvement and why those we love can never be replaced, meaningful differentiation in brands can increase consumer involvement with the brand’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Morgan et al. (2002: 120) state that ‘overseas visitors were in general, much more interested in messages about Wales which emphasised Wales’ distinctiveness. On the other hand, the needs that have to be satisfied from a main overseas holiday were very different to those satisfied on a domestic short break.’

Facilitation

‘Products/brands often achieve high-involvement status due to the facilitative role they play in helping consumers reach important goals, fulfil dreams, perform roles or otherwise engage in valued behaviours’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). For example of New Zealand, ‘the prime targets are so called “interactive travellers” – people young in body or heart who love travel, seek new experience and enjoy the challenge of new destination. While these consumers are small proportion of New Zealand’s over all tourism market, they are the highly influential opinion-formers who could exert significant influence and make New Zealand a fashionable or famous destination’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 30) Furthermore, as social interaction, ‘New Zealand web site is user friendly and navigable and above all, stimulates interest and provoke reactions. For instance, web visitors can send copies of New Zealand adverts and photographs of natural environments as e-postcards – adding to New Zealand’s conversational appeal, celebrity and anticipation value’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 30).

Engagement

‘Products that are engaging or that invite consumers to invest psychological or emotional energy while looking at destinations create higher consumer involvement’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). ‘Engaging products or brands maximize user interest and are more stimulating, involving, and fun’ (Durgee, 1984). ‘Computers, musical instruments, books, and sports equipment represent a few examples’ (Morris and Martin, 2000).

‘When making holiday and short-break choices, people are choosing activity first, destination second. This means that you need to understand the key need states which motivate individuals, families or groups.’ (Morgan et al., 2002) In its context, Morgan et al. (2002) suggest that further three key headings: hedonism, self-improvement and spiritual. The first is that good food, good wine, sunshine, beaches, late nights, nightclubs and self-indulgence. The second is acquiring new skills or improving existing skills, typically in sports or enjoying cultural pursuits. The final needs diverse and almost defy description and generalization since individuals are highly personal; however, the key issue is the individuals desire to explore himself or herself and their deep feelings. Consequently, ‘while destinations are selling dreams and promising pleasure, there is the need for substantiators that make this believable, not more marketing hype, and for rational benefits as well’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 65). Consequently, ‘when consumers make brand choice about products – including tourism service and destinations – they are making lifestyle statements since they are trying to buy not only into an image, but also into an emotional relationship’ (Morgan et al., 2002).

Aesthetic appeal

‘Marketers can elevate consumer involvement with a product or brand by incorporating aesthetic appeals into the product designs. Careful consideration of colour, style, patterns, intricacy of detail and other elements can strengthen the sensory appeal of the products and thereby increase consumer involvement with the product’ (Morris and Martin, 2000) ‘To reflect the diversity of Western Australia and communicate beyond the traditional tourist market, a unique colour pallet and series of graphic icons were developed to reflect the arts, business, technology, events and thematic aspects of individual regions’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 135). ‘Celebrity endorsement was seen as an effective means of providing a point of differentiation between Western Australia and other destination’ (Morgan et al., 2000: 137). Kotler et al. (2003) suggest that celebrities are likely to be effective when they personify a key product attribute. As an outstanding example, ‘it is actress Grace Kelly who married with Prince Rainier III, which resulted Monaco in becoming well known in the world’ (Ohashi, 1990) Clearly, aesthetic appeal is beneficial for developing the brand.

Quality/excellence

‘Brands that stand out as being high quality in their respective product categories are more relationship-prone than brands perceived to be poor or mediocre quality’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Morgan et al. (2002: 112) warn that some of lower-quality parks have made it more difficult for Wales to attract more affluent visitors. Furthermore, they explain that the new tourists are more demanding, they require higher standards of service and quality. ‘Quality delivery is only part of the answer to exceeding tourists’ expectations’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 142)

Association

‘Products or brands that conjure up positive feelings in consumers through linkages to other people, places, organisations, activities, events, or images result in higher involvement than where linkages are absent’ in addition, ‘positive associations are also created via the names, birth dates and appearance’ (Morris and Marin, 2000). ‘The events add to the city’s range of tourist attractions and they often actively seek media coverage as a promotional strategy, hoping more people will be encouraged to visit the city in the future. Thus, the relationship between events and tourism has become intrinsically linked’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 163). ‘A one-time or infrequently occurring event of limited duration that provides the consumer with a leisure and social opportunity beyond everyday experience. Such events, which attracts, or have the potential to attract, tourists, are often held to raise the profile, image, or awareness of a region’ (Jago and Shaw, 1998: 29). ‘Event Tourism’ (Getz, 1997) has been defined as ‘the systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts, and image builders’ (Getz and Wicks, 1993: 2).

Ohashi (1990) states that ‘open of the convention centre (CCAM) in 1979 with the capacity of 1200 established the status as convention tourism country. It is Monaco that images gambling; however, its income accounts for under five per cent of the revenue. Instead, Monaco reinforces other activities such as Monaco Formula 1 Grand Prix in May’. These events therefore catch consumer’s mind.

Social visibility and image congruence

‘Products or brands that are socially visible and reinforce the consumer’s sense of self can generate higher levels of consumer involvement. Socially visible brands are those that other people are likely to see the consumer use. Products that are socially visible may be considered high involvement if they convey a symbolic statement about the consumer that is congruent with the consumer’s self-identity’ (Morris and Marin, 2000). Morgan et al. (2002: 112) address that ‘if we were going to enhance Wales’ reputation as a leisure destination, we need a single-minded, consistent, integrated and innovative communication strategy. We understood, however, that branding Wales would require a sensitive, skilled and specialist approach.’ As well, ‘there was a distinct lack of government leadership on the issue and no single organisation had the responsibility or the remit to lead the process’, and ‘a memorable slogan and beautiful advertisements’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 115, 155).

Price risk

‘In some cases, the monetary value of possessions helps them to attain high-involvement status with consumers. In Martin’s (1998) research, consumers exhibited a higher level of involvement with products that were higher priced than with lower priced items. In expensive items do not represent the same level of consumer commitment to ownership and thus do not typically generate high levels of involvement’ (Morris and Martin, 2000). Morris and Marin (2000) infer that this difference may also be due to the consumer’s perception of the greater opportunity costs of obtaining higher priced items. ‘Western Australia has been positioned in its core markets as a value-for-money destination, and therefore, marketing promotions are not principally price led, but rather reflect a value-added component’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 136).

In conclusion, based on the argument about ten perspectives about destination branding such as nostalgic value, personification, uniqueness, facilitation, engagement, aesthetic appeal, quality/excellence, association, social visibility and image congruence, and price risk, Beanie Babies model could apply to the destination model, inasmuch as so far models have not dealt with the entire aspects, at most three or four of ten attributes. Therefore, I think that this model could make some indications of the destination branding.

6.3. Conclusion

Morgan et al. (2002: 3) state, 'far from actively engaging with destination branding issues, many have shied away from the topic arguing that places are too complex to include in branding discussions since they have too many stakeholders and too little management control, have underdeveloped identities and are not perceived as brands by the general public'. However, this challenge, using Beanie Babies model, could be worthwhile.

CHAPTER 7.

Findings

7.1. New Zealand

‘A destination that is currently building just such a brand proposition around its stunning natural environment is New Zealand’ (Harris, 2000; Piggott, 2001). ‘A geographically disadvantaged destination, New Zealand is in the process of building a strong brand to double the country’s tourism foreign exchange receipts to more than £3 billion by 2005’ (Warren and Thompson, 2000). ‘The “100% Pure New Zealand” campaign, the country’s first global marketing campaign, is intended to recover some of the ground lost to Australia in the tourism marketplace’ (Tourism New Zealand, 2000). ‘The campaign was launched market by market between July 1999 and February 2000 to coincide with seasonal promotional opportunities. Advertising is centred on above-the-line activity; mainly television and print (magazines) as promotion channel of Marketing mix, and the execution showcase New Zealand’s diverse landscapes, people, culture and tourism activities’ (Morgan et al., 2002). ‘The key markets for media activity are Australia, Japan, USA, UK, Germany, Singapore and Taiwan – regions which generate the largest number of visitors to New Zealand’ (Piggott, 2001: 12).

The ‘100%’ logo associates an image of the country’s two islands – North and South – while the strap line ‘100% pure New Zealand’ seeks to position the destination as the ultimate backpacker and thrill-seeker paradise – what the New Zealand brochure describes as a place of ‘awesome sights, breathtaking vistas, indelible



Figure 7-11 100% Pure New Zealand
(Source from: TNZ, 2003)

experiences – that's new Zealand' (Morgan et al., 2002a). The theme of 100 per cent and purity is echoed in all the visuals and the copy of material, with the scenery, its wines and foods, its people and experiences being seen as being untainted, unadulterated, unaffected and undiluted. (See Figure 7-1 and 7-2) The brand is intended to position New Zealand as a place (and, indeed, an ethos) shaped by its inhabitants over time. It communicates the quality of the destination's leisure, cultural and heritage products and services, and is the



Figure 7-12 100% Pure New Zealand
(Source from: TNZ, 2003)

latest step in a strategy to build a clear, consistent and unique identity, and building on the New Zealand way and the use of the silver fern. Currently, strap lines such as '100% Pure Romance' and '100% Pure Spirit' are being used.

In the long term, the advertising agency responsible for the campaign – is 'aiming to achieve such consumer awareness of the logo as

to be able to drop the "100% New Zealand" strap line and let the "100%" logo stand for Brand New Zealand' (Morgan et al., 2002a). The prime targets are so-called 'interactive travellers' – people young in body or heart who love travel, seek new experiences and enjoy the challenge of new destinations. While these consumers as a small proportion of New Zealand's overall tourism market, they are the highly influential opinion-formers who could exert significant influence and make New Zealand a fashionable of famous destination.

Such consumer are often very Web-wise and significantly, the World Wide Web (WWW) is integral to the New Zealand brand, complementing other advertng and public relations activities and media. The destination cyber scene is highly competitive and expensive, and creating and promoting an effective web site is not cheap. The current challenge is for destinations 'to convert e-browsers into- e-buyers and, above all, to match and, where

possible, exceed other e-tailer experiences' (Morgan et al., 2001). This visually attractive site is user friendly and navigable and above all, stimulates interest and provokes reactions. For example, web visitors can send copies of the New Zealand adverts and photographs of natural environments as e-postcards – adding to New Zealand's conversational appeal, celebrity and anticipation value.

Conclusion (Summed up with the interview result)

	New Zealand
Nostalgic value	Relatives Heritage products
Personification	People Web site: e-post cards (See Appendix C)
Uniqueness	Awesome sighs, breathtaking vista Indelible experience Culture
Facilitation	Websites e-post cards
Engagement	Wines and food Experience
Aesthetic appeal	Prime minister Celebrity
Quality/ excellence	100% and purity is echoed in all the visuals and the copy of the material for destination leisure
Association	'100% Pure Romance' '100% Pure Spirit' '100%'
Social visibility/ Image congruence	'100% Pure New Zealand'
Price risk	Geographically disadvantage

Table 7-7 Conclusion: New Zealand

By adapting the framework from Beanie Babies, destination branding of New Zealand seems to be successful, which would help New Zealand to create a superior destination brand.

7.2. Spain

‘One of the most successful destination suprabrands must be that of Spain’ (Gilmore, 2002). Once a destination with an image for poor quality service and facilities, in the early 1980s the Spanish government began what was to become one of the most consistent and successful brand-building exercises in destination marketing supported by a significant financial commitment – which is on going today. For example, real gross domestic product (GDP) growth averaged 3.3 percent in 1986 and 5.5 per cent in 1987 for Spain; this latter figure being roughly double the West European rate and the strongest rate of expansion among OECD countries. For the period 1991 to 2000, ‘Spain’s GDP grew by 23.3 per cent. This exceeds that of France, which grew by 17.8 per cent, and of the Eurozone, which grew 19.1 per cent. The reality that is Spain as well as its image and identity has changed dramatically’ (Gilmore, 2001). (See Table 7-8)

Promotional activities	52%
Advertising	43%
Research activities	5%
Total promotional budget	US\$ 71,631,000

Table 7-8 Distribution of Spain's promotional budget, 1997 (Source from: WTO)

The suprabrand of Spain is an example of an established destination that attracts 51 million visitors a year and has the world’s third largest promotional budget for tourism. While Espana is the main brand, its cities (mainly Barcelona and Madrid) and regions (such as Andalusia and Galicia) are the second-level brands. At the country level Spain has remained remarkably constant in its advertising with each campaign promoting the diversity and variety of the country, focusing on its heritage and culture, as well as the staple sun and sand product.

At the heart of the brand for almost twenty years has been Miro's logo, designed in 1983 (the year he died) by mixing elements from his own pictures and his own alphabet. As a piece of modern art, this logo symbolizes Spain's past and looks to the future, and incorporates representations of the sun (yellow and red), the stars and the bullring (black) to portray Spain. (See Figure 7-13)



Figure 7-13 Miro's logo
(Source from: TOS, 2003)

The shifts in the campaigns from 'Everything under the sun' (first used in 1984) to 'Passion for Life' (1992-5) to 'Bravo Spain' (introduced in 1997) have been gradual, well thought out and never compromised the brand values. 'The branding efforts, incorporate, absorb, and embrace a wide variety of activities under this graphic identity to form and project a multi-facet yet coherent, interlocking an mutually supportive whole' (Gilmore, 2001).

The one departure from this message of passion and diversity came in 1996 when famous photographers were asked to provide their own interpretations of the essence of Spain. A series of posters were created depicting a photograph take by each photographer with the strap line – for instance, 'Spain by Bailey'. 'While the campaign won several awards for its superb photography, it was disliked by the Spanish tourism industry and proved short-lived' (Morgan et al., 2002: 36)' The net result is that Spain's branding effort is both efficient and impactful – one symbol leverages everything together in the eyes of Spain and the world.

'The "Bravo Spain" campaign, which replaced the unpopular "Spain by ..." campaign of 1996, was tested in the key markets of the UK, Germany and

France where it was seen positively – the word “Bravo” conjured up images of approval – allaying fears in Spain of any negative connotations of its association with bullfighting. Intended to communicate a different, modern Spain, this campaign uses strong, visually impactful images in its television and press and poster execution as a promotion channel. In the print advertisement (which are the backbone of the campaign) the consistent image is of a blurred photograph with a larger, perfectly focused close-up window showing some detail of the photograph. Every region of Spain features in the advertisement, which mix well-know attractions (such as the new Bilbao’s Guggenheim museum) with less well-known sites (such as Valencia’s new concert hall), and include interesting copy and a small map indicating the location of the scene in the poster’. (Source from: Morgan et al., 2002)



Figure 7-14 Penelope Cruz (Source from: Cruz, 2003)

In addition, modernisation programme such as advertising on a national and regional level was accompanied and strengthened by the privatisation and rapid global expansion of Spanish multinationals such as Telefonica into LatinAmerica, the impact of hosting the Barcelona Olympics, the films of Almodovar and even the prominence of actresses such as Penelope Cruz. (See Figure 7-14)

It was part careful planning and coordination and part inspired individual and corporate action. Spanish clothes designer Adolfo Dominguez, film maker Pedro Almodovar and architect Santiago 'Clatrava pooled their artistic talents and worked together as a team to assist the Spanish government in expressing a Spain that was fresh, free and more competitive' (Gilmore, 2001).

Conclusion (Summed up with the interview result)

	Spain
Nostalgic value	History
Personification	
Uniqueness	Heritage Culture Bullfighting
Facilitation	Campaign
Engagement	Team cooperation (film maker, clothes designer, architect)
Aesthetic appeal	Guggenheim museum Actress: 'Penelope Cruz'
Quality/ excellence	Team cooperation Fresh Free More competitive
Association	The staple sun and sand product Barcelona Olympic Spanish multinationals e.g. Telefonica
Social visibility/ Image congruence	Miro's logo: yellow and red Films by Almodovar
Price risk	

Table 7-9 Conclusion: Spain

Economic success in Spain seems to be derived from a series of this destination branding mix. However, in this finding, Spain's destination branding could be added the personification and think about price risks. This is because Spain is not only one destination country in Europe; namely, it locates in high competitive area.

7.3. Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and Croatia

At national and local levels, post-communist repositioning in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) has been informed by a requirement to reflect a Europeanness which confirms to requirements for European Union (EU) accession, and the projection of a safe, stable and welcoming environment to encourage foreign direct investment and international tourism. 'Branding of CEE destinations is taking alongside the development and marketing of niche tourism products which represent a response to (a) changing global tourism demand, and (b) the need to raise per capita levels of tourist receipts. Recruited in the processes of national identity projection and representation, niche development has proceeded rapidly, notably in the areas of heritage and culture, nature and ideals of sustainability' (Morgan et al., 2002: 87).

Tourism holds a significant position in the substantial political, economic and social restructuring processes which have taken place in CEE in the past decade and a half. 'By 1999, the impact of travel and tourism in CEE was estimated to have a GDP equivalent of Euro 95 billion. The sector was reckoned to employ 21.3 million, representing 11.7 per cent of the region's workforce'. (WTTC/WEFA, 1997)

Inbound international tourism was intended to assist the generation of convertible currency and to help provide a positive image for the country and region. Pursuit of this was often counterproductive because of poor levels of service and infrastructure, bureaucratic restrictions and inflexibility. With the exception of Yugoslavia, most international tourism was actually generated from other state socialist countries, whose tourists were largely inured to, and thereby unwittingly helped to perpetuate, such poor service level. 'The "brand" was ideology, and the foreign language marketing employed was often grammatically fractured and semantically ambivalent. The resulting ambience was parodied'. (Hall, 2002)

‘Under the communists, heritage promotion was not necessarily intended for international tourism purpose but was often aimed to inculcate a sense of identity and pride in the country’s citizens, and to act as a reminder of their rural roots. Ironically, the overall weight of ideology was heavily biased against the contemporary rural population, which was required primarily to produce cheap food for the urban-industrial proletariat’ (Hall, 2002).

‘The spatial patterns arising from these processes have suggested a continued relative concentration of international tourism activity in the main cities and coastal resort locations, with domestic tourism being much more diffused across the region, albeit usually representing relatively localized activity patterns’. (Ivy and Copp, 1999)

‘Destination branding, with its core objective of producing a consistent, focused communication strategy’ (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998: 147), confronts at least three major constraints in CEE. ‘First, a lack of adequate finance to support appropriate marketing campaigns – a common trait – has been exacerbated by limited experience of global markets and a lack of appropriate expertise. Second, tourism destination marketers may be pressured to return short-term results when long-term investment is required to build a consistent brand. Such a dilemma may be reflected in message inconsistency. Third, while centralized, relatively authoritarian regimes can impose some control and coherence over the component parts of a destination image, it is more difficult within market economies to develop a coherent brand for destinations which are composed of myriad products and environment’. (Morgan et al., 2002: 90)

At a general level, furthermore, branding approaches in CEE have been faced with two sets of constraints. ‘First, the immediate post-communist period of 1989-92 imposed new and relatively distinct images of countries and regions suddenly being open, inviting and embarking on a process of substantial transformation. Within five years, however, much of this factor had been

dissipated, such that, except for the cities of Prague and Budapest, which have sustained strong identities through urban-cultural imagery, little apparent long-term competitive advantage appeared to have been gained, with often confused, contradictory or absent destination images portrayed'. (Morgan et al., 2002: 91)

'Second, CEE has tended to be associated with an image of indifferent quality and limited product ranges. Some mass marketing alludes to this in an optimistic manner, for example: 'Moscow is now a cosmopolitan city and shoppers may be surprised at the variety' (Premier Holidays, 2000: 92). Cheapness in some aspects (food, transport, attractions, shopping) is still extolled in certain mass-market brochures. There is perpetuated a sense of undifferentiated destinations, with often expensive but poor quality hotel accommodation. Although the particular ways of relating to the customer under state socialism – studied indifference – has largely passed from Central Europe, elements remain in areas to the east and south-east'. (Morgan et al., 2002: 92)

'European economic and political convergence, and the leisure search for new experiences and products, provided a potentially wide range of opportunities for the branding and marketing of CEE tourism'. (Hall, 1999) At a national level, a number of marketing strap lines have been adapted to encapsulate desired brand images: uniqueness, accessibility, security and ecological friendliness. (See Table 7-10)

Country	Strap line
Albania	Land of sun and hospitality
Czech Republic	In the heart of Europe
Estonia	The Baltic country with a difference
Hungary	The essence of Europe
Lithuania	Baltic hospitality at its best
Montenegro	Ecological state
Romania	Comes as a tourist, leave as a friend
Serbia	Landscape painted from the heart
Slovenia	The green piece of Europe
Slovakia	A small country with a big heart

Table 7-10 Selected examples of national destination strap line application in Central and Eastern Europe (Source from: Morgan et al., 2002: 92)

‘At destination level, most notable branding has been pursued for urban “cultural” destinations, with attempts to embed them within explicitly “European” heritage and progress themes, as exemplified by Krakow 2000: European City of Culture’ (Blonski, 1998) and ‘Zagreb: The New European Metropolis’ (Goluzza, 1996).

Although the conditions for destination branding across CEE differ considerably, a number of common factors suggest the importance of projecting strong brand images either sector or geographic based. These include the requirement to: (Source from: Morgan et al., 2002: 92)

- ◆ Emphasize a ‘Europeanness’
- ◆ Generate customer loyalty through repeat visit
- ◆ Raise per capita tourism income levels

More specifically, although the relative importance of factors varies from country to country, branding is required to respond to: (Source from: Morgan et al., 2002: 92)

- ◆ New and changing market demands
- ◆ Increasing market differentiation
- ◆ The need to disassociate from the recent past
- ◆ The desire to (re-)create a (new) national image, which may, paradoxically, emphasise heritage factors
- ◆ The need to disassociate from regional instability

Although better knowledge of markets is required – ‘relatively little market survey work on international tourists to CEE appears to have been undertaken – marketing does have a long pedigree in the region, and its resurgence is strongly evident’ (Martin and Grbac, 1998; Meler, 1997) However, ‘tourism branding and the profile of tourism are not well developed: for example, tourism is not represented among the region’s 100 largest (indigenous) companies by turnover’ (Business Central Europe, 1998a), although this is, of course, to ignore the significant role of non-indigenous companies such as transnational hotel chains.

There is also the need to respond to the new opportunities opened by technological development. Significantly, much effort is being put into producing lively and imaginative web site, with marketing messages and logs that are emerging as branding tools in their own right.

Destination branding and image construction: escaping from south-eastern Europe

‘Positioned on the western edge of the Islamic world, the Balkans, a term loosely conterminous with south-eastern Europe, is a region which has been subject in recent history to largely pejorative image constructions in the West. Dictionary definitions of “balkanize” tend to emphasize diversity, conflict and fractionalization’ (Hall and Danta, 1996; Todorava, 1994), and the recent history of south-eastern Europe has done little to persuade potential tourist markets that this sub region should be perceived otherwise. It has therefore

been one role of tourism marketing for destination countries on the fringe of south-eastern Europe to distance themselves from ‘Balkanness’, and employ branding to this end. The example of Croatia can illustrate some of the issues raised. In the case, as recently emergent independent states formerly of the Yugoslav federation, its use of branding has positively attempted to assist the creation of a new national image, and negatively, to distance themselves from the Yugoslav past.

7.3.1. Case: Croatia

‘Croatia see itself as Central European, yet its long coastline was the essential ingredient of the pre-1991 Yugoslav tourism product, and as such may be many Westerner’s only experience of ‘Yugoslavia’, an image not easy to dispel. Further, with substantial conflict and damage inflicted on Croatian soil and the not necessarily positive political image of the late president Tudjman, Croatia has faced a number of constraints in attempts to revive the enthusiasm of its former Western tourism markets. In these efforts there is the need to emphasize change and security, but also to project a diversification of tourism products to meet the new demands from more sophisticated markets than the Croatian coast responded to in the 1970s and 1980s’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 97).

Croatia was a former Austro-Hungarian, and thus Roman Catholic, constituent member of Yugoslavia. ‘Constituting the bulk of the former Yugoslavia’s coastline and thus much of its tourism industry, Croatia has not been one of the favoured countries for early EU accession. Croatia was enmeshed during the first half of the 1990s in continuing hostilities both on its own soil and in Bosnia, with a consequent collapse of the country’s tourism industry and an undermining of much of its credible image as a post-communist democracy. Perhaps the most notable erstwhile brand image of the Yugoslav coast – the medieval walled city of Dubrovnik – was deliberately shelled by Serbs and Montenegrins during the hostilities as a means of undermining Croatia’s economy’ (Morgan et al., 2002: 97).

Under these circumstances, it was vital; Morgan et al. (2002: 97) insist, that Croatia should establish a national tourism marketing policy which, closely allied to national image rebuilding, would, as a brand, convey a distinct image in order to:

- ◆ Clearly differentiate the country from its neighbours
- ◆ Reassure former markets that quality and value had been restored, and which, through the country's major tourism attributes, could secure long-term competitive advantage

From 1997, more concerted efforts than mid-1990s were made to (re-)establish a national destination brand: a new national brand logo (see Figure 7-5) was launched – the word, 'CROATIA' with the horizontal line



Figure 7-15 Logo
'CROATIA'
(Source from: CNTB, 2002)

through the two 'A's made wavy to symbolize the sea. The first 'A' is placed in a blue square (dark blue above the wave, light blue below)

which is complemented by another, red, square immediately above the preceding 'O': 'the logotype is interwoven with the symbol ... [which] ... is actually the visual code of

the Republic of Croatia'. (Ljubicic, 1997: 27)

'This is the chequerboard coat of arms as adopted for the national flag with strong historical associations. This 'visual code' is also to function as a brand on crockery, food items and souvenirs. In addition, three international tourism-conferences were hosted in Dubrovnik in September 1997. These were intended to help re-launch both Croatia and Dubrovnik on to the West European tourism agenda, following the physical and symbolic assaults of the Yugoslav wars. Their purpose was to project a strong renewed brand image of Dubrovnik as a cherished World Heritage Site symbolizing not just the phoenix-like restoration of the city, but also of (eastern) Adriatic tourism and of Croatia itself. Through the platform provided by the conferences, particular group of opinion-formers and representatives of upper-income niche markets were specifically targeted for the projection of this message.' (Hall, 2002)

‘During 1998 national newspaper advertising (in the UK at least), saw the CROATIA logo promoted alongside the slogan “A New Welcome. An Old Friend”’. (Morgan et al., 98) This mirrored glossier mass-market promotion material: ‘Croatia – welcome back old friend .. An old friend with a new name... The population is 90% roman Catholic. So many aspects of Croatia will remind you of Italy, Spain and France, where strong family values remain and churches are always full on Sundays’ (Holiday Options, 1998: 4). The message was clear – Croatia as a destination brand is familiar, ‘like us’, safe pious, trustworthy: comfortably European and a natural component part of the successful Mediterranean tourism product.

Meler and Ruzic (1999: 643) have argued that ‘it is possible to empirically establish that the Republic of Croatia presently does not have a determined and recognizable image resulting from an equally recognisable economic and marketing identity’, and suggest that ‘the establishment of a tourism identity must be part of a trinity of vehicles – the other two being exports and inward investment – which need to be appropriately positioned in relation to key markets in order to key markets in order to help establish a positive and coherent image for the country’. However, as suggested by disagreement among Croatians (see Table 7-11), the social, cultural and political dimensions of (self-)image building require substantial attention if Croatia is to prosper from promotion and branding in major economic sectors.

Croatia does not belong to the Balkans – geographically, politically or historically ...

There is no reason to put it under the same heading as Romania, Bulgaria, Albania or the other ‘stuff’. Get a good geography book! (Darko Bubic, Croatia)

This is a reply to Darko Bubic’s letter. The Balkans is the name of a geographical area ... But through its ugly history of constant conflicts, the Balkans has acquired a nasty reputation in the world. I understand that calling Croatia a Balkan country upsets many people here. But as long as you call the other countries ‘stuff’, you only show how deeply Balkanised you are. (Marko, Croatia)

Table 7-11 Self-perception of Croatia (Source: Business Central Europe, 2000b: 10; cited in Morgan et al., 2002: 98))

Conclusion

	Central Eastern Europe: Croatia
Nostalgic value	Heritage Roman Catholic
Personification	
Uniqueness	Heritage Culture Nature
Facilitation	
Engagement	Food & souvenirs
Aesthetic appeal	Roman Catholic
Quality/ excellence	Safe Pious Trustworthy
Association	International tourism conference Roman Catholic
Social visibility/ Image congruence	Logo 'CROATIA'
Price risk	Direct competitors Slovenia Bulgaria

Table 7-12 Conclusion: Croatia

Croatia has been reflected the old social paradigm since Yugoslavia era. However, recent endeavour is outstanding especially, nostalgic value, so that it can help people associate with Roman Catholic. Furthermore, it pushes not only religious points but also new and active international conferences. However, in this model, Croatia seems to lack of facilitation and personification.

7.4. Japan

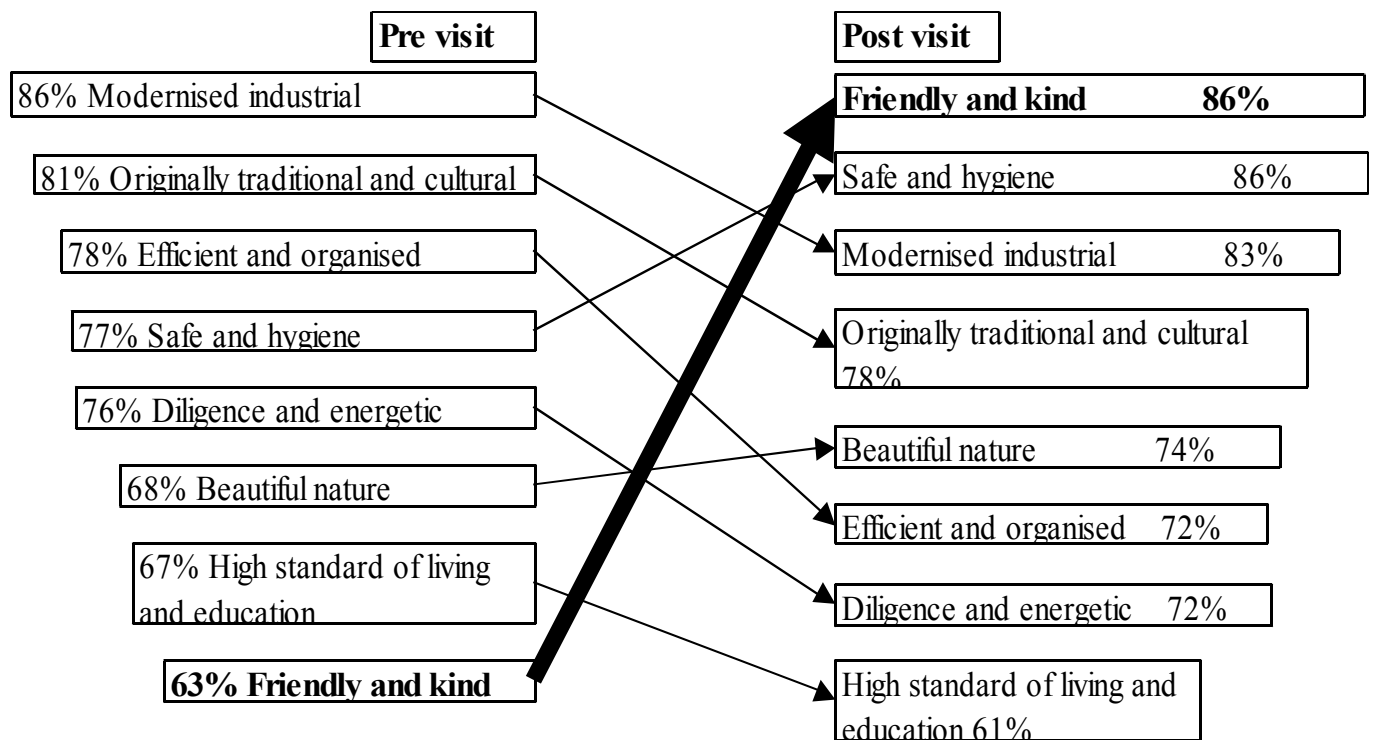


Figure 7-16 Image and perception comparison pre and post visit to Japan
(Source from JNTO; cited in Hori, 2002: 255)

7.4.1. The Japanese have not fully understood themselves yet.

Figure 7-6 shows the perception of the difference before visiting Japan and after at World cup in summer 2002. Frankly to say, most of those involved seem this fact fantastic, because the perception of foreigners to Japan changed dramatically from ‘modernised industrial country’ to ‘people are friendly and kind’, which might result in that most visitors could return home with much better feeling than before.

On the other hand, there is another viewpoint. This implies that ‘it is the proof of how Japan has been projected its misunderstanding, such as flat faces and coldness. Since the negative image in general so far is so strong that the visitors to Japan were surprised to see the Japanese hospitality. Paradoxically, too much strong negative image facilitates the visitors perceive relatively friendly.’ (Hori, 2002: 254) My interview results support this idea; the reality of the Japan and Japanese is much better than the feeling of overseas people’s

stereotype. Once someone could take a group to Japan, then, some members of the group are willing to go to Japan without any tour leader. In addition, Hori (2002: 255) adds the words that ‘reviewing the agenda nearby helps people perceive the element to be loved. That is to say, neither the people nor has Japanese government noticed correctly that there are many factors to be succeeded as a tourism country. These could be friendliness, culture, arts and nature’.

Here is an example of perception of Japan from Suvanto, M. (2002), ‘the most popular image of Japan used today is one of the harmonious combinations of a unique Japanese culture and traditions with a modernized society and high technology. These contradictory attributes represent two opposed worlds: that of men and that of women. The women ’s world consists of all the traditional icons. Throughout the history Japanese women have been described as kind, gentle, faithful, pretty, polite, very womanly, well-cultivated, and educated. These images have lasted over the centuries, such as in the drawings, and later photos, of Japanese women wearing the kimono and playing the koto or serving tea, or just being pretty. Japanese women have played a crucial role in the image of Japan as an exotic Lotusland, a highly aesthetic nation with beauty and politeness. Thus the women ’s world represents traditional Japanese society. The men’s world consists of modern icons with elements from the past. Japanese men have been seen as samurais, soldiers, trade soldiers, businessmen. Today their world represents the modern high tech country. However behind their busy Western surfaces you can find the calm samurais. Japanese men are polite, impolite, cruel, reliable and unreliable, full of contradictions’.

In addition, Morgan et al. (2002: 51) state that ‘brand turnaround’ is undoubtedly happen in Japan. ‘Thirty years ago, “Made in Japan” was a decidedly negative concept, as most Western consumers has based their perception of Brand Japan on their experience of shoddy, second-rate product flooding the marketplace. The products were cheap, certainly, but they were basically worthless: in many aspects, the perception of Japan was much as

China's is today. Yet Japan has now become enviably synonymous with advanced technology, manufacturing quality, competitive pricing, even of style and status. Japan, indeed, passes the best branding test of all: whether consumers are prepared to pay more money for functionally identical products, simply because of where they come from. It is fair to say that in the 1950s and 1960s, most Europeans and Americans would only buy Japanese products because they were significantly cheaper than a Western alternative; now in certain very valuable market segments, such as consumer electronics, toys, high fashion, musical instrument and motor vehicles.' This argument is summarized in Figure 7-7.

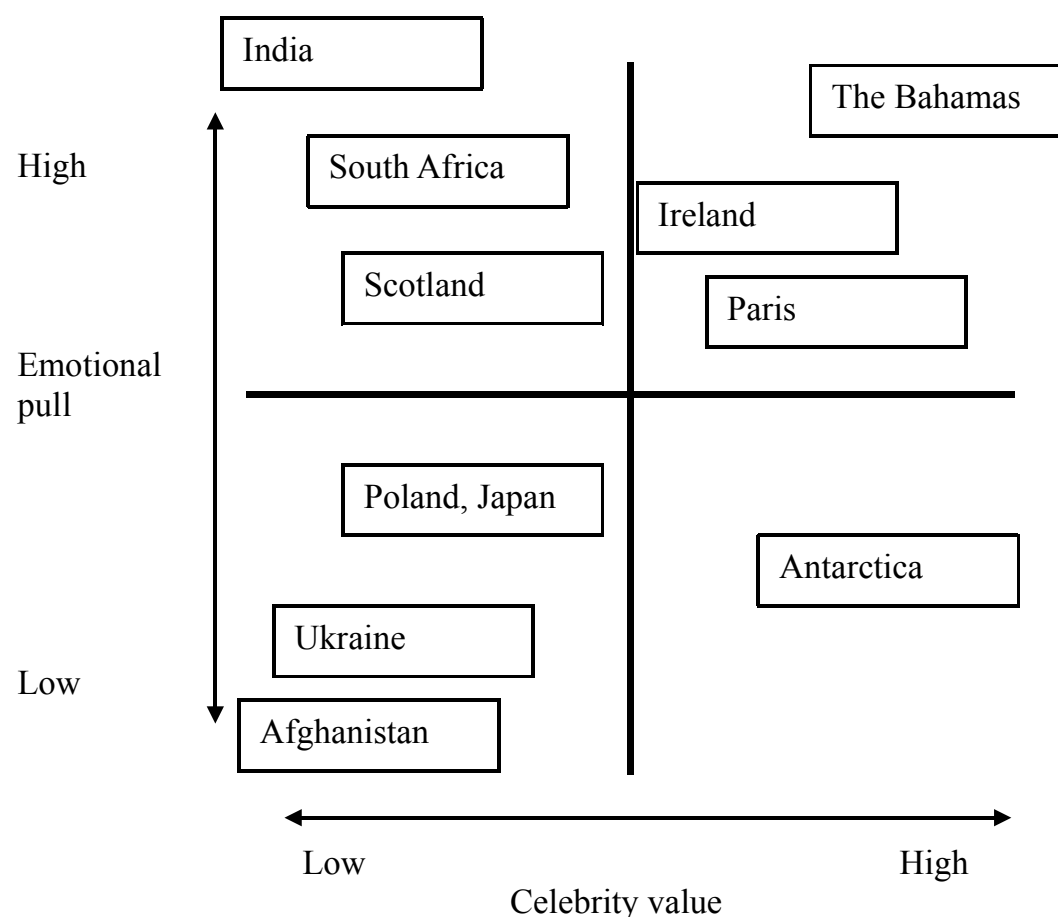


Figure 7-17 The destination brand positioning map (Adapted from: Morgan et al., 2002)

For proactive point of view towards 21st century, Hori (2002: 256) states that ‘so to speak, developed countries are reinforcing tourism. The meaning of a developed country in 21st century infers a tourism progressive country. This is no exaggeration to say. In that sense, Japan is a developing country, because that acknowledgement has not started yet in the government and people’. In addition, Iguchi (2002), a Japanese international politics professor, presents the availability of convention for Japanese tourism project. Iguchi (2002) reviews that ‘in 20th century business people met foreigners in the battlefield. Especially in Europe, the period from 1914 to 1989 calls as 75 years war. However, this process such as concluding consensus or the way to go should be managed in the convention not in the battlefield. This move will stand aloof the nightmare of 20th century in reality. Namely, too much transaction derived by the Internet or email makes people meet once somewhere, which leads to the increase of the convention’. She adds that ‘there is a word “tyranny of distance” from the world or the Atlantic communities in old days; however, these abundant days, if it were a necessary international convention, people would go further to Asia, competitive area including Shanghai, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Sydney. Therefore, those involved should restructure the internal severely’. Both authors criticise internal indulgence from previous glory rigidly. As Gerstner (2003) says that old glory makes bureaucracy and make the employees forget competition, which results IBM in a dead body’.

For uniqueness, all the interviewees agreed to the Japanese culture, oriental culture. As concrete examples, it includes Royal family, Mt. Fuji, shrines, temples, bullet trains and high technology products. However, in this context, the differentiation from Chinese culture could be a key factor. One of the interviewee told that Western people cannot distinguish Chinese or Oriental culture with Japanese one, because historically, Japanese culture mixed with Chinese one by exchanging people. That could be a theme for differentiation.

The catalyst for visiting Japan, the interviewees suggests exotic and healthy food, hot spring, skiing. As a new trial, JNTO made an alliance with Korean National Tourist Organisation (KNTTO) especially, prior to World cup in Japan

and Korea. In addition to catalyst, ‘Manga’, ‘Yukata’, ‘Aroma’, and recent big event ‘World Cup’ are devices to make people imagine Japan.

However, there is no aesthetic appeal existing in Japan. There are a few possibilities such as baseball players for American segmentation as Matsui and Ichiro. On the other hand, for elderly and relatively wealthy segmentation, Royal prince and princess could be a possible option. From the film, Tom Cruise can be a candidate due to his recent film shot in Japan. However, there is a concern about managing celebrities due to its nature.

Recently, Japanese government launched ‘Yokoso! Japan’ or ‘Welcome to Japan’ campaign. (See Figure 7-8) This campaign has been derived from the strategy of ‘The Inbound Tourism Initiative of Japan’ (MLIT, 2003) mapped out by Japanese government. It consists of four parts: first, promotion of inbound tourism: second, improving the visitor reception structure: third, sophistication of the tourism industry: and finally, fourth,

promotional measures. Moreover, each strategy has a couple of sub-strategies. Therefore, this strategy, inbound tourism initiative of Japan represents other strategies; it is an umbrella brand. And as a logo, it has prepared to use in each promotion for each language such as Japanese, Korean, English, and Chinese. (See Figure 7-19, Figure 7-20, Figure 7-21, and Figure 7-22)

In Japan, according to Oohashi (1990: 201), “resort law” has been acknowledged about forty cases in 1990. Since its policy is to encourage locals to promote by using public companies, the government and local government are not intended to indicate details and support locals. Therefore,



Figure 7-18 Yokoso! Japan
(Source from: JNTO, 2003)

public and the third sectors should have the vision about resort. That includes creating good relationship between local governments and the sectors. Otherwise, the commercial ego comes first, which would result in the conflict between two.’ Moreover, Pavlovich’s (2000) case study of tourism entrepreneurs in the Waitomo, and her application of network theory to this location, indicates just how transient the nature of these relationships can be at the local level where personalities can become an important determinant of action. Morgan et al. (2002: 129) exemplify that a brand strategy group, representing Western Australia’s broader community, met regularly to coordinate the over all process. Therefore, coordination among local authorities is significant for creating destination branding.



Figure 7-19 Yokoso! Japan:
Japanese version
(Source from: VJC, 2003)

However, ‘the Japanese government is poised to promote and implement the initiative with the total cooperation of the ministries concerned in a united effort to boost the number of foreign visitors to Japan to 8 millions by the end of 2007’ (MLIT, 2003). As for this Japanese government’s move, Australian Tourist Commission (ATC) (2002) reacts that ‘Speaking at the launch of Vision One Million in Tokyo, Japan, Mr. Boundy, Managing Director, said that the new initiative was a first for any country and involved a unique, long term partnership between the leaders of the top travel

companies in Japan and the Australian tourism industry’. Nagaoka (2002) explains in EU-Japan workshop in Brussels that ‘the Japanese government had launched a new national tourism policy we are calling New Welcome Plan 21. The objectives of this new national tourism policy are to increase international visitor arrivals to 8 million by 2007. This will consequently revitalize our regional economies and facilitate a deeper understanding of Japanese people and our culture so that we may enjoy a better relationship with your countries’.

Furthermore he cites the words from the speech of the prime minister of Japan, Junichiro Koizumi.



Figure 7-20 Yokoso! Japan:
English version
(Source from: VJC, 2003)

“ This year, the 2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan will be held. During the World Cup season, the attention of the world will be focused on this region and many people will visit our country. This is a singularly unique opportunity to increase interest in Japan and to deepen the understanding towards our nation among the peoples of the world. I will make efforts to seize this opportunity to introduce our country’s cultural traditions and rich tourism resources to the entire world and increase the number of travelers who

visit Japan, and thereby restore vitality to the local areas throughout our country. I strongly expect that the World Cup and its ripple effect will be an opportunity for our nation and people to rekindle their spirits.”

Clearly, Japanese government determined to reinforce tourism. However, this policy is against the historical flow. The only thing to say is that authentic powers influence more or less tourism and destination branding.



Figure 7-21 Yokoso! Japan:
Korean version (Source from:
VJC, 2003)



Figure 7-22 Yokoso! Japan: Chinese version (Source from: VJC, 2003)

There are two concerns about price for destination branding. On one hand, it is geographical distance from Atlantic countries including rationale problems. On the other hand, it is position in Asia.

The former situation is the same as Oceania countries such as Australia and New Zealand; however, they used to belong to the United Kingdom politically. That means that there is ample reason to visit there, because there have been relatives from European countries. Therefore, airline companies have relatively thick lines between Europe and Oceania. As a result, these countries pricing strategy seems a bit strong. To support this initiative, Matsushita (2001) insists that 'Japan located in far East. But the fact that Japan is far away from Europe and the United States should be recognised as not negative but positive. Namely, as human psychology, people are inclined to feel attractive in far distance'.

Whereas the latter case, positioning in Asia, Japan is only a developed country. By looking at some brochures to Japan, the price in Japan for 4 nights is £1,222 in July and August and £939 in January through March. Alternatively, China for 6 nights is £759 in July and August and £596 in January. These seem to be originated from the difference of labour cost. If tourists therefore compared the price with that of other countries, they would feel quite expensive in real term. Namely, 'in expensive items do not represent the same level of consumer commitment to ownership and thus do not typically generate high levels of involvement' (Morris and Martin, 2000). That is to say, this infers that this difference may also be due to the consumer's perception of the greater opportunity costs of obtaining higher priced items.

Conclusion (Summed up with the interview result)

	Japan
Nostalgic value	New experience History
Personification	Safety Politeness, Hospitability, Shyness, Harmonious Overcrowded people
Uniqueness	Dream (exotic) Culture (historic buildings, temples, shrines, and life) Royal family Language
Facilitation	
Engagement	Food (exotic, healthy) Alliance with Korean National Tourist Organisation (KNTA)
Aesthetic appeal	
Quality/ excellence	Beauty of place
Association	World cup (-) War
Social visibility/ Image congruence	Yokoso! Japan Media promotion
Price risk	Geographical problem (Long haul) Positioning in Asia

Table 7-13 Conclusion: Japan

In conclusion, Japan has possessed some competencies for destination branding. These are history, traditional culture, safety, Mt. Fuji, high technology products, World cup. And recently the government determined to go forward as a tourism country with a view to becoming an only country not number one. The promotion campaign has just begun. However, Japan seems to lack of some critical success factors in destination branding such as facilitation, aesthetic appeals and, association. Besides, pricing risk should be contemplated such as how tourists could pay for it even if it were expensive.

As for facilitation, the rich web pages are useful. (See Appendix F) In addition to it, the education or training to the customer access points such as tourist agencies could help potential tourists get information.

Furthermore, aesthetic appeal can also increase awareness of Japan, though the management of such people needs special care. However, as an aesthetic appeal, it should be managed depends on the target customer; in this sense, customer segmentation could be crucial.

On the other hand, association perspective is likely to be weak, because the World-cup has already finished, which would lead people to forget easily when the next world-cup begins. That means associated events have impact while they are alive. Therefore, marketers have to think of seizing the opportunity between association and aesthetic appeal. In addition, the marketers must bear in mind that people in the world have still negative image against Japan due to World War II. The mission for the marketers is to try to wipe off such negative images and foster enthusiasm about Japan.

CHAPTER 8.

Conclusion

In the light of the objectives, this paper reviews the literature on generic branding and destination branding model. There are four generic branding strategies: focus cost, broad cost, broad differentiation, and focus differentiation. Moreover, winning brands possess four characteristics; Profitable brands are leaders; Profitable brands are committed to high quality; Profitable brands capitalise on their environment; finally, winning brands are memorable.

As a destination branding model, this paper identifies five conditions to support branding; the product is easy to identify by brand or trademark; The product is perceived as the best value for the price; Quality and standards are easy to maintain; the demand or general product class is large enough to support a regional, national, or international chain; and, there are economies of scale.

As for a destination model itself, it is unlikely to find the proper destination model. As representatives, this paper introduces two positioning ideas: the positioning diamond and the destination celebrity matrix. In terms of positioning, Morgan et al. (2002:23) conclude that on any positioning map, brand winners emerge as those places which are rich in emotional meaning, have great conversation value and hold high anticipation for potential tourists.

The repercussion of politics is enormous; therefore, marketers are highly likely to be affected by the agenda at the moment.

This paper tries to apply Beanie Babies model to the destination branding model. The underlying of this model is supported by three conceptual models- 'relationship marketing, product meaning, and involvement' (Morris and Martin, 2000). Then, Martin (1998) identified ten attributes: nostalgic value, personification, uniqueness, facilitation, engagement, aesthetic appeal,

quality/excellence, association, social visibility and image congruence. As a conclusion, this paper finds it possible to employ it as a destination branding model.

New Zealand, Spain and Croatia case studies are conducted and applied to Beanie Babies model. Each case is tested. It seems to have tendency that the successful destination branding satisfies the ten attributes properly. However, this paper could not generalise the tendency due to the nature of research method: interviews and case studies. This is because it was quite difficult to find next interviewees. In other words, I could make a couple of snowballs, which could not become bigger.

There are a couple of considerable reasons. One is the time constraint and timing. As the research period is short, it might be affected to find a new interviewee. It also links to the number of parent population; namely, it seems to be small. As for timing, a lot of students may concentrate on particular timing slot before deadline, which results in the resource problem. Besides, the extension of deadline could cost much.

The other hand is that the authors of case studies about destination branding are limited. This means that since the area of destination branding is frontier, subjective views might occupy the papers. Therefore, it could be far from generalisation. This could, on the other hand, be a good chance to suggest an attentive model in this area.

As for Japan, on one hand, it is a developed country in terms of economy. On the other hand, it seems to be a developing country due to poor destination branding.

As a consequence of this study, this paper could indicate some extent of destination branding by using Beanie Babies model as destination brand mix.

CHAPTER 9.

Recommendation

This paper applied a challenging model, Beanie Babies model, to the destination branding. On one hand, this trial could indicate some consideration. However, it is far from generalisation. On the other hand, Beanie Babies model does not cover political and positioning concerns. In addition to them, it reflects only the current situation. Therefore, this paper recommends twofold: one is to conduct further research for generalisation; the other is to form an attentive model including political and positioning issues with destination brand mix.

CHAPTER 10.

Review of application of Beanie Babies model

Under the fact that ‘it was apparent from the review, however, that there is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models’ (Pike, 2002); ‘there is nothing special about the destination branding theory’ (Morris and Martin, 2000), this paper applied Beanie Babies model to the formation of destination branding. By comparing with three case studies such as New Zealand, Spain, and Croatia, the destination branding of Japan could be recognised. In that sense, it is worthwhile using this model.

CHAPTER 11.

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CHAPTER 12.

Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire in English

This is Osamu Fukuda. I am doing the research on 'Destination Branding about Japan' for my postgraduate dissertation. Japan now has an unbalanced situation in the number of inbound (to Japan) and outbound (from Japan) tourists. The former is about 500 million tourists, whereas the latter is 1,600 million a year. To offset this bias, Japanese government has launched 'visit Japan' campaign with a global tourism strategy. Based on such a situation, I am very interested in the destination promotion. Do you mind asking some of questions as follows:

1. What kind of images of Japan, do you think, attracts you to go?
2. Do you have some particular countries in which the destination promotion is attractive for tourists, or it encourages you to visit.

Thank you very much for your contribution.
The interview will long for about 30 - 40 minutes.

Appendix B: Questionnaire in Japanese

はじめまして。福田 治と申します。私は現在、英国の大学院で経営学を学んでいます。その修士論文として、「日本を旅行目的地にするための観光プロモーション」をテーマにしています。

日本から出国する人は1,600万、一方で入国する人は、500万人足らずです。この不均衡を是正するために、小泉首相を長とする観光審議会がひらかれ、国土交通大臣である扇 千景大臣の下でグローバル観光戦略が発行されました。

日本国の「観光プロモーション」は、この観光戦略の中の1つです。

<<質問事項>>

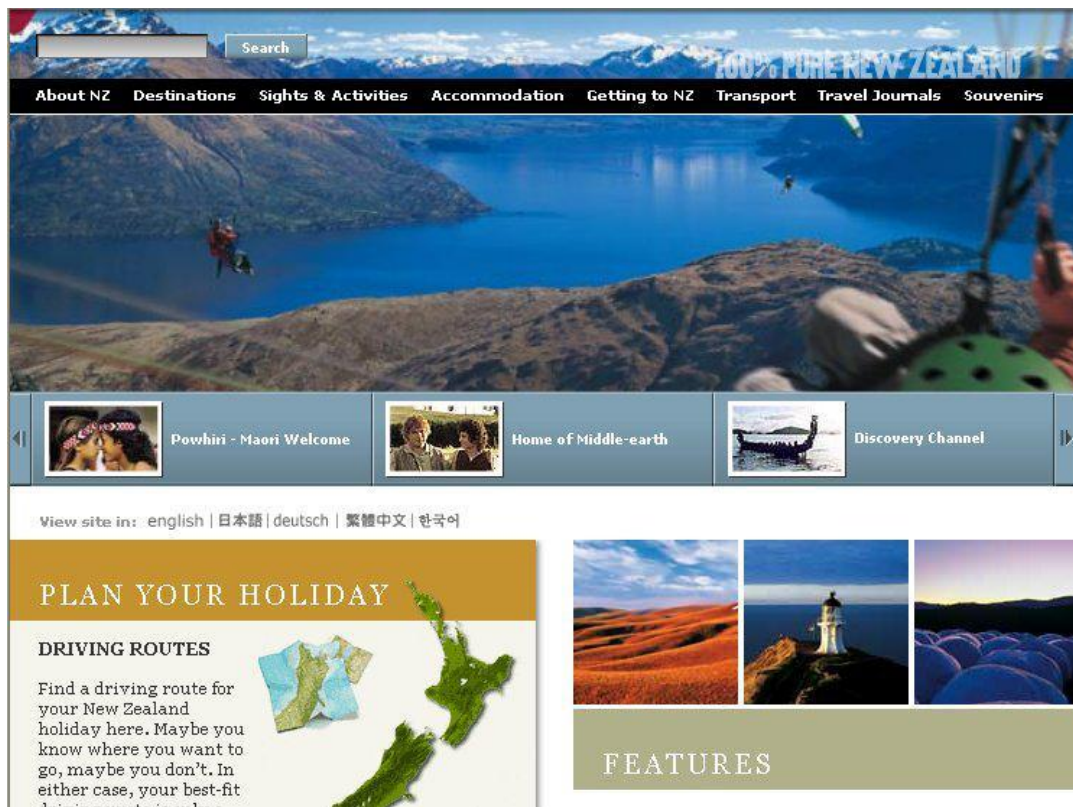
1. 「観光プロモーション」として、日本のどんなイメージが含まれていたらよいと思いますか？

2. どこか訪れてみたくなるような「観光プロモーション」をしている国はありませんでしょうか？

以上2項目です。ありがとうございます。

インタビュー時間は、30 から 40 分を予定しています。

Appendix C New Zealand Web Site



ew Zealand Web site (Source from: TNZ, 2003)

Appendix D Spain Web site



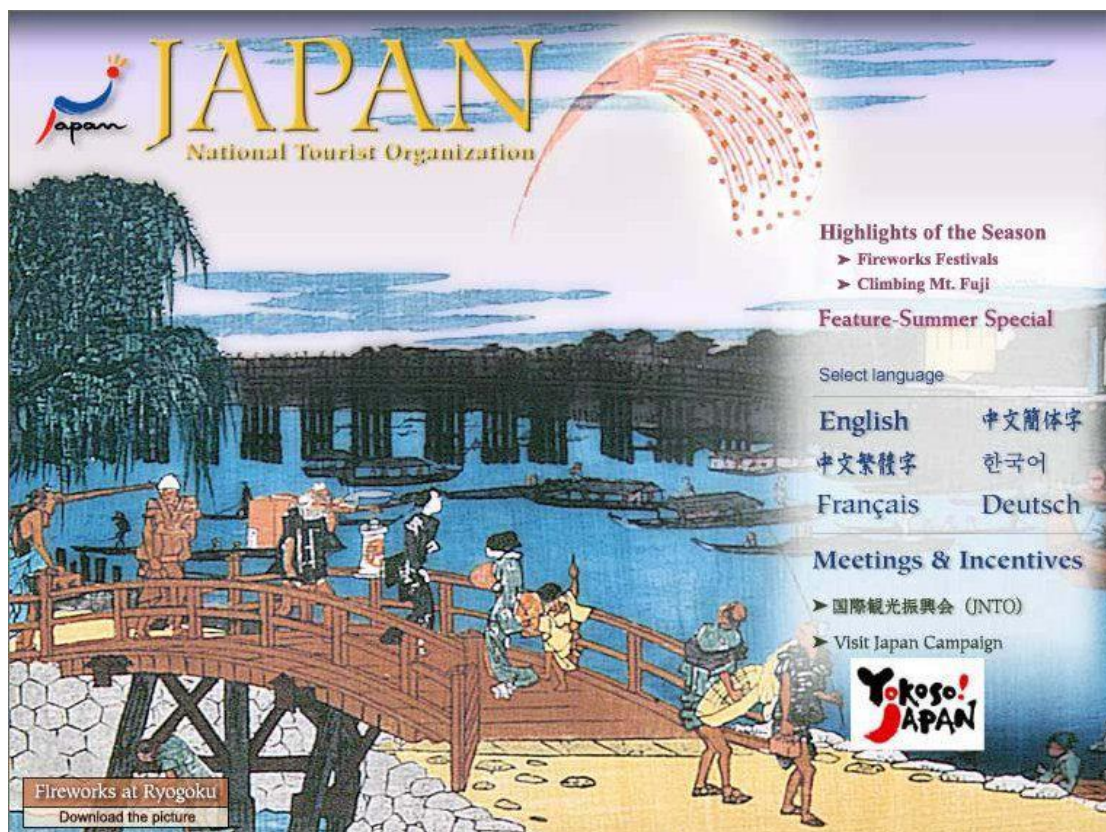
Spain Web site (Source from: TOS, 2003)

Appendix E Croatia Web site



Croatia Web site (Source from: CNTB, 2003)

Appendix F Japan Web site



Japan Web site (Source from: JNTO, 2003)