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**Destination Branding: A qualitative analysis of Bournemouth's projected image  
as a UK seaside resort.**

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## ABSTRACT

The projected tourism image is critical to the success of any destination. As tourism destinations become more substitutable due to increasing competition in global tourism markets, destination image is seen as a viable metaphor for building destinations brands and crafting a unique identity for tourism places. Increased competition among international tourism destinations has turned many countries to seek growth from destination branding and positioning strategies. The most popular type of destination of interest for branding and positioning studies has been countries followed by states and cities and very few studies have focused on seaside resorts. Despite several research enquiries concerning the branding of tourist destinations, little research attention has been given to the branding tourism image of seaside resorts and specifically to the projected tourism images of seaside resorts such as in the case of this study Bournemouth.

The objectives of this study are to critically assess the range of promotional techniques which tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively; to identify the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use to advance the projected image; to determine the past and present projected tourism image of the resort; to examine its brand personality from the perspective of tourism marketers and finally to identify the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications such as promotional tourism brochures and online information sources.

This study adopted a qualitative method and particularly grounded theory approach combined with a case study method. The use of grounded theory in destination branding research provides a significant addition to the current literature and enables a depth of insight not yet achieved in previous research. Semi-structured interviews were used with 25 tourism marketers from various tourism organisations of Bournemouth as the primary data source supplemented by the textual and visual content analysis of the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website of Bournemouth to provide a fuller picture of this rather complex destination image phenomenon.

The findings reveal that the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use in order to advance the resort's projected tourism image are the promotion of multiple images, the positive diverse slogans, the resort's tourism promotional website and its complex brand identity. This study suggested that the present projected tourism image of the resort has a multidimensional image and its brand composes of thirteen personality characteristics such as vibrant, cosmopolitan, youthful, ambitious, active, creative, confident, friendly, enjoyable, talkative, amusing, fashionable and changeable. This thesis makes substantial contributions to the study of destination branding and especially to the projected images of seaside resorts. Previous research examining the projected images of tourism destinations is sparse, with even fewer studies examining the projected images of UK seaside resorts.

## **DECLARATION**

I certify that this thesis has not already been submitted for any degree and is not being submitted as part of a candidature for any other degree.

I further certify that this thesis has been written by me and that any assistance I have received in preparing this thesis, and all the sources used, have been acknowledged in this thesis.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Bournemouth Borough Council	BBC
Bournemouth International Centre	BIC
Brand Personality Scale	BPS
British Broadcasting Corporation	BBC
Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software	CAQDAS
Destination Marketing Organisations	DMO
Double Income and No Kids	DINKS
English as a Foreign Language	EFL
I Love New York	ILNY
National Tourism Organisations	NTO
Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing	NUD*IST
NUD*IST Vivo 7	NVivo 7
New Zealand	NZ
Public Relation	PR
Scottish Tourist Board	STB
United Kingdom	UK
United States of America	U.S.A
Western Australia	WA

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 PURPOSE AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY**

The tourism image is critical to the success of any destination. As tourism destinations become more substitutable due to increasing competition in global tourism markets, destination image is seen as a viable metaphor for building destinations brands and crafting a unique identity for tourism places. One of the most significant challenges arising from the increasingly competitive nature of global tourism environments is the need for an effective destination positioning strategy and a flourishing brand identity.

Despite several research enquiries concerning the conceptual importance of destination images (Chon, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997) and the branding of tourism destinations (Chen and Uysal, 2002; Foley and Fahy, 2004; Ibrahim and Gill, 2005), studies have not fully developed a clear understanding of the importance of tourism marketers in dealing with the “image construction”. Additionally, little research attention has been given to the branding of seaside resorts, especially with respect to the positioning of seaside resorts such as in this study the case of the UK seaside resort of Bournemouth, Dorset.

The need to understand the complexities of “image projection” of seaside resorts is seemingly greater in a contemporary context than was the case in the first part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a period when UK seaside resorts were popularly visited by the “tourism masses”. Bournemouth, together with Blackpool, Brighton and Southend, were the

most visited resort during the interwar period (1917-1939) (Pimlott, 1947; Walvin, 1978). Bournemouth was a famous “health resort” for elderly and retired people, and was also a popular resort for holiday makers. However, over the past 50 years far less domestic tourists have embarked on seaside recreational activities, possibly as a consequence of several influencing factors: inadequate seaside facilities and services, increasing attraction of “urban tourism” and the increasing popularity (and competitive nature) of Mediterranean resorts (Owen, 1990; Urry, 2002). Nonetheless, within a contemporary context, Bournemouth’s product and image range has become more multidimensional.

However, the general perception of Bournemouth as a “tourist hotspot” has become ambiguous as other non-traditional visitors have been targeted. It is doubtful whether the tourism services have actually advanced a comprehensive image of Bournemouth as a seaside resort that appeals to its original customer base, even though there has been some attempt to enact a multidimensional approach. Appropriately, it is necessary to understand the promotional techniques that tourism marketers undertake in order to market the resort effectively; determine the resort’s projected image and identify the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers employ to advance the projected image.

The marketing of tourism destinations is complex as we are dealing not only with the tangible inventory of physical attributes such as the natural geography, built environment and attractions, accommodation and transport facilities, but also intangible attributes such as socio-cultural perceptions, sociability and interaction (Cooper et al, 1999). A destination is not just something that actually exists it is also



what is thought to exist, i.e., a ‘mental concept’ in the minds of tourists and potential tourists (Seaton and Bennet, 1996).

There is still no consensus among scholars concerning the conceptual definition of ‘image’ and its related components. Goodall and Ashworth (1988) have emphasised the composite structure of the image construct, defining it “*as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination*”; where an image is interpreted as an “*idea*” or “*conception*” of something and thus the “*basis of the evaluation or selection process*” (Goodall and Ashworth, 1988, p.3). Other researchers, however, maintain that “*image is not only the individual traits or qualities but also the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others*” (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991, p.4). Images are also dependent upon a number of influencing factors such as climate, political ideologies, fashion, personality, culture and lifestyle. Very often, the conceptual aspects of image are further operationalised and measured on the basis of destination attributes (Gartner, 1989; Yau and Chan, 1990).

Several studies have discussed the importance of destination image in the promotional strategies of tourism organisations (see for example, Goodrich, 1978; Reilly, 1990; Chon, 1991). In addition, advertising campaigns have been shown to be valuable in creating and managing a product’s image (Reynolds and Gutman, 1984). It has further been argued that the selling of a resort and the provision of visitor services are as important as the creation of tourism resources (Bramwell and Rawding, 1996). Gunn (1972), one of the first researchers to conceptualize the ‘image formation process’, drew reference to the distinction between two types of images: organic and induced images. The former are formed from sources not directly associated with tourism

interests (e.g., newspaper reports and fictional representations), whereas the latter are derive from the conscious effort of marketers to develop, promote and advertise tourism destinations (e.g., tourism brochures, posters, promotional websites).

Importantly, tourism literature emphasises the importance of marketers in developing a clear, comprehensive and well defined ‘brand image’, formulated on the basis of a common set of unique attributes. Studies of UK seaside resorts such as Blackpool, Brighton (Shields, 1991) and Morecambe (Urry, 2002) have acknowledged that these destinations developed a unique appeal based on specific qualities promoted to the general public, but unfortunately were not able to sustain their brand image as the quality of the product steadily declined, together with evolution of a new type of tourist that sought to break away from the tourist masses (Feifer, 1985).

Research on destination positioning in the tourism literature has been primarily driven by destination image studies (see for example, Gartner, 1989; Reilly, 1990; Murphy et al, 2000). Lovelock (1991) describes positioning as the process of establishing and maintaining a distinctive place in the market for an organisation and/or its individual product offerings. Given that the destination experience is often an amalgam of various services provided by tourism suppliers, it can be argued that positioning a destination is a difficult task (Murphy et al, 2000). Consequently, most positioning studies have relied on images as the starting point for understanding tourists’ perceptions of a place given that image is a key construct in destination positioning (Vogt and Fesenmaier, 1995; Pike and Ryan, 2004). This approach is limited as it identifies strengths and weaknesses of image attributes with no specific reference to which attributes should be used for destination promotion (Crompton et al, 1992).

However, the contribution of image research in developing, reinforcing or changing the image of a destination is well documented (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998; Kim et al., 2005a,b). The positioning concept is concerned with three issues: the segmentation decision, image, and selection of destination features to emphasise (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Destination marketers recognise that image of their product or brand in the consumer's mind is of more importance to the ultimate success of a destination than its actual characteristics (Nickerson and Moisey, 1999).

Destination positioning is incomplete without engaging in a discussion of issues such as destination branding. Destination branding plays a prominent role in visitors' perceptions of destination image and hence positioning. The relationship between destination image and branding has been the focus of many studies in recent years (see for example, Chen, 2001; Chen and Uysal, 2002; Foley and Fahy, 2004; Ibrahim and Gill, 2005). The overall conclusion seems that branding and positioning have a symbiotic relationship. Branding refers to "*what images people have of a country, city or region and what kind of relationship they have with it while positioning on the other hand, takes the images and define the city, region or country by showing how it compares to competitors*" (Nickerson and Moisey, 1999, p.217).

Destination marketers try to position their brand so that consumer perceptions are favourable and the brand is perceived as occupying a niche in the marketplace occupied by no other brand. However, of more importance for destination marketers are the projected and perceived images of destinations. The projected images are the conscious effort on behalf of destination marketers to create enticing and vivid images

of a place, while the perceived images are how visitors' actually see the place (Andreu et al., 2000). Recognising the importance of projected images in the positioning of a tourist destination, this research intends to examine and to identify the projected tourism image of the UK seaside resort of Bournemouth.

The Tourism Services of Bournemouth Borough Council are mainly responsible for marketing Bournemouth as a holiday destination, providing an extensive information service. Although the official aim is to create a positive image for Bournemouth, regionally, nationally and internationally ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)), it is not yet clear if this resort has a recognisable 'brand image'. Although the image of Bournemouth has undergone a range of differential changes over the past four decades, it has not established a distinguishable image identity. Accordingly, it is important to understand what tourism marketers actually think about the images of the destinations and how their perspectives directly (or indirectly) affect the promotional techniques of the resort. Moreover, the multidimensional approach arguably requires critical evaluation in an attempt to assess its contemporary relevance, significance and appropriateness.

Consequently, this study will focus significantly on ways in which Bournemouth's 'projected image' has been produced and constructed. It will address the effective promotional techniques which tourism marketers use in order to advance the projected image. Additionally, it will consider the resort's past and present projected tourism image and its brand personality from the perspective of tourism marketers, especially in an endeavour to understand the resort's transformation.

## 1.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Based on the background presented and the purpose of the study of the research the overall aim of the study will be to critically evaluate the projected tourism image of the UK seaside resort of Bournemouth (Dorset), especially in a concerted effort to assess the effective promotional techniques of tourism organisations.

To specify the information that is to be obtained in this thesis, the researcher has divided the research aim into six specific research objectives:

*Research Objective 1:* To critically assess the range of promotional techniques which tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively.

*Research Objective 2:* To identify the effective promotional factors used to advance the projected image.

*Research Objective 3:* To determine the past and present projected tourism image of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers, especially in an endeavour to understand the resort's transformation.

*Research Objective 4:* To examine the brand personality of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers.

*Research Objective 5:* To identify the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications such as promotional

tourism brochures and online information sources in order to understand which image used to market the resort effectively.

*Research Objective 6:* To contribute to the paradigms concerning “destination branding”, especially with respect to the conceptual understanding of aspects of “destination marketing”, “image projection” and “iconography”.

### **1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Supported by qualitative research method, this study adopted grounded theory approach combined with a case study method to investigate the projected tourism image of the UK seaside resort of Bournemouth (Dorset) and in particular to identify the effective promotional factors used to advance its projected image. Grounded theory is particularly useful in generating theory where little is already known, and to provide fresh views on existing knowledge. Specifically, an approach to grounded theory proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990) was used in the current study. The data were collected through two stages. For the first stage of the investigation this research included semi-structured interviewing with tourism marketers from various tourism organisations of Bournemouth and for the second stage used content analysis of the tourism brochures and the promotional website of Bournemouth.

The first stage of this research began in September/October 2005. In total, twenty five semi-structured interviews were conducted, each of which lasted for about 60 to 90 minutes and were carried out at the participant’s office. The semi-structured interviews were analysed using the grounded theory approach proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990) using the NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7) as a computer software

programme. The second stage of this research began during the period of October 2005 and November 2007 by collecting from the Leisure and Tourism Directorate of Bournemouth Borough Council fifteen tourism brochures and by selecting the tourism promotional website for Bournemouth holidays and tourist information ([www.bournemouth.co.uk](http://www.bournemouth.co.uk)). The textual and visual data of tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website of Bournemouth were content-analysed using the NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7).

Grounded theory was initially developed in the 1960s by the sociologists Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss whose seminal work, *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, was published in 1967 (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). A grounded theory approach, where theory and data are interwoven, was used to obtain a rich information source for data analysis, and to generate theory (Charmaz, 2006). Grounded theory method is suitable to study when the objectives of research are in constant interaction with the research contexts. It enables researcher to generate a theory by an iterative process involving the continual sampling and analysis of qualitative data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This method is recognised as a systematic research tool in qualitative study because of its credibility of data collection and analysis procedures (Riley and Love, 2000).

Although grounded theory was first introduced in the 1960s, it has become popular only during the last two decades. In recent years there have been several examples of a grounded theory approach in tourism research (see for example, Riley, 1995; Connell and Lowe, 1997; Herold et al, 2001; Decrop and Snelders, 2005). Decrop and Snelders (2005), for example, used grounded theory methodology analysing in-depth

interviews of 25 Belgian vacationers and observation data in order to identify a typology of vacationers based on decision-making variables and processes. Furthermore, Daengbuppha et al (2006) used grounded theory approach combined with three case studies to model visitor experiences at heritage sites. Therefore, this study of destination branding builds upon these studies.

Grounded theory was selected after an evaluative process of the strengths and weaknesses of a range of possible approaches. The key points which influenced the final decision were the following:

- i) It is a methodology that has as its central aim the objective of theory building, rather than theory testing;
- ii) It has a set of established guidelines both for conducting research and for interpreting the data which offered a sense of security when delving into the unknown territory that became the research;
- iii) It is a methodology that encourages creativity and self-development. This is normally achieved through the process which stimulates eclectic analysis through the application of theoretical sensitivity;
- iv) Finally, it is an established and credible methodology, particularly in such disciplines as nursing studies, but it has been largely unused in the field of destination branding. This therefore provided the opportunity to apply a legitimate methodology in a different field.

The researcher determined that grounded theory included within a case study was the best research design for the current study in order to identify the findings of the research effectively. Case studies are particularly applicable when investigation



covers both a particular phenomenon and the context within which the phenomenon is occurring. This can arise when the context is hypothesised to contain important explanatory variables about the phenomenon, or the boundary between phenomena and the context are not clearly evident (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000). In this research, the context was the destination branding of Bournemouth and the phenomenon was the promotion of its' projected tourism image by various tourism marketers through a variety of marketing communications.

Van de Ven (1992) and Yin (1989) argued that case studies are especially appropriate within grounded theory methodology where real-life contexts are being investigating over a period of time. Moreover, Seale (1999) highlighted that when the researcher combines a case study approach with a grounded theory approach, new theoretical concepts and categories are likely to be found.

To minimize the subjectivity of the qualitative research often found in such studies, triangulation of data collected from the above two methods were used to establish the trustworthiness of the study. Triangulation received increasing attention in qualitative research in recent years as it strengthens qualitative findings by showing that several independent sources converge on them, or at least do not oppose them (Decrop, 1999).

It was thought that using multiple data collection methods would not only provide rich and valuable information about the investigated phenomena, but also test one source of information against another and scrutinize alternative explanations by

bringing different forms of evidence from different management levels (Mehmetoglu and Altinay, 2006).

## **1.4 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS**

Chapter one provides a brief overview of the study, its background and the reasons for undertaking the study. In addition, the aim and objectives of the current study are presented, the methodology undertaken is provided and the structure of the thesis is outlined.

Chapter two forms the theoretical foundations of the study, defines the core concepts of the study and gives a theoretical view of branding a tourism destination through a literature review of tourism destination, destination marketing, marketing the seaside resort destination, concepts of destination image, and the process of destination image formation. The brand building of destinations, places as brands, the destination personality and the challenges of destination branding are also discussed.

Chapter three introduces the research methods and provides the justification for use of the grounded theory approach and case study method in conducting this research study. The collection of the empirical data, analysis and interpretation of the data and validity of the study are also discussed. The data analysis process using NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7) software is discussed and justified. Procedures used to indicate the study was conducted in a way which is ethically justified and that it has a scientific rigour are also outlined.

In chapter four the procedures and data analysis used to conduct research by the grounded theory method using NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7) software is given along with detailed description of how they were applied to the current study. This identifies the specific steps used to develop the substantive theory that emerged. In particular, the chapter provides an overview of how the data was analysed and describes the process of grounded theory used in this research within NVivo and specifically the coding technique process of open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The constant comparative method of analysis, the coding, further comparisons, the reorganising of categories and subcategories that were conducted throughout this research are also discussed. The theoretical saturation that was reached is explained and the final stages and the core categories that emerged from the analysis are summarised.

Chapter five consists of the findings and discussion from the grounded theory analysis of the data collected in this study. Specifically, the twelve categories containing data relevant to the promotion of Bournemouth's projected tourism image, its past and present projected image and its brand personality are discussed. The four core categories that emerged from the data analysis related to the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers used in order to advance Bournemouth's projected image are also presented and discussed.

Chapter six presents and discusses the findings from the content analysis of the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website of Bournemouth. Particularly, the chapter commences with a discussion of the findings from the content analysis of

the textual representations of both tourism brochures and promotional website. The chapter continues with the findings and discussion of the textual analysis of the tourism brochures and the promotional website by comparing the themes identified from the tourism brochures and the promotional website. The findings from the content analysis of the pictorial representations from the tourism brochures and the promotional website are also presented, discussed and compared.

Finally, chapter seven summarises the findings discussed in the previous chapters, highlights the research process of this study including the research background and objectives and the methodology and data analysis techniques that have been adapted. The contributions, implications and the limitations of the study are discussed and the directions for future research are also pointed out.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter reviews the literature to the study of destination marketing, branding a tourism destination, destination image and the role of branding in image formation. It consists of six parts as follows. In the first part, background literature in tourism, tourism destinations as products and Bournemouth as a seaside resort destination product will be reviewed. In the second part, the background literature in tourism marketing will be presented followed by the background literature in marketing a destination. Then the promotional materials of a destination will be discussed as well as the marketing of Bournemouth as a seaside resort destination.

In the third part, the background literature in tourism branding will be provided by an introduction to definitions and concepts of brands and branding, an overview of place branding and places as brands and in the fourth part of this chapter, an introduction to destination image research and its background literature will be provided. In the fifth part, the destination image formation process will be presented and in particular the assessment and measurement of destination image, the creation of the tourism image and its promotion and information sources. Finally, the role of branding in image formation will be provided by an introduction to destination branding image research, destination brand building and brand identity and in addition the challenges of destination branding and the destination personality will be introduced.

## 2.2 PART ONE-TOURISM AND TOURISM DESTINATION

### 2.2.1 Tourism Background Literature

A review of the literature reveals some difficulties in defining tourism. Tourism is a complex phenomenon and here are some examples of different definitions. McIntosh et al., (1995,p.10), for instance, defined tourism as “*the sum of phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments, and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors*”. This particular approach describes that tourism is the involvement of various people in order to attract tourists and visitors. Przeclawski (1993, p.10), however, defined tourism as “*the sum of the phenomena pertaining to spatial mobility, connected with a voluntary, temporary change of place, the rhythm of life and its environment and of a personal contact with the visited environment (natural, cultural or social)*”. In contrast, this definition focuses on the behaviour of tourists and their personal desires to explore and experience different cultures, environments and various other activities.

Tourism is multidisciplinary and many disciplines have interest in it, including economics (Bull, 1991; Eadington and Redman, 1991), social psychology (Pearce, 1982), sociology (Urry, 1990), anthropology (Smith, 1989) and geography (Pearce, 1979).

Economics are interested in the economic impact of tourism and its development and progress. Wagner (1997), for example, estimated the economic impacts of tourism, Archer and Fletcher (1996) analysed the economic impact of tourism in the Seychelles and Durbarry (2004) studied the tourism and economic growth of Mauritius. The social psychology discipline is interested in tourist's motivation to travel and explains why people travel. Bogari et al. (2003), for example, examined the tourist's motivation for domestic tourism in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the discipline of sociology is interested in tourism in order to understand tourism as an element of people's leisure time and anthropology explores those issues of tourism that result from tourism generated contacts between the host and guest cultures. Dann and Cohen (1991) highlighted that tourist's motivation to travel to a particular destination is affected by certain images and characteristics of those destinations. Also, Dann (2005) presented a review of the sociology and anthropology of tourism.

Finally, the discipline of geography deals with the analysis of where tourism develops and why. Werner (2004), for example, studied the geography of leisure and tourism research in the German-speaking world and Agarwal (2005) examined resort change in a global context by linking resort development with theories of global change, local governance and collective action. The author assessed global processes of change and examined their impact on English coastal resorts and on local action within these environments.

Davidson and Maitland (1997) indicated that tourism is about the desire to visit destinations which constitute the centre of activities in that location. Destinations stimulate and motivate visits and they are places where local residents experience the impact of tourism. Moreover, Gunn (1994, p.27) defined a destination as “*a geographic area containing a critical mass of development that satisfies traveller objectives*”. In this research the term of destination will be used to represent the seaside resort of Bournemouth.

Williams and Shaw (1998) emphasized that there is a need to examine critically recent trends in tourism as the tourism industry is presently undergoing dramatic changes and consumer's needs and wants are changing continually. Today's tourists are more selective, demanding, educated, experienced, independent, respectful of cultures and insistent on value for money. All the above within the tourism industry must be taken into consideration when marketing a tourism destination.

### **2.2.2 The Nature of Tourism Services**

Researchers (see for example, Cooper et al., 1999; Vellas and Becherel, 1999; Page et al., 2001) have identified that one of the focal issues in service marketing theory has been the extent to which services differ from physical products. Marketing a tourism product is infinitely more complex and ambiguous than marketing a tangible product.

Moreover, with tourism products we are dealing with a service product that has specific characteristics that set the product apart from the general goods sold in the market place. In addition, potential customers have difficulty in making evaluations



and hence choice and buying decisions. As reputation of seller plays key role in the buying decisions, creative marketing needed to show how any service meets the needs of individual buyers. Therefore, researchers (see for example, Cooper et al., 1999; Vellas and Becherel, 1999; Page et al., 2001) identified that an understanding of the complexity of the service product concept is an essential prerequisite for successful marketing.

Furthermore, many academics defined the nature of tourism services in order to understand its complexity. Quinn and Geagan (1986, p.98) defined services as: *“all those economic activities in which the primary output is neither a product nor a construction”*. Jefferson and Lickorish (1988, p.8) described tourism service as *“a satisfying activity at a desired destination”* and Heath and Wall (1992, p.129) added that tourism services are a *“bundle of benefits”* and *“an amalgam of attractions, transport, accommodation, and entertainment”*. Also, Cowell (1984, p.35) stated that *“what is significant about services is the relative dominance of intangible attributes in the make-up of the services product”*. Thus, physical good represents the outcome of the number of service activities of offerings that contain an element of the tangible.

Kotler (1994, p.295) defined service as: *“a service is any performance or act that one party can offer to another. It is essentially intangible in nature and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product”*. According to Holloway and Plant (1989, p.111) *“a product is as anything that is offered at market to satisfy a want or need”*. The author holds that tourism product is complex in comparison to conventional products.

### 2.2.3 Tourism Destinations as Products

As researchers (see for example, Ashworth, 1987; Hall, 2002) described, tourism destinations can be treated as products as they are logically the point of consumption of the complex of activities that comprises the tourism experience and are ultimately what is sold by place promotion agencies on the tourism market. According to Agarwal (1992, p.113), tourist destination is defined as “*a mosaic of a variety of products with different lifecycle*”. Leiper (1995, p.87) clarified that “*destinations are places towards which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while in order to experience certain features or characteristics- a perceived attraction of some sort*”.

In addition, Rodman (1992, p.642) stressed that “*places come into being through practice, not just narratives*”. The author added that these practical tourist networks constitute an assemblage of objects, places and people that are bound into the relationship. Moreover, a destination can be viewed as a product and in respect of tourism products, Holloway and Plant (1989) highlighted that when consumers buy tourism product they are generally buying “features” of the perceived quality, standard or general image (relaxing destination, sunny, etc). The authors added that the product’s (place) image and its value may be further projected through the use of brand image which act as a cue.

Many academics have examined destination in their studies. Recent studies, for example, have identified that destinations are amalgams of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers and they are regarded as well-defined

geographical areas such as a country, an island, a town or a seaside resort (see for example, Ashworth, 1987; Davidson and Maitland, 1997; Hall, 2002). In addition, researchers have emphasised that places have multiple identities and are situated points at which a variety of activities occur and a diverse range of people pass through on different routes (see for example, Hazbun, 2004; Taji, 2005).

Additionally, Agues and Goncalves (1998, p.31) stated that the destination is differentiated from others by its historical, ethnographic, cultural and natural resources, thus for a resort area, the resources could be geographical, educational, cultural or historic. Consequently, the work of marketers is to improve, preserve and promote these resources to the public. The authors added that *“a destination must be able to develop one or more of its tourism attractions such as culture, sun and beach, and it would then allow itself to be considered a composite product”*. Jensen (2001) added that a destination can always differentiate itself by developing in terms of promoting and offering a variety of services. The author stated that the diversification of products/services enables a destination to develop its tourism industry and attract new markets.

Laws (1995) and Sirakya (1996) have made numerous attempts to classify the major elements of a destination. Among these elements are culture, ecology, architecture, climate, cost, transport, entertainment, hotels and catering. Destination-based attributes could be many and different from one destination to another. Gallarza et al (2001) highlighted that the image of a town as a tourist destination is a very important issue to any country of hospitable people with a high level of education, high and respectable reputation and, also, a country of safe and secure destination areas.

Following the unexpected success of applying the destination concept in the industrial sector, academics began to analyse the marketing theories in relation to the tourists' needs and wants and determine the importance of the destination concept to their demands through the marketing services in terms of the concept of tourism as it applies to tourists (see for example, Chon, 1992; Agues and Gonclaves, 1998; Alan and Wong, 2004). There has been, in general, an increase in the applicability and principles of services destination marketing which has paralleled in the marketing services community. Seaton (1994), for example, stressed that marketing a destination is not as specific as marketing a traditional consumer product and even its promotional strategies remain to be further developed compared to those of consumer goods. Seekings (1989) added that the flexible view of the destination, the intangibility of the tourism product and the significant geographic and temporal divide between the supply and demand sides of the tourism mean that promotion is an even more essential part of a successful tourism venture.

#### **2.2.4 Bournemouth as a Seaside Resort Destination Product**

##### **2.2.4.1 Bournemouth's History**

Before commence to illustrate the tourism product of the seaside resort of Bournemouth it is significant to mention about its history. The town of Bournemouth is now approximately one hundred eighty years old but its history trace back to the early 18<sup>th</sup> century when, Bournemouth was a fishing village. Bournemouth was a holiday resort but during the England's centuries of conquering history the town had

major changes. Bournemouth possesses a major historical role which lead to the country's greatness and warranted local mention in history books (Young, 1957).

Bournemouth began solely as a health giving holiday resort, and previous studies shown that its image was romantic (Young, 1957). It was the impulse of an army officer's wife that gave Bournemouth its beginnings, thus, Captain Lewis Tregonwell and his wealthy lady, Henrietta, were holidaymaking in Mudeford in 1810. Captain Tregonwell had been stationed locally fourteen years before, when he was in charge of a troop of the Dorset Yeomanry, guarding the shores between Hengistbury Head and Sandbanks against a possible invasion by Napoleon and one day he drove his wife over the sand dunes to Bournemouth, where she liked the place and they bought land, and built a house on the site of what is today the Royal Exeter Hotel between the square and the sea. Tregonwell enjoyed the beach and the sea bathing and built a group of cottages for summer letting to visitors who felt the same way and later bought more land on which to build private residences (Edwards, 1981). Additionally, Tregonwell planted pine-trees on the slopes of the cliffs, and these helped to make Bournemouth famous as a health resort. The sweet pine-scented air was supposed to be a cure for tuberculosis, the prevailing illness of Victorian times (Young, 1957).

#### **2.2.4.2 Bournemouth's Tourism Product**

The tourism product of Bournemouth in the past was consisted from its natural and geographical resources. Bournemouth was established using the health-giving qualities as its industry and as a result has grown into one of Europe's leading health resorts. From a geographical perspective, the railway came in the 1870s, and this

increased the population as a consequence its development was phenomenal, from a population of 6,507 in 1871, it rose to 60,000 in 1900 and at present, Bournemouth has over 152,000 residents ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

In present, Bournemouth besides its natural and geographical resources consists as well of historic, cultural, commercial and educational resources. Accordingly, the years left with some famous people, thus the celebrated actress Lillie Langtry called the 'Jersey Lily' entertained the future King Edward VII in a house on the East Cliff where now is the Langtry Manor Hotel and the famous politician, William Gladstone, made his last public proclamation from Bournemouth's central station in 1898 (Edwards, 1981).

From a commercial viewpoint, Bournemouth has been an attractive place to major companies who have wanted to establish their headquarters outside London. Thus, Abbey Life, Teachers Assurance, Lloyds, McCarthy and Stone, Municipal General Insurance and the Portman Building Society, are only a few of the British names which have altered the architectural face of the skyline with their buildings. In addition, the American company of Chase-Manhattan Bank is a member of the business of the companies of the town illustrating that Bournemouth has the potential to attract major companies that seek to relocate their headquarters ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

Moreover, Bournemouth consists of educational resources as language school industry continues to grow, and a relatively new influence is the rapid growth of Bournemouth University. Bournemouth has been an established destination for English as a Foreign Language study (EFL) for over forty years, attracting students

from all around the world. There are thirty-two known permanent language schools operating in the Bournemouth area. In addition to this there are a number of summer schools which usually operate during the months of June, July and August. Statistics showed that a total of fifty-three thousands foreign students visit Bournemouth each year. Moreover, the total value of the language school industry to the Bournemouth local economy is estimated to be in the region of £61 million per annum ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

Bournemouth was designed as a high quality, purpose built resort from the outset and this strong foundation of a clear direction coupled with the stunning natural assets of the area, has enabled Bournemouth to prosper and grow over two centuries into an internationally recognised tourism destination with a high quality of life. Bournemouth is set at the heart of a spectacular bay that stretches for seven miles and enjoys some of the best weather to be found in Britain. There are some 16,000 bed spaces in Bournemouth and over 100 attractions within a one hour drive time. The Bournemouth International Centre is a major conference and entertainment venue and the resort has the largest concentration of international language schools outside of London. The hotels achieve occupancy levels that exceed both the regional and national averages and tourism investment is floating with new hotels are opening and under construction. The retail offer is also varied and of a high quality with new stores investing in both the town centre and the edge of town development ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

### 2.2.4.3 Tourism in Bournemouth

Bournemouth's economy has been built upon tourism and with nearly two million staying visitors, and over four and half million day visitors every year, Bournemouth is a top international resort, and the tourist industry is vital to the town's economy. In 2005 these visitors generated approximately £479 million of expenditure directly and indirectly; thus supporting 16,400 jobs. Direct tourists spend in Bournemouth accounts for 11% of that for the entire Southern Region. In addition, tourist expenditure contributes a considerable level of business to other sectors of the economy and has, for example, helped to support retail, leisure and entertainment industries, which are amongst the strongest in Britain. The continued year-round success of Tourism Services in Bournemouth is reflected in room and bed occupancy significantly above the national and regional averages ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

Tourism plays a pivotal role in the life and economic vitality of Bournemouth. With one in every six people in Bournemouth employed in tourism and a gross income exceeding £500 million every year, it would be easy to concentrate on the economic benefits and overlook the huge contribution that tourism makes to the quality of life of the people who live and work in Bournemouth. Tourism has the benefit of not only generating economic prosperity but also providing services that are enjoyed by the local community on a daily basis. The benefits to Bournemouth's local community are delivered through enhanced leisure and entertainment possibilities, additional shopping, restaurants, clubs, transport etc. Bournemouth's tourist industry is characterised by a large number of businesses that rely on visitors for all or part of their income and a local population that is proud of the range and high quality of



services and entertainment in the resort. This broad impact across the business and residential communities, results in numerous stakeholders with a keen interest in the future development of Bournemouth ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

In addition, tourism is vitally important to Bournemouth, improved by conferencing. The tourist trade continues to bring huge sums of money into the town annually, sustaining thousands of jobs, and marking it out as the country's premier resort. Business Tourism in Bournemouth has established a reputation as one of the leading conference destinations in the UK. Since its opening in 1984, the Bournemouth International Centre (BIC) is consistently ranked in the top six Conference Venues and together with the Pavilion Theatre and Ballroom, Pier Theatre and Winter Garden Theatre is able to host events of up to 10,000 delegates at any one time. This development of Bournemouth's Conference Industry has added a new dimension to the more traditional Leisure Tourist Industry and helps to provide a sustainable tourism product through out the year. Major conferences regularly include the high profile national political party events with their considerable media exposure to small local or regional business and special interest group conferences. In addition many of the larger local hotels have their own specialised conference and meeting facilities for those requiring less extensive but still high quality accommodation ([www.bournemouth.gov.uk](http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk)).

## 2.3 PART TWO-DESTINATION MARKETING: BOURNEMOUTH THE SEASIDE RESORT DESTINATION

### 2.3.1 Background Literature in Tourism Marketing

The importance of marketing is becoming widely recognized within the tourism industry. With the growth of the tourism phenomenon, tourism marketing was required in order to know the tourist needs and wants and this gave rise to tourism marketing research. In the literature of marketing, diverse academics have established various definitions of marketing. Kotler (2000), for example, argued that the definition is built on the main concepts of wants, needs, demands, satisfactions, marketing and marketers because they are central to the study of marketing. In addition, Lumsdon (1997) described tourism marketing as a managerial process of satisfying visitors wants and needs more effectively. On the other hand, Mercer (1992) described marketing as a philosophy, thus an organization produces nothing, which is not known to be consistent with customer tastes, habits and wants.

Many academics have examined tourism marketing in their studies. Laws (1991), for example, stated that when marketing tourism there are special characteristics which must be considered. Firstly, tourism is a service, defined as *“any task performed for another, or the provision of any facility or product or activity for another’s use, not ownership which arises from an exchange transaction”* (Laws, 1991, p.91), and thus must be marketed accordingly. Additionally, Ferrell and Hartline (2005) stated that there is a set of five underlying principles, which make the marketing of services more difficult than the marketing of industrial, or consumer goods which are the following: intangibility, perishability, heterogeneity, inseparability, and lack of ownership.

Middleton (1988) emphasised the fact that tourism will continue to be a valuable industry universally, and marketing will be an important area under discussion. Furthermore, according to Weichard (1992) travel marketers have to implement a proficient approach as a result of the increase in consumer expectations and sophistication. Also, Morrison (1989) stated that the nature of the travel experience focus on a variety of tourism marketing organizations. This includes local, visitor bureaus, travel offices and tourism development authorities, in terms of destination marketing organizations (DMOs).

According to Wintjen (2004), the evaluation of modern destination marketing organisations is described as a private sector of tourism organisation based on the tourism source markets. It explains how culture cooperation between competing, mainly small and medium tourism actors in long haul destinations, is cultivated overtime rather than installed by some technique. This culture of internal cooperation is always based on practical realities in the source markets that create the foundation for more effective destination promotion. It provides information to consumers, travel agencies, wholesalers and generalists, sending out information packaging.

According to Morrison (1989), the role of destination marketing organisations is to enhance the efficiency of the transaction between the travellers who desires to possess or to acquire information about goods and services and those offering goods and services to travellers. DMOs focused their activities on the promotion and diffusion of information about destination areas and on marketing communications; they also fulfil the primary leadership role in tourism market research.

Although there are many comprehensive sources in the literature as to how and why to build and implement a successful marketing plan, Kotler (2000) stated that there is a lack of successful marketing. This may be due, particularly in the case of tourism marketing, to the relatively short length of time in which marketing has been a guiding philosophy. The author added that promotion is one of the important elements in the marketing mix affecting competition in the tourism industry and is the most powerful tool available to tourism marketers. Yet its concepts in tourism and potential use within a marketing strategy must be fully understood in order for it to be successfully incorporated into an overall marketing plan.

### **2.3.2 Background Literature in Destination Marketing**

Destination marketing is increasingly becoming extremely competitive worldwide and researchers (see for example, Witt and Moutinho, 1995; Ward, 1998; Kotler et al, 2002) highlighted that there is now a consensus about the suitability of marketing for places and that places should be marketed as efficiently as firm's market products or services. It is now time for places to start to benefit from the best sophisticated marketing practices in the private sector. Destination marketing is a complex of not only the regulations of the tangible physical attributes, such as natural geography, built environment and attractions, accommodation and transport means, but also intangible social and cultural factors.

Many authors in the tourism area have considered the phenomenon of destination marketing but few have examined the destination marketing of a seaside resort. Buhalis (2000), for example, examined the destination concept and attempted to synthesise several models for strategic marketing and management of destinations. Riege and Perry (2000) focused on how national travel and tourism authorities can market a country as a tourist destination with particular reference to the marketing of Australia and New Zealand to target markets in Germany and the United Kingdom. Furthermore, Prideaux and Cooper (2002) examined the relationship between destination growth and destination marketing by investigating the relationship between destination marketing organisations and local government authorities.

Destination marketing covers all the activities and processes needed in order to bridge the gap between buyer and seller. Its focus is on the adaptation to the tourism demand. It represents continual levelled scope of activities directed towards successful distribution to high potential markets. According to Kotler et al (2006) destination marketing involves making decisions about products, brand, price, market segmentation, promotion and distribution. In addition, Sautter and Leisen (1999) stressed that destinations are some of the most difficult entities to manage and market, due to the complexity of the relationships of local stakeholders.

Ryan (1991) explained that companies and governments have applied only part of the marketing mix to tourism (i.e., promotion), with little attention being paid to the other components of marketing. Kotler et al (2002) highlighted that marketing a destination means designing a place to satisfy the needs of its target markets and it succeeds when

citizens and businesses are pleased with their community, and the expectations of visitors and investors are met. According to Cooper et al (2005) the public sector is included in the destination marketing through National Tourism Organisations (NTO), regional boards such as Destination Marketing Organisations (DMO) and the local authorities, but the growing trend emerged in the area where marketing agencies or advisory and visiting bureaus decide on the marketing for the cities. Such agencies obtain funds both from the public and private sector.

There is a significant and growing body of literature on place marketing with extends across several academic domains (see for example, Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Morgan and Prichard, 2002; Gnoth, 2002). Kotler and Gertner (2002), for example, highlighted that in place marketing, the place product must be adapted to fit the needs of place customers and the overall targets of a place can be reached only when this task has been fulfilled. The authors added that each place should define and communicate its special features and competitive advantages effectively and also that places must find ways to differentiate and position themselves for their target markets. Kotler et al (1999) emphasised that segmentation is a core task in the place marketing to decide about the targeted customers and the four main target markets of place marketing are visitors, residents and employees, business and industry and export markets. The visitors market consists of two broad groups, namely business and non-business visitors. Within these groups there are sub-target groups that need to be carefully prioritised.

According to Gold and Ward (1994), place marketing is not a new phenomenon, and like many marketing ideas, place marketing has its origins in the U.S.A. Already in the 1850s, place selling became a distinct feature of attracting settlers to the new frontier areas of the “Wild West”. British and French beach resorts were advertised intensively in the early 1900s, to attract tourists. Place marketing is used for multiple goals, such as to build a positive image for the place and attract enterprises, tourists, institutions and events. Kotler and Gertner (2002) emphasised that places need to attract tourists and companies as well as find markets for their exports, and this requires that places adopt strategic marketing management tools and conscious branding. Furthermore, Ryan (1991) suggested that if tourism is to survive by generating satisfaction among interacting tourists and hosts, it perhaps adopt societal marketing strategies. Consequently, this involves carefully monitoring tourist satisfaction levels and using these as part of the criteria for success, rather than increasing numbers of tourists, continually monitoring host reactions to tourists, and being aware that infrastructure development of tourism resort areas has implications for the types of tourists that will be attracted.

A number of academics (see for example, McQueen and Miller, 1985; Ahmed 1991; Prentice, 1992) suggested that for destination marketing to be effective the projected images should be directed towards specific requirements and other characteristics. Ahmed (1991) stressed that successful destination marketing depends largely on the way consumers perceive products and the marketing stimuli designed to promote the products. A strong and successful tourist image can increase consumer confidence in its tourist attractions and consumer predisposition to purchase them. According to

Kotler et al (2006) destination often focuses itself on all the marketing attempts, regardless of whether local, regional or national agency will take over the responsibility for its marketing.

The literature in tourism marketing research indicates potential explanations of why places promote distinctive images. Goodall (1991) suggested that places are relatively substitutable and that, in their competition for customers, they should build images around their unique benefits in order to give them a competitive advantage. In addition, places may attempt to reinforce the distinctiveness of their images by branding. As have been described later in this chapter, branding involves the frequent use of a specific name, symbol, logo, or design (or combination of these) in order to identify the place, to distinguish it from its competitors in a brief and easily assimilated way and to prompt tourists in their decision-making.

### **2.3.3 Promotional Materials in Destination Marketing**

Tourism marketing calls for more than developing a good product, pricing it attractively, and making it available to target customers. Middleton (1998) asserted that promotion is the most visible element in the marketing mix because advertising and other promotional tools are the primary means of communication with tourists in target markets. In the literature of tourism, marketing academics (see for example, Middleton, 1998; Runyard and French, 1999; Kotler, 1994) described that the most visible tourism marketing materials are those involved in the process of promotion, as its purpose is to create and increase awareness of a business products or services and involve communicating with prospective clients. In addition, promotion encompasses



the areas of personal selling, direct marketing, sales promotion, public relations, and advertising.

According to Witt and Moutinho (1995) promotion may be used alternatively to build up an overall brand image and contrasts with the concept of promoting a unique feature as the whole product is promoted as a range of common features. The authors stressed that brand images are common in tourism, especially in the promotions of hotel chains and package holiday companies, but may also be found in the imagery used to promote England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales by respective national tourist boards.

The promotional materials have been identified and examined in this research in order to identify the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote. Manfredo et al (1992) emphasised that in order to promote a destination, advertising is critical to destination marketing and large amounts of time and money are invested in it. In addition, Jenkins (1999) stated that photographs are considered paramount to destination advertising strategy as evidence by their extensive use. Also, MacInnis and Price (1987) described that pictures are an established means for inducing imagery and Okoroafo (1989) stated that pictures can affect tourists through the recreation of expectations and the desire for image verification for destinations that strive to produce memorable advertisements.

Brochures are another promotional material that they offer tourists a tangible experience of the destination with practical information, imaginary descriptions and glossy images. Wicks and Schutt (1991) demonstrated that brochures are a key representation of the destination under consideration and are used for comparison

shopping by potential tourists. In addition, Markland (2003) highlighted that brochures can act as a lure for those undecided upon their holiday destination and they are more often used after a destination has been decided upon for prices, comparison-shopping, getting in the holiday mood and even as souvenirs. Furthermore, Weaver and Lawton (2002) stressed that brochures tend to be most influential with first-time travellers to the destination than those that have already had experience with it and thus there is the potential for destinations marketers to tailor brochures to diverse segmentations.

Another promotional material is the video brochure, which allows a richer communication of information through audio and emotive moving images. Hanefors and Larsson (1993) stated that although the intention for most of these videos is to assist in pre-trip planning, they are often more influential as inspirational tools and for post-trip sharing with others. Furthermore advertising such as newspapers, magazines, television and radio offer a wide range of communication channels and tactics to the destination marketer. Within these channels there are the strategic options of promotion via public relations, each with their own strengths. Getz and Sailor (1993) emphasised that advertising is used by destinations for image building campaigns and it does allow tourists to glimpse a destination's image and it is ideal for practical information such as pricing and the latest deals.

Moreover there are several routes to destination promotion on television such as commercials, non-travel related programs and travel programs. Commercials most often conducted for international tourists on a national destination level and non-travel related programs refer to the use of a destination in a program, documentary, movie or

serial as a location. Riley (1994) argued that using movies or serials to promote a destination is more powerful than brochures due to the viewer's heightened involvement with the content and undivided attention. Reeves (2004) stated that using movies to promote a destination has proved beneficial for some locations, for example, Australia has benefited a number of times over the years from movies such as *Crocodile Dundee* and *Priscilla: Queen of the Desert*. Similarly, Middleton (2001) estimated that *Braveheart*, *Rob Roy* and *Loch Ness* have generated £7-15 million in additional visitor spending in Scotland.

In addition, Morgan et al (2002) highlighted that travel programs such as *The Great Outdoors*, *Getaway* and *Postcards WA* in Australia or *Holiday* on the BBC are viewed by a range of people and they present destinations almost in guidebook format such as a dash of history and cultural background, activities to do while there, where to stay and estimated costs for flights and accommodation. The authors added that the travel channels in the UK such as the *TVTravel Shop*, *Thomas Cook TV* and the *Travel Channel* are more promotion driven and broadcast segments on various destinations, package tours and resorts with the aim of making a sale.

The Internet and the World Wide Web is a significant promotional material for tourism destinations. Due to the limitless amount of websites, a range of information types are accessible including destination websites by government agencies or destination marketing organisations, guidebook based sites, personal accounts by other travellers, on-line travel agencies, local tourist business websites, airlines and even chat rooms or forums where travellers can post advice, questions and experiences. With such a plethora of information options available, potential travellers

have the ability to gain a well-rounded picture of a destination. Sheldon (1993) highlighted that the internet is becoming increasingly important as a destination-marketing tool for tourism organizations, including state tourism offices and national tourist organisations (NTOs). Markland (2003) stated that the internet is a direct competitor of other distribution channels such as travel agents and tour operators and Weaver and Lawton (2002) stressed that from a marketer's point of view, the internet's low entry costs are making it also a very attractive advertising medium rivalling television and print media. Furthermore, Briggs (2001) highlighted that tourism and attraction companies can experience several benefits by promoting on the internet such as to reach a large audience, opportunity to sell at the last minute, promotion and sales outlet combined, open all hours, clarity of message, interactive means more memorable, reduced costs, collaboration made easier and good for market research. Additionally, Govers and Go (2003) highlighted that websites provide a prominent information channel for destination marketing.

The role of promotion is to convince potential customers of the benefits of purchasing or using the products and services of a particular organisation. The creation of a special identity for a destination is similar to the process followed for simple products, but much more complex and multilateral. Weaver and Lawton (2002) emphasised that destinations include so many industries, businesses and areas of interest that it is almost impossible to come up with a single identity but to make it successful only a few of the existing social and cultural symbols of the destination must be chosen. The authors added that a very complex identity would not make sense and only a few points of interest must be promoted.

The premier example of successful promotion has been the I Love New York (ILNY) campaign. New York State was the first US state to diversify from using just brochures and start using television advertisements. The basic advertising can communicate something in general about the tourist attraction/destination, or specific events or characteristics. After the success of the ILNY campaign, for example, other destinations have started their own general slogans, such as “*Indiana has it all*”, “*You’ve got a friend in Pa*”, “*Escape to Wisconsin*”, and more successful examples are those of Philadelphia “*The Place That Loves You Back*”, Tacoma “*America’s No.1 Wired City*”, London “*London First*”, Singapore “*Uniquely Singapore*”, and the advertising campaign of the Greek Tourism Organisation concerning Greece “*Live Your Myth in Greece*” (Witt and Moutinho, 1995, p.546).

Moreover, one of the most important components of early resort advertising campaign in Britain was the slogan. In the few words which preceded or followed the resort’s name on posters, in press advertisements and in brochure, it was possible to suggest the essence of a place, its appeal and its main market. In Britain slogans were commonly used on posters and in brochure titles. Some resorts managed more distinctiveness than others, thus Southport’s long time slogan “*The Seaside Garden City*” suggested sedateness and “*Dr Brighton*” retained the traditional sense of a genteel health resort (Cole and Durack, 1992, p.7). In other cases there were more literal attempts to represent a resort’s physical character, such as “*Hornsea-Lake-land by the Sea*” (Cole and Durack, 1992, p.7) and also there were made exotic foreign comparisons such as “*Torquay: The English Riviera*” (Wilson, 1987, p.33). Other slogans involved emphasising a place’s historic or literary associations, though this

was an approach more commonly applied to historic towns such as Stratford-upon-Avon or Oxford than seaside resorts. This research identified the positive slogans which the seaside resort of Bournemouth used in order to advertise its essence, its appeal and its main market.

#### **2.3.4 Marketing the Seaside Resort Destination**

Marketing a seaside resort as a destination involves many diverse considerations and this is because a seaside resort has a wealth of public and private sector ventures which will rely on the success of the whole resort as a tourist destination. In an attempt to promote and disseminate information on a destination, most have destination marketing organisations (DMOs) as part of a local government department or sometimes a public/private venture. These organisations are essentially coordinators that attempt to promote a destination's stakeholders' interests under a unified banner or a brand so as to build and maintain tourists markets-domestic and international (see more detailed outlines of DMO roles in Table 2.1). Thus, to promote a seaside resort destination, the DMO may employ advertising, public relations, sales promotions and personal selling strategies. These may be achieved through activities like producing destination brochures, advertising campaigns, attending trade shows, building distribution networks and industry relationships and press releases.

**Table 2.1: Roles of destination marketing organisations (DMOs).**

World Tourism Organisation	Jefferson and Lickorish (1991)	Weaver and Lawton (2002)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Identify markets and target audiences</li><li>• Communicate with markets and audiences</li><li>• Improve visitor numbers</li><li>• Promote destination image</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Act as guardian of destination’s image</li><li>• Set the scene via research into demand factors</li><li>• Blaze the trail in developing new markets</li><li>• Co-ordinate the marketing</li><li>• Monitor visitor satisfaction</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Promotion</li><li>• Research</li><li>• Co-ordination of tourism industry</li><li>• Provide tourist information</li></ul>

**Source:** Adapted from Seaton and Bennett (1996).

According to Kelly and Nankervis (2001), promotional activities in marketing a seaside resort destination often have two main target audiences’ potential travelers and influencers. Thus, when marketing to potential individual travelers, the DMO employs long-term strategies and while they do promote special offers/events their main focus is on building the image or brand of the destination so as to increase awareness and appeal to target markets.

Dann (1996) stated that for the DMO image is in part an economic decision (as funds are often limited) as well as a strategic decision. The destination image allows the DMO to essentially present the personality of the destination to potential travelers who then combine it with their own knowledge to create a personalised picture of the destination with relevant implications. This then, act as a very powerful factor in travellers’ holiday decision-making process. The DMO may action the promotion of the image through brand advertising, consumer trade shows, press releases and production of promotional destination material such as brochures and websites.

According to Weaver and Lawton (2002) when marketing to influencers, such as the media, travel agents and tour operators, typical promotional efforts look to educate and impress, which in turn aims to simplify the selling-on of the destination to their respective audiences. While the promotional tools used for individual tourists spill over to communicate with influencers, there are number of special tactics used, for example, these include industry trade shows, hosting of television programmes, familiarisation tours and press relations.

In addition, Dickman (1999) stressed that those marketing a seaside resort as a destination area must be aware of the spending patterns of the different types of tourists present, and bear in mind, which sections of the surrounding community benefit from each type. Laws (1995) emphasised that success for marketers of a seaside resort destination depends on attracting sufficient temporary visitors to provide the economic demand needed by all the area's tourism businesses, and crucially, ensuring that visitors are satisfied with their experiences.

## **2.4 PART THREE-BRANDING A TOURISM DESTINATION**

### **2.4.1 Definitions and Concepts of Brands**

Macrae and Uncles (1997) declared that brands and the study of them have become considerably more complex. Brands have become much more than the products or services they sell. Jones and Slater (2003) stressed that a true brand fulfils the real or perceived needs of customers. A brand is a distinctive symbol which identifies a



product or service, or a set of products, and which differentiates it from its competitors. The most commonly cited definitions of brands are from the supply perspective, and are usually variations of the following: *“A brand is a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as a logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods from those of competitors”* (Aaker, 1991, p.7).

However, it is important to recognise that such public symbols are part of a broader brand construct, which also includes a demand-side perspective. Aaker (1996) conceptualised a brand as consisting of a brand identity and a brand image. On the supply side, brand identity represents the aspired self image. This has an internal focus, and is used to guide and motivate those within an organisation by articulating the brand’s vision, values, and essence or personality. On the demand side, brand image is the actual image held in the minds of consumers.

Simões and Dibb (2001) highlighted that the brand is more than a name given to a product. The authors added that the brand embodies a whole set of physical and socio-psychological attributes and beliefs and it is built around the company’s reputation for efficient service, consistent offering and quality. All of these characteristics impact upon consumers’ perceptions of the brand and the meaning they attribute to it. Ultimately, Doyle (1994) stated that brand perceptions affect consumers’ buying decisions and Elliot and Wattanasuwan (1998) emphasised that in post-modern consumer culture brands play a vital role in the construction of consumer identity.

Both practitioners and academics have devised models of the elements constituting a brand, thus, Table 2.2 gives examples of some of the most recently published models. In selecting these examples a broad definition of the term “model” adopted, i.e. as a simplified representation of reality, incorporating the sub-set of elements deemed to be the most critical. The models in Table 2.2 vary widely due to the critical elements constituting brands; the importance ascribed to either the tangible or intangible elements of the brand; the weights attributed to specific elements within each model and finally the extent to which the authors discuss the relationship between the elements.

**Table 2.2: Models of the brand**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Tangible and visual elements</b>	<b>Intangible elements</b>
Aaker (1992)	Symbols and slogans	Identity, corporate brand Integrated communications Customer relationships
Bailey and Schechter (1994)	Name, logo, colours, brand-mark, plus advertising slogan	
Biggar and Selame (1992)	Name, trademark	Positioning Brand communications
De Chernatony (1993)	Functional capabilities, name, legal protection	Symbolic value, service, sign of ownership, shorthand notation
de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989)	Functionality	Representationality
Dyson et al., (1996)	Presence and performance	Relevance, advantage, bond
Grossman (1994)	Distinctive name, logotype, graphics and physical design	
Kapferer (1992)	Physique	Personality, relationship, culture, self-image
O'Malley (1991)	Functional values	Social and personal values
Young and Rubicam (1994)	Differentiation	Relevance, esteem and familiarity

**Source:** Adapted from de Chernatony and Dall'Omo Riley (1998)

At one end of the spectrum, for example, Bailey and Schechter's (1994) and Grossman's (1994) models were quite simplified representations of the brand and they

refer solely to the tangible, visual elements of the name, logo and product design as the components of a brand, without much discussion of deeper relationships in the structure of the brand system. At the opposite end of the spectrum, Kapferer (1992) predominately stressed emotional and representational components, noting that physique forms only the first stage in brand building. The intangible or symbolic elements in Kapferer's model referred to the beliefs and meanings created in the minds of consumers by the brand's marketer through a mix of media and non-media elements. These symbolic elements included the brand's personality; the way brands reinforce consumers' self images and brands' abilities to represent consumers to others.

#### **2.4.2 An Introduction to Tourism Branding**

Before looking more closely at the branding of a tourism destination, it may be worthwhile to first have a look at the historical roots of creating brands. Branding started at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in order to generate heterogeneous images for homogenous goods such as flour, milk, butter, sugar, and the like. Therefore, the use of brand names, logotypes and a respective packaging in connection with a guarantee of consistent product quality helped to form customer preference and loyalty, thus enabling makers to ask higher prices for the produce (Mundt, 2004).

Researchers as Weber and Tomljenovic (2004) explained that branding can be seen as helpful to the consumers who can reduce their efforts when evaluating different offers by developing a preference for particular brands. Hence, as long as they are content with what they get, they are happy to pay a premium both for the perceived quality

and for the time they save in the decision making process. Branding requires a continuous updating knowledge about the ever changing expectations consumers develop over time without substantial and constant investments in market research and companies will lose pace with the developing needs of their clientele and that of prospective consumers. Depending on the product they offer the focus can be either on the acceptance and expectation of technical developments or in the creation of an image that corresponds to the needs and imaginations of consumers. As a result of all the above managers in the tourism industries want to take advantage of branding-strategies.

By adopting a more strategic approach to their branding activities, organisations and in this research tourism organisations can ensure that they are better able to deal with fluctuating environmental and market forces. Simões and Dibb (2001) emphasised that in order to enhance their competitiveness, businesses need to create unique features that distinguish their offerings from those of their competitors. Therefore by creating a brand that is centred on these offerings, the organisation makes a statement about what consumers can expect.

However, this is not enough for organisations and they must also deal with other environmental dimensions that add complexity to the company's activity. Increasing competition, the rising number of mergers and acquisitions, the characteristics of diverse publics, and the power of the media and public opinion can all make it difficult to communicate with consumers. In order to handle these dynamics, a tourism organisation and in this research a seaside resort destination must attempt to create its own individuality and distinctive features that will distinguish them among

the various environmental publics. The dilemma for tourism authorities is how to respond to image perception, or more importantly, how to create an appropriate image, which is both appealing yet truthful in content and style. Consequently, some destinations have chosen to use branding as a technique to communicate an image. More detailed concepts of destination image as well as the role of branding in image formation discussed later in this chapter.

### **2.4.3 Background Literature in Destination Branding**

The topic of branding first appeared in the marketing literature fifty years ago (see for example, Banks, 1950; Gardner and Levy, 1955). However, most of the literature on brand theory and practise has only been published since 1991 (see for example, Aaker, 1996; McEnally and de Chernatony, 1999; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Keller and Lehmann, 2003). While works such as these provide a valuable resource for consumer goods marketers, the topic of tourism destination branding did not appear in the literature until the late 1990s (see for example, Gnoth 1998; Ritchie and Ritchie 1998).

Although, there is a significant and growing body of literature on brands and branding (see for example, de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Wood, 2000; Louro and Cunha, 2001), destination branding has also received considerable attention over the past two decades in both the marketing press and the academic literature. Furthermore, a wide range of studies have been explored such as comparisons between branding a product /service and destinations / cities (see for example, Gnoth, 2002; Cai, 2002; Parkerson and Saunders, 2005; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005);

comparison between corporate branding and city brands (Olins, 2002 ; Trueman et al., 2004 ; Kavaratzis, 2004); similarity to corporate umbrella branding (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002; Gnoth, 2002); impressions between place branding and (re)positioning (Gilmore, 2002); image building and reconstruction (Curtis, 2001 ; Hall, 2002); the importance of unique identity and use of branding elements (Cai, 2002 ); and the role of emotional links with consumers (Hall, 2002 ; Gilmore, 2002).

It is interesting to see that the literature on '*place branding*' normally only refers to '*traditional*' destinations and the examples given for successful and less successful branding are arbitrary and without any proof. Accordingly, Ryan's (2002) article on the branding of cities and regions is a more general description of tourism development and the role of the government in New Zealand in the 1990s and has almost nothing to do with branding. The case of Wales by Pride (2002) is less about the branding of a nation but about a rather successful tourism advertising campaign in order to contribute to an image change of this British region. The same is true for the case study on Western Australia by Crocket and Wood (2002). Most of these, like the ones on Louisiana by Slater (2002) and Australia by Brown et al (2002) a couple of years ago before talking of destination brands became fashionable, would have seen as more or less interesting examples of image campaigns.

According to Ashworth (1991) place branding is actually the application of trademarks on destinations. A direct, insisting and convincing objection to this is that destinations are too complex to be treated as simple products, and thus logos for cities or seaside resorts as in this research, as well as place marketing in general, are impossible, since cities or seaside resorts are not products, governments are not

producers and their users are not customers. However, according to Ashworth (2004), the use of brand names for cities or seaside resorts destinations is not only possible, but it has been practiced since seaside resorts or cities have been competing with each other for trade, residents, wealth, prestige and power. The author stated that adopting a brand could provide a product with a certain and special identity, which is exactly the objective of place marketing. Also the integration of place images using a brand identity may also build confidence in an area by contributing to a tone of planned cohesiveness in its marketing. Furthermore, Prideaux and Cooper (2002) claimed that the destination brand is a positive outcome of the achievement of unity and collaboration among stakeholders. Therefore, the understanding of the process of destination branding requires the comprehension of how different stakeholders carry different and compromise different interests within this process.

Marketing has therefore proven to be an important factor for the ultimate success of a destination but marketing theory itself is not sufficient to fully explain destination branding. The theoretical foundations that contribute to the development of the construct of destination branding can be found in a long tradition of product and service marketing literature around the concept of image formation and branding that discussed later in this chapter (see for example Aaker, 1989; Aaker and Keller, 1990; Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1996; Percy et al., 2001; Keller and Lehmann, 2003).

#### **2.4.4 Places as Brands**

Branding destinations is more complex and challenging than other goods and services, thus, destinations are far more multidimensional than consumer goods and other types

of services. Branding a destination usually includes a brand name, symbols such as a logo and a slogan. The latter is a short phrase that communicates either descriptive or persuasive information about the brand (Keller, 2003). It could be argued that slogans will be limited in what they can achieve, since they are one of the components of a wider destination promotion strategy. Slogans are commonly used by destinations which are surely an indication they are considered important. Since the 1990s there have been a number of academic case study collaborations on destination brand development published (see for example, Crockett and Wood, 1999; Curtis, 2001; Pride, 2002; Morgan et al., 2002). However, to date there has been little discussion on brand positioning slogans in order to guide destination marketing organisations (DMOs).

Representative of both a 'group of sellers' and a host community all DMOs face a number of constraints and challenges that add to the already complex process of product branding. Morgan et al (2002) highlighted that there are three primary challenges faced by DMOs in designing destination positioning themes. First, destinations are multi-attributed entities, containing an often eclectic range of features, including commercial businesses, natural attractions and the host population. Somehow, a succinct positioning theme must be developed that encapsulates the community's sense of place, as well as the tourism industry's view of the visitor experience, into a message that will be meaningful to travellers. The DMO has no direct control over the individual components of the destination community and therefore no role in the actual delivery of the brand promise. Second, DMOs operate in a multitude of markets of interest to members of the local tourism industry and travel intermediaries. These consumer travel markets are heterogeneous and dynamic



and one positioning theme may not be meaningful over time to each of the multiplicity of market segments of interest. Third, DMO decision making takes place within a political context. DMOs are increasingly governed by public-private partnerships and face considerable political pressure in decision making at various levels. Therefore it cannot be assumed that all destination positioning is developed through a process grounded in some holistic, theoretical and systematic foundation.

Pearce (1988, p.168) proposed there can be much commonality in promotional descriptions of destinations: *“There is an international language of tourism advertising which promotes similar sorts of images for widely different destinations”*. The author stressed that what would be helpful for stakeholders in improving the development of effective destination slogans is a generally accepted set of global standards against which a DMOs marketing manager, advertising agencies and political appointees could be held accountable.

Pike (2005) suggested that reaching the minds of consumers requires a succinct message focusing on one or a few brand associations. Consequently this challenge is highlighted in the development of a slogan that summarises a destination’s diverse and often eclectic range of natural resources, built attractions, culture, activities, amenities and accommodation. This is often reflected in slogans that appear to attempt to cover everything such as *“Kenya-creation’s most beautiful destinations, all in one country”* and *“Ohio-so much to discover”* (Pike, 2005, p.258), and rarely does a destination achieve a focused slogan such as *“Arizona-Grand Canyon State”* or *“Snowy Mountains-Australia’s high country”* (Pike, 2005, p.259).

In addition, the market interests of the diverse group of active stakeholders are heterogeneous and DMOs are forced into targeting a multiplicity of geographic markets to attract a wide range of segments for their range of products such as the following slogans “*Idaho-great potatoes, tasty destinations*” and “*Slovenia-the grown place of Europe*” (Pike, 2005, p.259). Furthermore, Curtis (2001) emphasised that the issues of who decides the brand theme and how they are held accountable are critical and reliant on government funding and DMOs are evolving into public-private partnerships.

For the majority of places, a slogan is a necessary public communication of a destination’s brand positioning strategy. Places are becoming increasingly substitutable and difficult to differentiate, and a slogan provides the link between the brand identities aspired to by DMOs and the actual brand image held in the market. There have been many criticisms of destination slogans over the years, best summed up in Gold and Ward’s (1994) suggestion that they fail to achieve anything other than brief indifference. In other words, they are likely to be short lived and not effectively differentiate. Successful slogans are those of New York (“*I LOVE NY*”, “*The City That Never Sleeps*”), Philadelphia (“*The Place That Loves you Back*”), San Francisco (“*The City by the Bay*”), London (“*London First*”) and Singapore (“*Uniquely Singapore*”) (see for example, Gardyn, 2002; Nayyar, 2002). In other words, the slogans are unlikely to meaningfully differentiate the destinations over time.

Moreover, a promotional campaign will help in raising the status of the destination and consequently British tourist boards use promotional campaigns widely as for example the creation of “*Beautiful Berkshire*”, initiated by the Thames and Chilterns

Tourist Board. The “*Great British City Break*” campaign launched in 1988, created memorable associations for a consortium of thirteen cities; such as Sir Walter Raleigh with Plymouth, Lady Godiva with Coventry, Robin Hood with Nottingham and Shakespeare with South Warwickshire. Each of these associations was an attempt to bring the unique qualities of each city to the forefront of its reputation (Ashworth and Goodall, 1990).

In addition to campaigns, flagship projects can play a functional role in creating an image and an identity for a seaside resort destination, as well as its marketing. Thus investing in prestigious constructions/landmarks is a promotional tool and a tool for image marketing used both by public and private investors (Temelova, 2004). As an illustration, the most well known case of this kind within Europe is the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao. In Spain there is also the church of Sagrada Familia by Gaudi in Barcelona, together with many constructions of Santiago Calatrava in various cities such as Barcelona and Seville. Similar projects can be found in many European countries as well as seaside resorts and a special case of flagships are the multiplexes (Deffner, 2005). Hence, flagship projects gather functions such as communication, knowledge exchange, high-technology, advanced services and, culture which seem to be important for the mode in which the world operates nowadays. At the same time as to the architectural attributes, the visual distinctiveness in local setting seems to be one of the more pervasive characteristics of selected high profile structures (Temelova, 2004).

Moreover, mega-event hosting is another promotional strategy of a place and there are two basic reasons for engaging in this process. The first is that local authorities deal

with mega-events in strategic terms, pursuing opportunities for regional, national or even international promotion at low cost. Even just bidding for the Olympic Games, for example, can provide promotion by the media. Besides that, the strategic of mega-event hosting provides a definite time line for constructing the projects. The second reason is that mega-event hosting can boost tourism development. Thus, for seaside resorts destinations that seek to be competitive, this rationale supports the trend for consumer-based development, which presupposes funding of a tourist friendly landscape (Andranovich et al., 2001).

Places with large budgets have succeeded in developing positive brand images linked, for example, to attributes such as heritage and history, the character of the local people, associations with famous people, and international place status. In particular, the development of positive brand images such as these has led to the successful transformation of several post-industrial cities, such as New York and Glasgow, into vibrant leisure and business tourism destinations (Ward, 1998). This study uncovered the brand image attributes of the seaside resort of Bournemouth in order to illustrate the development of it's' brand image.

## **2.5 PART FOUR-CONCEPTS OF DESTINATION IMAGE**

### **2.5.1 Introduction to Destination Image**

The concept of destination image has attracted tourism studies attention for over twenty years, resulting in a rich body of literature. Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977) defined a destination image as the expression of all knowledge, impressions,

prejudices, and emotional thoughts an individual or group has of a particular object or place. Moreover, Crompton (1970) and Hunt (1975) defined tourist images as impressions held about a destination or they further distinguished places images from place identities. In addition, Gartner (1993) and Dann (1994) defined a destination image as the aggregate sum of beliefs, ideas, impressions, and expectations that a tourist has about a destination area.

According to Kotler et al. (1993) a city's image is made up of knowledge, mental pictures, and experiences possessed by people outside the city. As competition between destinations increases, cities add to their appeal by accentuating their own images' positive features and characteristics. Moreover, Seaton and Bennett (1996) emphasised that destination image is the sum of ideas and impressions that a tourist prospect holds about a destination. It may include information about its geography, people, infrastructure, climate, cost, and history, as well as evaluations of attractiveness and safety.

According to Gartner (1986), people's perceptions of various attributes within a destination will interact to form a composite or overall image of that destination. An important issue in destination image is to delineate the relationship between overall image and other components of image such as cognitive, affective and conative, together with a fact that the overall perception may be favourable or unfavourable. As research has demonstrated, there is a clear relationship between positive perceptions of destinations and positive purchase decisions (see for example, Goodrich, 1978a; Pearce, 1982; Woodside and Lyonski, 1989). Therefore destination image is an important determinant of tourist buying behaviour. Although these perceptions may

not be based on fact or first-hand experience, they nevertheless exert a vital influence on a potential tourist's decision to visit a destination, whereas negative images, even if unjustified, will deter potential tourists and result in a non-purchase decision. According to Selby and Morgan (1996) discrepancies can arise from distorted images held by the tourist or from a failure to meet expectations on the part of the destination.

### 2.5.2 Components of Destination Image

As researchers stated perceptual or cognitive evaluation refers to beliefs and knowledge about an object whereas affective refers to feelings about it (see for example; Ward and Russel, 1981; Gartner, 1993; Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993). People develop both cognitive and affective responses and attachments to environments and places (Proshonsky et al., 1983).

Moreover, the perceptual/cognitive component is the knowledge about the place's objective attributes whereas the affective counterpart is knowledge about its affective quality (Genereux et al., 1983). Hanyu (1993, p.161) suggested that *"affective meaning refers to the appraisal of the affective quality of environments while perceptual/cognitive quality refers to the appraisal of physical features of environments"*.

Gartner (1993) and Dann (1994) classified and analysed three different but interrelated components of the tourist image: cognitive, affective and conative. The cognitive component is conceptualised as the sum of beliefs and the individual's evaluations of destination attributes. The affective component refers to the value the

individuals place on destinations based on travel benefits (motives) they seek. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) added that since affective images are concerned with how individuals feel about various places, people with different motives may feel about or value a destination similarly if they perceive that the destination provides the benefits they seek.

Affective images also play a significant role in person-environment interactions and spatial behaviour models. Russel and Snodgrass (1987) examined and conceptualised emotional disposition, mood and affective appraisal of environments by using a person-environment interaction framework consisting of four stages: first, before entering environment (or anticipation), second, travel to the environment, third, activities in the environment, and fourth, after effects. According to Russel and Snodgrass (1987), people develop affective appraisals or an affective quality of a place before entering the environment, in the environment, and after leaving the environment.

The conative image component is analogous to behaviour because it is the action component. After all internal and external information is processed a decision is reached and one destination from the decision is selected. The conative component's relationship to the other two components is direct thus it depends on the images developed during the cognitive stage and evaluated during the affective stage (Gartner, 1993).

### 2.5.3 An Introduction to Destination Image Research

Since its beginning in the early 1970s, the conceptual delimitation of destination image has remained an area of preferred study. As pointed out by Echtner and Ritchie (1991) in their review of the meaning of destination image, there are almost as many definitions of image as analysts dedicated to its conceptualisation (see for example, Crompton, 1979; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Kotler et al, 1993). Research in the past decades has demonstrated that image is an important concept in understanding the destination selection process of tourists and this importance has led to the ever-increasing body of research on the tourism destination image (see for example; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Gallarza et al, 2002).

Gartner (1989) pointed out that the way tourists perceive travel destinations has a basic influence on their travel decisions. Faced with a great variety of competing destinations, the traveller is likely to choose the destination with the most favourable image. Therefore, Leisen (2001) stressed that for destination marketers the most significant aspect of an image is its influence on travel behaviour. Gallarza et al (2002) stated that investigation has been normally based on either effective destination positioning or on the destination selection process. According to Font (1997), an effective destination image positioning strategy will lead to favourable differentiation from competition.

Referring to the destination selection process, many researchers (see for example, Pearce, 1982; Woodside and Lyonski, 1989) have demonstrated that there is a



positive relationship between perceptions of destination and decision-making. A positive image, for example, seems to motivate travel to the given destinations by promising positive rewards from travelling there. Hunt (1975) has made the point that images of destination may have as much as, or more, to do with an area's tourist image projection than the more tangible recreation resources. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) have extensively surveyed and documented destination image literature. They have concluded that image is one of the most important components of product positioning and that an effective positioning strategy is essential for marketing tourism products.

Although destination image has received an impressive amount of study over the last years (see for example, Hunt, 1975; Goodrich, 1978b; Gardner, 1989; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Selby and Morgan, 1996; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), there is still no consensus on the process and nature of destination image formation and thus the concept and dimensions of tourism destination image still require a better understanding.

#### **2.5.4 Background Literature in Tourism Destination Image**

Gunn (1988) was one of the first to identify the different ways in which images are formed and argued that images are formed through induced and organic agents. The author indicated that people hold an organic image of a destination based upon their assimilation of information gleaned from secondary sources, such as newspapers, periodicals, books, films etc. A second, higher level of tourist image is derived from a destination's conscious effort to develop, promote and advertise its product and

commits considerable efforts and funds toward enhancing its image and attractiveness among travellers. Therefore, induced images emanate from the destination area and are a function of the proactive marketing efforts of destination promoters. This research identified the induced images of Bournemouth as discussed later in chapters five and six.

Milman and Pizam (1995) have indicated that destination image is the visual or mental impression of a place held by the general public. This recognises that different consumers will have different images, influenced by their progression through three stages of awareness: (1) no awareness, (2) awareness and (3) familiarity through trial. Their conclusions from research were that familiarity with the destination resulted in a more positive image, while, to their surprise, awareness versus non-awareness failed to correlate.

Crompton (1979), in a study of the image of Mexico as a potential vacation destination for US residents, found that ideal holiday destination images are actual images of Mexico differed considerably. Negative image attributes to emerge from a comparison of Mexico's actual and ideal destination image related primarily to sanitation and safety, whereas more positive attributes related to climate and low cost. The author also reported that the further away respondents resided from Mexico, the more favourable were their images of that country as a vacation destination. Finally, he concluded that the greater the gap between actual and ideal images, the less likelihood there is that an individual will opt to visit this destination.

Low (1978), in a study of visitors to Phoenix, Arizona, found that the most important variable in any decision to return in the future was the visitor's image of the friendliness of the residents. Thus the decision to return was not so much influenced by images of the area's facilities and attributes nor visitor's place of origin or distance from origin, but by the friendliness of the local population in the estimation of the visitor. Ahmed (1996) also noted that tourist image of a destination is an important factor responsible for its popularity and that identification of the different attributes of the image might provide important information that can be used in developing promotion strategies. Because of the increasing competition, it's better for tourism marketers to have accurate information about destination image.

Kotler et al (1993) noted that while some destinations enjoy a positive image (for example a famous resort) and others suffer a negative image (for example a destination from a war crisis), most have a mixed image, a conglomeration of positive and negative elements. The authors indicated, however, that a place neither has to correct all of its weaknesses nor emphasise all of its strengths, as not all attributes are viewed as equally important. Instead, they suggested that a destination promoter understand those attribute strengths and weaknesses most likely to affect the perceptions and behaviours of its target market.

## 2.6 PART FIVE- DESTINATION IMAGE FORMATION PROCESS

### 2.6.1 Process of Image Formation

Image has emerged as a crucial marketing concept in the tourism industry. In the tourism field, image research has reflected several different perspectives. These include the relationship of image to destination choice (see for example, Mayo and Jarvis, 1981; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991), the image formation process (see for example, Gunn, 1972; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), image modification and change (see for example, Pearce, 1982; Chon, 1990), and image measurement (see for example, Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Gartner, 1993).

Little empirical research has focused on how image is actually formed, especially in the absence of previous experience with a destination. This suggests that most studies have largely focused on its static structure by examining the relationship between image and behaviour, but not in its dynamic nature by investigating the influences on its structure and formation in the absence of actual visitation. This research addressed the formation of Bournemouth's projected image and identified the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers used to advance the projected image.

Several researchers have suggested different frameworks for understanding the process of image formation (see for example, Gunn, 1972; Crompton, 1979; Gartner, 1993). Gunn (1972), one of the first researchers to conceptualise the image formation process, separated this process into two types: organic and induced images. The

former are formed from sources not directly associated with tourism interests, such as newspaper reports and movies; induced images derive from the conscious effort of marketers to develop, promote and advertise their destinations. In addition, Crompton (1979) emphasised that image formation models typically correspond to either person-determined (organic) or destination-determined (induced) image. Person-determined image reflects the individual differences in information processing and interpretation, whereas destination-determined reflects the actuality of the destination.

Gartner (1993) proposed a typology of eight image formation agents relating to degree of control by the promoter and credibility with the target market. They are overt induced I agent (referring to traditional forms of advertising); overt induced II agent (information received from tour operators); covert induced I agent (secondary-party endorsement of products through traditional forms of advertising); covert induced II agent (secondary-party endorsement through unbiased reports such as newspaper articles); autonomous agent (news and popular culture); unsolicited organic agent (unsolicited information received from friends and relatives); solicited organic agent (solicited information received from friends and relatives); and organic agent (actual visitation) (Gartner, 1993).

The four “induced” categories are within greater control of destination marketing organisations. For example, MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) highlighted that traditional consumer advertising by destinations, overt induced I, is the most highly controlled but the lowest in audience credibility. Credibility is increased somewhat by use of a celebrity spokesperson (covert induced I) in destination advertisements. Information provided by the travel trade is representative of overt induced II. The

source of much of this information is a destination, so control is medium and credibility is enhanced through the middle party. Familiarization tours, organised by a destination marketing organisation for travel media and sponsors, are included in the covert induced category II.

In addition, MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) stated that autonomous image formation agents are authoritative and credible. They consist of news and popular culture, widely received sources beyond the destination's control that can swiftly create and change an image. Unsolicited and solicited organic image formation categories refer to information requested from unbiased sources, and information given by knowledgeable others, respectively. Finally, organic image formation is based on past experience with the destination and it is the most credible.

Gartner (1993) argued that image formation agents differentially affect formation of mental destination images and therefore have important implications for creation and change of image by destination marketers. According to Gunn (1972), the initial image formation stage before the trip is the most important phase in tourists' destination selection processes. As noted by Brokaw (1990, p.32) "*before image can be used to influence behaviour, it is important to understand what influences image*". Goodall (1991) noted that knowing factors influencing it would help identify target markets and decide which image should be promoted to which segment of the market. In addition, Hunt (1975) showed that destination image formation is determined partly by distance from the destination, because people are more likely to have visited the destinations near their homes and to have been exposed to information about them through the media and from friends and relatives. The author concluded that people

are likely to have stronger and more realistic images of a destination if it is near their home.

Hunt (1975) suggested that distance from a region may be an important ingredient in image formation. In a study of a four-stage tourist region of the Rocky Mountains, Hunt (1975) found respondents who resided further from this region did not differentiate areas within the region as well as those respondents from closer areas. Images of holiday destinations also seem to change over time as the result of experience. Furthermore, Gartner (1986) found that the image of a region, in this instance Utah in the US, demonstrated some perceptual change even over a short-term period. The author argued that much research has yet to be done in this area, particularly in the area of perceptual change over time in regard to destination image. Moreover, Pearce (1982) found that perceptual change also takes place after experiencing various destinations. The author found evidence that tourists visiting destinations such as Greece and Morocco underwent a change of image as a result of the visit. Thus actual experience of a destination would seem to alter the image of this destination held by the visitors.

Numerous researchers across fields emphasised the importance of understanding forces which influence image development and suggested that little effort has been undertaken to determine the factors that influence its formation (see for example, Brokaw, 1990; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Haider and Rein, 1993). Despite importance and growing interest, destination image studies have also been criticised as being overly theoretical and lacking a conceptual framework (see for example, Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1993).

### 2.6.2 Assessment and Measurement of Destination Image

The measurement of destination image has been of great interest to tourism researchers and practitioners (see for example, Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Driscoll et al, 1994). According to Gallarza et al (2002), there are two very different approaches to tourism destination image's measurement: first, empirical studies that without actually developing theory apply statistical instruments and second, empirical studies that explain a methodology and deal with the problems of the measurement of the image.

An accurate assessment of image is a key to designing an effective and successful marketing and positioning strategy. According to Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001), the majority of destination image studies have used either structured (scale format) or unstructured (open-ended or repertory grid) measurement techniques. The authors added that the studies adopting the former technique employed the semantic differential and/or Likert scale for measuring cognitive and affective components of destination image whereas the studies using unstructured techniques aimed to examine the complex structure of image (see for example, Goodrich, 1978b; Haahti, 1986; Gartner, 1989; Milman and Pizam, 1995; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997). These latter studies argued that measuring image by pre-identified attributes fails to capture both the richness of image and image items salient to individuals. Several researchers (see for example, Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993; Dann, 1996) have used an unstructured or qualitative approach to measure destination image.



Echtner and Ritchie (1991) identified two basic approaches to the measurement of image: structured and unstructured. The former approach involves various image attributes being specified and incorporated into a standardised instrument usually with a set of semantic differential or Likert scales. The latter approach, on the other hand, employs an alternate mode of measurement using free form descriptions to measure image and thus attributes are not specified at the beginning of the research; rather respondents are allowed to more freely describe impressions of the product. Data are often gathered through focus groups or open-ended survey questions.

Furthermore, two years later Echtner and Ritchie (1993) illustrated that a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies is necessary to accurately measure destination image. The authors indicated that a relationship existed between the system of measurement used and the ability to capture certain components of the destination image. Responses to open-ended image questions provided more holistic characteristics of the destination image and allowed unique images of each destination under study to emerge.

Murphy (1999) also employed a combination of structured and unstructured methods of destination image measurement and concluded that the dual approach provided insight into a destination's image. A study conducted by Choi et al. (1999) followed Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) advice in their investigation of Hong Kong's image as held by foreign tourists. By combining qualitative and quantitative approaches, the attribute-based and holistic images of Hong Kong were extracted, spreading from

functional to psychological characteristics and further supplemented by images that were distinctive in the world travel market.

### 2.6.3 Creating the Tourism Image

As mentioned previous in this chapter modern tourism marketing is a continuous communication with existing and potential customers and an organisation's total communications programme consists of a mix of promotional activity including advertising, sales promotion, public relations and personal selling to achieve marketing targets . Morgan and Pritchard (1998) stated that promotion can be a short-term activity, but when seen at a strategic level, it is a mid-and long-term investment aimed at building up a consistent and credible corporate or destination identity.

Image creators are engaged in the business of advertising and advertisements link the tourism industry with its consumers via the advertising agency and the tourism industry with its consumers (the potential tourists) via the advertising agency and the tourism media. Since the aim of tourism advertising is to effectively communicate messages to potential consumers, it must communicate in the most attractive way, *“articulating their impulses and satisfying their needs”* (Fowles, 1996, p.48). If those engaged in constructing and delivering such messages are to effectively communicate with the consumer they need to direct them in shared cultural symbols.

As McCracken (1986) has argued meanings originate from within the cultural sphere and are subsequently made use of or appropriated by advertising to facilitate the consumption of products. In purchasing these products the consumer thus participates

in this process, which could be described as a cultural exchange, meanings are used, represented, accepted and thus reinforced and the cycle is ready to begin again.

#### **2.6.4 Image Promotion and Information Sources**

Image emerges as a key marketing tool in an industry where potential consumers must base buying decisions upon mental images of product offerings (Kent, 1990). As a result of this important role, image has been discussed as a critical variable in the tourism marketing mix since the 1970s and studies have highlighted its many roles. As mentioned previously there is an extensive literature, which examines the relationship of image to destination choice and in terms of tourist decision-making. Related to these issues, and equally well researched are those of travel satisfaction (Chon, 1990), the image formation process (Gunn, 1989) and image modification and change (Pearce, 1982). Finally, the relationship between image and tourism development has also been studied (Hunt, 1975).

Moreover, image in tourism covers a wide range of activities and agencies. Its role reflects that of promotion in general, which is aimed at influencing attitudes and behaviour of audiences in three main ways: to confirm and reinforce; to create new patterns of behaviour and attitude; or to change attitudes and behaviour (Seaton, 1989).

Destination image is multi-faceted and multi-dimensional and it is not only tourists who hold images of tourism places, although studies focusing on the tourists' perceptions have dominated. Tourists, intermediaries such as travel and advertising

agencies, the industry, the destination state, and the indigenous population all have different images of the same destination. This multi-faceted role of image makes its analysis extremely complex, for instance, it has to consider the role of image creator and the meaning systems which inform their creations which in turn reinforce particularly ways of imaging or seeing the world (Morgan and Prichard, 1998).

Moreover, destination image is certainly an important determinant of tourist buying behaviour. Research by Pearce (1982), Woodside and Lysonski (1990), and Goodrich (1978), demonstrated a clear relationship between positive perceptions of destinations and positive purchase decisions. Although these perceptions may not be based on “fact” or first-hand experience, they nevertheless exert a vital influence on a potential tourist’s decision to visit a destination. Similarly, negative images will deter potential tourists and result in a decision not to purchase. Hunt (1979) recognised that it is possible that images, as perceived by individuals in the travel market, may have as much to do with an area’s tourism development success as well as its tangible recreation and tourism resources.

There is a considerable debate surrounding the influence of tourism promotion activities. For instance, it is argued that potential consumers compare vacation brochures and on the basis of that comparison, make a decision on their preferred destination (Coltman, 1989). Destination choice appears to be something, which is not carefully planned but is almost random and open to outside events or influences such as advertisements or special offers. There appears to be little detailed evaluation of what particular destinations or resorts have to offer the potential vacationer (Selby and Morgan, 1996).

If it emerges that destination images are formed according to both personal and social influences, it is also the case that these images are dynamic. Gunn (1989) has suggested that tourist images are in a state of transition throughout the travel experience. As a result, an important development in place image theory has been the comparison of destination's image at different stages in the tourist's decision-making process. At each stage the potential tourist may hold different images of a destination, images that are constructed by the amount, source and objectivity of the available information. This range of imagery has been described as a hierarchy of place images, ranging from initial perceptions based on organic sources, to a modified or re-evaluated image upon visiting the destination (Gunn, 1989).

There is a wide recognition amongst tourism academics, that destination images are influenced by a much wider spectrum of information sources beyond those produced by tourism agents. This has resulted in the contention that the influence of commercial image creation is relatively weak in comparison to other marketed products (see for example; Nolan, 1976; Gitelson and Crompton, 1983; McLellan and Foushee, 1983).

Additionally, brochures play a fundamental role in the formation of an induced image and it is recognised that promotional material has been used throughout history, and today this is one of the most commonly used vehicles (see for example; Santos, 1998; Sirakaya and Sönmez, 2000). A brochure is a form of printed promotional material designed to communicate with existing or potential tourists. Wicks and Schutt (1991) examined the distribution mechanisms and use of brochures and the data indicated that this method of promotion remains important. Moreover, Getz and Sailor (1993)

explored the design of destination brochures, with particular reference to the attributes of attractiveness and utility. The research findings suggested that this information source should be designed and distributed for clear target segments.

Certainly, image formation has become a much more complex process than ever before and researchers have advocated a systematic re-categorization of image formation agents by considering a wide assortment of online information sources. The Internet has drastically transformed the distribution and marketing of tourism products and information consumption patterns have been reshaped (Buhalis and Spada, 2000). Image projection on the web is receiving greater attention from researchers and destination marketing practitioners. The influence of online digital information on image formation has become an important issue for tourism researchers (see for example; Buhalis, 2000; Govers and Go, 2003).

MacKay and Fesenmaier (2000) proposed that while visitor-determined images reflect individual differences in information processing and interpretation, destination-determined images mirror the actuality of the destination. Although image is formed through the subjective evaluation of external stimuli (Gartner, 1993), it may be as important to discern what stimuli are delivered by destination marketers. The examination of the effects of projected images through various information channels could become an integral part of image formation research. Furthermore, there are many components to the promotional mix and how an organisation blends the mix depends on a number of factors, particularly the nature of the product to be marketed and the target audience (Kotler, 1997).

Whilst image creation affects all aspects of the promotional mix, the key vehicles for its projection in tourism are electronic and print media advertisements and brochures, although, these operate in conjunction with other activities, particularly sales promotions. There are a range of media in which advertisements are placed promoting the merits of destinations, airlines, attractions and hotels and these are the traditional promotional media for the tourism image and they would be classified as projected or official image sources (Morgan and Prichard, 1998).

As mentioned before in this chapter advertising plays a central role in marketing destinations. Since tourism is exceptionally visual, photographs are considered vital to successfully creating and communicating an image of a destination (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997). Through advertising, image becomes an artificially created differentiation as product attribute beliefs are formed and influenced (Mitchell, 1986). The use of imagery helps evaluation by reducing the set of attributes considered. As such, destination purchase decisions may be based on symbolic elements of the destination product as conveyed in pictures and processed as imagery rather than with their actual features (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997).

The division between “*official*” and “*organic*” imagery seems increasingly tenuous given that we live in a world where cultural icons inform tourism imagery (Hamilton, 1997, p.75-150). The supermodel Claudia Schiffer promoted Montenegro in the former Yugoslavia; films and songs provide emotive symbols for tourism destinations, as does *O Georgia*, sung by Elton John, for Georgia, USA; and powerful cultural symbols such as the *Coca-Cola* logo sell Atlanta. As popular culture informs

tourism advertising, so advertising through using and reinforcing particular symbols, icons and images lubricate the circulation of culture throughout and between societies. Thus, tourism brochures, selling timeless, romantic Paris, using images of lovers kissing by the Seine, shape, reinforce and enhance what we understand to be Parisian or French images (Hamilton, 1997).

Moreover, one of the oldest sources of travel images is literature, which itself has provided the germ for many films, songs and plays, as well as tourism promotion. The Irish Tourist Board markets not only the country's built heritage and natural environment, but also its literary giants, including, amongst others, Oscar Wilde, George Bernard Shaw, Samuel Beckett and James Joyce. As well as promoting places, literature can also prompt tourism development and shape tourism identities, as when references appear in brochures and on road signs. In the UK, Dorset is "*Hardy Country*" after Thomas Hardy; Yorkshire is "*Bronte Country*" after the Bronte Sisters; Stratford is associated with William Shakespeare and Swansea in South Wales with the poet Dylan Thomas (Morgan and Prichard, 1998, p.69).

Analysis of media messages has been approached from a variety of theoretical and disciplinary points of view. According to MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997), much of the research has focused on verbal content, although marketers recognise the importance of nonverbal communication occurring through symbols, social and physical cues, and structure of the environment. The rise in image advertising has been accredited to increased interest in nonverbal communication (Stewart et al, 1987). Source credibility, expertise and trustworthiness are all relevant issues in



determining the effectiveness of image advertising by destinations (Manfredo et al, 1992).

According to MacInnis and Price (1987), pictures are an established means for inducing imagery. Marketing tools used to promote destinations rationally do their best to project positively evaluated visuals to potential visitors, and although visuals in destination promotions are frequently conveyed as a stereotype, they are salient in the early stages of destination evaluation and when the tourist's experience level is fairly low. However, the highly competitive tourism market is becoming more and more differentiated and particular places have been forced to develop strategies of niche marketing to attract increasingly selective and choosy consumers and that is where branding comes into picture (Dahles, 1998).

## **2.7 PART SIX-THE ROLE OF BRANDING IN IMAGE FORMATION**

### **2.7.1 Destination Image Branding**

Although, the topic of destination branding did not appear in tourism literature until the late 1990s (Pike, 2004), it has become increasingly important in recent years. As suggested in part three of this chapter, the definition of a brand appears to satisfy many of the aims of destination marketing and thus highlights the importance of branding to destinations. Several authors confirm this, arguing that branding provides a good starting point for destination marketing and a sound framework by which to manage the image of a place and that branding is at the focal point of destination

marketing strategy (see for example, Kotler et al., 1999; Kavaratzis, 2004; Pike, 2004).

The reasons why image and branding have become of such importance to public and private organisations in recent years are also shared by destinations with the main reasons for destination branding growth being related to either competition issues or consumer behaviour. Pike (2004) stressed that substitutability has become one of the main problems for destinations today. Especially in the most competitive markets such as sun, sea and sand markets and many destinations are becoming increasingly substitutable. In addition, most destinations have excellent facilities and services and claim to have unique culture and heritage. Further to this, Morgan et al (2002) suggested that tourists are becoming increasingly sophisticated and discerning and destination choice is now a considerable indication of lifestyle and a way to express identity in an increasingly homogenous world.

A destination brand is a brand relating to a defined geographical region that's understood by its tourists as unique entity, with a political and legislative framework for tourism marketing and planning. According to Buhalis (2000), destinations are amalgams of tourism products offering an integrated experience to the consumers. This amalgam of tourism products and services offered by a destination is consumed by tourists under the brand name of the destination during their period of stay. Instead, Cai (2002, p.721) defined destination branding as "*selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building*". According to Pritchard and Morgan (2001), these elements, similar to the consumer products, are proposed to include terms, names, signs, logos, designs, symbols, slogans, colour,

packages, architecture, photographic style as well as heritage, language, myths and legends. Cai (2002) also explained that the main aim to create value to the destination is building a brand image which amounts to identifying the most relevant associations and strengthening their linkages to the brand.

Pritchard and Morgan (2001) argued that destination branding is overwhelmingly associated with destination image. According to others (see for example, Cai, 2002; Jensen and Korneliussen, 2002; Govers and Go, 2003), image is very different from branding; yet the latter is created through the former. Jensen and Korneliussen (2002) highlighted that image and brand are considered as interrelated concepts; image is an important building block in developing destination brands and brand image is defined as the set of beliefs that consumers hold about a particular brand.

### **2.7.2 Destination Branding Image Research**

Destination image has been extensively studied, yet literature on the branding of destination is sparse. While brands are found in many categories of tourism goods and services, the concept is not studied and practiced as enthusiastically in destination marketing as in the general field. The recognition of destination image as a major factor in destination success has recently led resort marketers to talk about applying branding to destination marketing.

According to Morgan et al. (2002), branding is possibly the most powerful marketing tool available to contemporary destination marketers confronted by increasing product parity, substitutability and competition. Because of the widening variety of acceptable

alternatives, the need for destinations to create a unique identity, to find a niche and differentiate themselves from their competitors, is more critical than ever. As Morgan et al. (2002) stated the battle for customers in tomorrow's destination marketplace will be fought not over price but over hearts and minds. Additionally, the same authors stressed that the image the destination creates in the consumer's mind, and how it is positioned, is of more importance to its ultimate success than its actual characteristics. Therefore brand managers try and position their brands so that they are perceived by the consumer to occupy a niche in the marketplace occupied by no other destination.

In their study on constructing a healthy branding strategy for Wales, Pritchard and Morgan (2001), attempted to use heritage, language, person, myths, legends and emblems. These elements also constitute how Wales' image is featured. In their study, political, historical and cultural sources were considered as the combination of these elements forming both the destination image and destination branding.

Furthermore, Morgan et al (2002) described the case of "*the 100% Pure New Zealand (NZ)*" brand as a successful destination branding, which was initiated in an effort to double the country's tourism earnings by 2005 and was targeted to Australia, Japan, the USA, the UK, Germany and Singapore. They shed light on the UK phase of the research involving in-depth interviews and focus groups, and demonstrated the identification of the brand's values, incorporation of these values into an emotionally appealing personality and effective and efficient delivery of this message to the target markets, all which they imply to be critical for a durable destination branding. The authors concluded that the successful creation and application of "*the 100% Pure NZ*" brand was facilitated with marketing research and public partnerships.

### 2.7.3 Destination Brand Building

Building strong brands requires clear brand identity and brand position, and also consistency over time. The owner organisation behind the brand has the keys to this treasure chest and to success (Aaker, 1996). Strategic brand management involves the design and implementation of marketing programmes to build, to measure and manage brand equity (Keller, 1998).

Brand identity is the state of will of the organisation, and the active part of the image building process. Brand identity creates a relationship between the brand and the customers with a value proposition that consists of functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits (Kapferer, 1992). Place identity is how a place wants to be perceived and is a unique set of brand characteristics that destination marketers want to create or maintain and that differentiate it from other places (Rainisto, 2004). Image as mentioned previous in this chapter, however, is the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place and must be valid, believable, distinctive and appealing (Kotler et al., 1999). Therefore, as noted by Pike (2004) and Keller (2003), a brand represents an identity for the producer and an image for the consumer.

Joachimsthaler and Aaker (1997), studied alternative brand building approaches, without using mass media, and found that three guidelines to build a successful brand should be tied with the core identity. These issues are: 1) senior managers should be carefully involved with branding efforts, 2) the importance of clarifying the core identity, and 3) all efforts to get visibility should be tied to the core identity. Core

identity is also a central driving force in place branding (see for example; Keller, 1998; Kotler et al. 1999; Kapferer, 2000). However, there are various additional factors within the macro-environment that create challenges which destination marketers must also be aware of, as these have been described in the following section.

#### **2.7.4 The Challenges of Destination Branding**

Despite the superficial attraction of destination branding, Seaton and Bennett (1996) noted that the concept has several fundamental problems because of the intractable differences between destinations and other kinds of tourism products. The authors stated that branding, to be successful, involves mobilisation of the whole marketing mix, where a successful brand emerges from the design of a homogeneous product, which is correctly priced, distributed and promoted to a defined market segment.

However, most of these requirements are impossible for destination marketers. In reality, destination branding has to rely almost entirely on promotion or publicity, as destination marketers can neither set prices in a destination nor control the distribution system through which the various components of a destination (e.g., accommodation and attractions) are marketed.

According to Seaton and Bennett (1996), a destination simply cannot be made controllably homogeneous, meaning that components of a destination would look similar to all the consumers wherever the product is seen. Furthermore, Hankinson (2001) stressed about the paucity of published research on the topic, and added that

the literature, such as it is, suggests that branding destinations is at best complex and at worst impossible.

Additionally, despite the advantages of destination branding, there are a number of challenges faced by destination marketers. These challenges are noted by Morgan and Pritchard (2000) and are related to financial, political and environmental issues. The first challenge facing destination marketers is their limited budgets compared to many global consumer product brands. Then destination politics, which is concerned with the complexity of the tourism product, the number of stakeholders and the complexity of the relationships between stakeholders, poses a constraint against effective destination branding. In addition, destination marketers also have to take into account the heterogeneity of travel motives of different target groups, which poses a challenge to finding a common foundation of associations which are unique and relevant to each one, and then integrating communications into a joint effort (Supphellen, 2004). As a result, the image the consumer has of a destination brand may be quite different to the self-image intended in the brand identity (Pike, 2004).

In recent years, the sensitivity of destinations to shocks in the external environment and the ability of such shocks to reverse branding activity and damage the image of a destination has become even more apparent following political and environmental events and disasters and economic downswings such as the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the war in Iraq, terrorist attacks in Turkey, Madrid, Bali, Kenya and London, the UK foot and mouth outbreak and the 2004 tsunami and hurricane Katrina (Baker and Cameron, 2008).

### 2.7.5 Destination Personality

As places seek to become distinctive, destination personality is viewed as a viable metaphor for understanding tourists' perceptions of places and for crafting a unique destination identity (Morgan et al. 2002). In theoretical terms, destination personality reflects "*the set of human characteristics associated with a destination*" (Aaker, 1997, p.347). It evokes emotional links between brands and consumers and gives the latter a tangible reference point, which is vivid, alive and more complete than the sense conveyed by a generic offering (Upshaw, 1995).

At the practical level, destinations can be characterised by personality descriptors, such as youthful, energetic, extrovert or sophisticated (Keller, 1993). Therefore, destinations can be described using human personality traits, such as Europe is traditional and sophisticated; Wales is honest, welcoming, romantic, and down to earth; Spain is friendly and family oriented; London is open-minded, unorthodox, vibrant and creative; and Paris is romantic (Morgan and Pritchard, 2002).

Although there has been a sparse empirical investigation, the face validity of destination personality has been embraced by many tourism academics at the conceptual level (see for example; Henderson, 2000; Crockett and Wood, 2002; Morgan et al. 2002). Through content analysis of travel and tourism advertisements, for example, Santos (2004) revealed that Portugal was represented with personality attributes such as "contemporary", "modern", "sophisticated" and "traditional" in the U.S travel media.



Moreover, Henderson (2000) revealed that the New Asia-Singapore brand was composed of six personality characteristics such as cosmopolitan, youthful, vibrant, modern, reliability and comfort. In addition, Morgan and Pritchard (2002) posited that England was portrayed as being “conservative”, “pleasant”, “refined”, “civilised”, “eccentric” and “down to earth” in the UK tourism media.

Destination image is a widely investigated topic, but the application of brand personality to tourism is relatively new. Aaker (1997), realising this limitation and drawing on the big five model of human personality, developed the Brand Personality Scale (BPS), which consists of five generic dimensions: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Since then, the brand personality dimensions have been applied to various settings across different cultures to gauge consumers’ symbolic consumption and their effects on behaviour (see for example; Aaker et al. 2001; Supphellen and Grønhaug, 2003).

A distinctive brand personality can help to create a set of unique and favourable associations in consumer memory and thus build and enhance brand equity (Johnson et al. 2000; Phau and Lau, 2000). A well-established brand personality influences consumer preference and patronage and develops stronger emotional ties, trust, loyalty with the brand (Fournier, 1998). Similarly, a distinctive and emotionally attractive destination personality is shown to influence the perceived image of a place and the tourist choice behaviour. Western Australia’s destination brand personality campaign, for example, reinstated the country as a premier nature-based tourism destination and resulted in increased tourism demand (Crockett and Wood, 2002).

One of the aims of this research was to identify the positive and negative destination personality attributes of the seaside resort of Bournemouth from the viewpoint of the place marketers that promote the seaside resort.

## **2.8 SUMMARY**

The recent worldwide interest in tourism research has been impressive. Tourism can be traced back for centuries but because the elements of the product and the conditions of the market place have changed so enormously in the last few decades, there has been a corresponding requirement for a change in business methods. This has led to the adoption and use of marketing a destination. Place marketing, which was so central to the original of the resorts as major tourists destinations, has once again become a crucially important element in their regeneration and associated attempts to define more distinctive new identities.

As a result marketing a seaside resort and in this research Bournemouth, involves much diverse consideration as within the resort lies a wealth of public and private sector organisations which will rely on the success of the whole resort as a tourist destination. Changes in the tourism sector, competition among products, and tourist destinations and changes in tourists' expectations and habits, all means tourist destinations must be conceived as brands that have to be managed from a strategic point of view. From that perspective, brand image plays a fundamental role in the success of tourist destinations, since image, seen as a mental picture formed by a set

of attributes that define the destination in its various dimensions, exercises a strong influence on consumer behaviour in the tourism sector.

As research has demonstrated destination image is an important determinant of tourist buying behaviour and as competition between destinations increases, places add to their appeal by highlighting their own images' positive features and characteristics. It has been widely noted that the role of destination image in tourism development is highly significant and destinations with strong, positive images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision process.

Image has emerge as a crucial marketing concept in the tourism industry and little empirical research has focused on how image is actually formed, however several researchers have suggested different frameworks for understanding the process of image formation. As this chapter emphasised, the vital purpose of destination image promotion and its information sources is to influence buying behaviour and control demand.

Despite the growing importance of tourism industry, research on destination image branding has been given insufficient attention to date. Image in tourism destination context is an important part of brand. Destination image contributes to forming destination brand and to its success in the market. So long as the image is positive, the brand would have a strong position in the market. A brand there is therefore more than an image. A destination brand is intended and projected to have a certain image by the destination marketers.

One should consider the relationship between the branding of a destination and its identity. As emphasised previously in the chapter, brand may help to differentiate one place or destination from another. It is more critical than ever for a destination the need to create a unique identity, to find a niche and differentiate themselves from their competitors. The following chapter outlines, discusses and describes the method used to carry out the study to empirically explore the research problems.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes the method chosen to carry out the study to empirically investigate the research problems and issues identified in the previous chapters. Firstly, this chapter presents the methodology used in the current study, specifically in relation to the research design and the data collection process. This is set in the context of the research methods used in tourism research; also the nature of qualitative research is examined as well as the appropriateness of the qualitative approach for this study.

Secondly, the research design is illustrated and the reasons for the selection of a grounded theory approach incorporated within a case study are discussed. The critique and the process of grounded theory are examined and the triangulation approach is discussed.

Thirdly, the chapter focuses on the methodological issues in qualitative research, including data collection, the interview process, particularly semi-structured interviews which were used in this research as the primary data collection method and related ethical issues. The sampling strategy and the sample size used in this research are also explained.

Fourthly, the chapter demonstrates the techniques of analysis used in this research, the grounded theory approach analysis, the content analysis of the tourism brochures and online promotional information and describes the data analysis using a computer software system. Finally, the chapter demonstrates the validity and reliability of this research.

## **3.2 JUSTIFICATION OF THE QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY.**

### **3.2.1. Qualitative Research in Tourism**

The key to effective research is a study's research design (Boyd, 2001). A research design is the plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer research questions (Macmillan and Schumacher, 1997). There are two broad approaches to research design: qualitative and quantitative. Although considerably different in form and function, quantitative and qualitative research both make important and valid contributions to understanding tourism destination image. Also, with the development of more sophisticated and intricate quantitative methods, the general research climate has focused on verifying theories, often at the neglect of generating new theories through qualitative inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1981).

Whereas quantitative research is known for the ability to explain and illustrate phenomena through the use of numeric symbols and statistical analysis, qualitative research has the distinction of exploring and interpreting observations and words holistically in an attempt to discover the underlying patterns and meanings of human phenomena (see for example, Babbie, 1999; Creswell, 1998). Moreover, whereas

quantitative research is bounded by statistical rules, qualitative research is a creative process that relies on the insights and conceptual abilities of the analyst (Patton, 1990).

Like other fields of social science enquiry, tourism has been dominated by quantitative methodologies (Riley and Love, 1999). However, understanding emerging tourism settings and behaviour in those settings requires qualitative research (Jamal and Hollinshead, 2001). This is because, qualitative research methods assist in directly exposing the nature of the reality, understanding the phenomenon, evaluating key themes emerging from the research and eventually help with theory-building.

The literature on qualitative research is extensive, with noticeable divergence among writers' categorisation and classification of their methods and approaches: what is called a theory by one author is called a philosophy, approach, framework, design and technique by others (see for example, Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). The purpose of using qualitative methods is to keep the approach flexible and open-ended in order to understand the meanings and views held by participants in a study (Miller and Salkind, 2002).

The research design used in this study has been guided by Denzin and Lincoln (1994a) and Creswell (1998). As a result grounded theory was chosen as the best fit for this study. In addition, the qualitative methods chosen for this research include semi-structured interviewing for the first phase of the investigation (see for example, Wengraf, 2001; Patton, 2002) and content analysis of tourism brochures and online information sources for the second phase (see for example, Albers and James, 1988; Santos, 1998; Pritchard and Morgan, 2000; Jenkins, 2003).

Furthermore, in analysing qualitative data, a large number of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) with various capacities is available. Lonkila (1995) highlighted those programs such as NUD\*IST was designed to facilitate grounded theory analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) and have the potential to encourage the growth of this methodology at the possible expense of other equally viable options. It is mentioned by Richards and Richards (2000), that one distinct advantage of CAQDAS over manual methods is the ability to organise data and its analysis efficiently. Security passwords can also be programmed and multiple backups made to protect the data and analysis from loss or theft. Clerical tasks such as photocopying and labelling sections of text so they can be traced back to their original documents are automated in CAQDAS. This provides quicker access for coding and retrieving data and increases the capacity of data that can be handled. However, there is a lack of published literature regarding the use of CAQDAS and the impact upon methodology, methods of analysis and representations of findings.

The CAQDAS programme chosen for this study was the NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7) computer software program (the latest version of software developed by QSR International, a development of the NUD\*IST suite of software). NVivo was used in this research as a support system to assist in managing and analysing the volume of the huge amount of data. As highlighted by Richards and Richards (2000), NVivo provides tools for handling rich data records, for browsing, coding categories, annotating and gaining access to data records accurately and swiftly, and it helps to manage and synthesise the researcher's ideas.



Although there is a lack of published grounded theory and content analysis studies using NVivo within tourism research, the decision to use NVivo was due to its flexible coding, the ability to use rich text documents for visual coding, its multiple ways to organise, hyper-link, search and query data functions and its flexible organisation to large amounts of data.

### **3.2.2 Grounded Theory Approach**

In an attempt to organise the conceptualizations of qualitative research, Creswell (1998) stated that there are five primary paradigms of qualitative research design, or traditions of inquiry: biography, case study, ethnography, grounded theory, and phenomenology. Each of the five paradigms has philosophical origins and underpinnings, with a theoretical framework, and is tailored to work most effectively with specific genres of qualitative inquiry. As a research approach, grounded theory can be used in combination with a case study and it shares some methodological procedures with ethnography (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). The researcher determined that grounded theory included within a case study was the best research design for the current study in order to identify the findings of the research effectively.

Grounded theory is a qualitative research method that was developed for the purpose of studying a social phenomenon and to generate theory relating to a particular situation (Strauss and Corbin, 1994). According to Mellion and Tovin (2002, p.110), grounded theory is an appropriate choice for addressing research questions about “*complex relationships and new areas of inquiry*”.

Becker (1993) suggested that the goal of grounded theory is to identify major issues, themes or categories of a phenomenon or to explain inter-relationships. In addition, grounded theory seeks to generate theoretical statements and complex theories based on empirical evidence, although it can be used in different ways and reach various degrees of complexity.

Grounded theory was initially developed in the 1960s by the sociologists Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss whose seminal work, *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, was published in 1967 (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). Strauss and Corbin (1994, p.273) described grounded theory as “*a general methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data systematically gathered and analysed*”.

Although grounded theory was first introduced in the 1960s, it has become popular only during the last two decades. Glaser (1978) noted that beyond the confines of sociology, researchers in other fields have adapted grounded theory and found it useful. Researchers in physical therapy and clinical services, for example, have used grounded theory to develop theories and explain relationships (Ohman and Hagg, 1998; Stiller, 2000), as well as to study patients’ experiences (Stephenson and Wiles, 2000). Grounded theory has also been used in feminist research (Keddy et al, 1996). In recent years there have been several examples of a grounded theory approach in tourism research (see for example, Riley, 1995; Connell and Lowe, 1997; Herold et al, 2001; Decrop and Snelders, 2004). Burns and Sancho (2003), for example, used an ethnographic approach to interview key stakeholders and used grounded principles to present oral data around six themes using direct quotations to allow “authentic” voices to speak for themselves. Furthermore, Verbole (2000) used Strauss and Corbin’s

(1998) grounded theory procedures and technique to guide the research process of policy-orientated study on rural tourism in Slovenia. Therefore, this study of destination marketing builds upon these studies.

### 3.2.2.1 Symbolic interactionism

According to Chenitz and Swanson (1986, p.7), grounded theory was developed from the “*implications of the symbolic interactionist view of human behaviour*”. Symbolic interactionism is a social theory that explains that people interact with each other on the basis of the meaning (symbols) they attach to situations. Thus, the theory is based on the premise that no object, situation or person has meaning of itself. The meaning is attached to the experience of that situation.

From a symbolic interaction perspective, social development is a process of reflection and interaction. Individuals learn a sense of self and rationality through a process interacting with others, of seeing themselves reflected in their relationships with others. Strauss (1962) described this process of developing a concept of self, unique to human beings, as leading to self-directed behaviour. Blumer (1962) proposed that symbolic interaction also explains the ways that groups of people are able to function together because of their shared meanings in the phenomena around them. According to Chenitz and Swanson (1986, p.6): “*The individual as part of the collective aligns his or her self-definition with those of others and acts according to shared meaning*”.

Chenitz and Swanson (1986) suggested that a study underpinned by symbolic interaction must examine both the human behaviour and the symbolic meaning

attached to interaction. Therefore, observations of a range of verbal and non-verbal interactions in the natural settings they would occur are essential. They also suggested that the researcher needs to be able to experience the meaning of the interaction and therefore cannot remain a disinterested witness, but must take on the participants perspective by being “*both a participant in the world as well as an observer of the participant in that world*” (Chenitz and Swanson, 1986, p.7).

### 3.2.2.2 The critique of grounded theory

Since grounded theory was first introduced (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) as a means of generating theory grounded in data, the original authors have re-stated their positions in subsequent publications. Strauss, particularly in a publication with Corbin in 1990, has proposed a series of steps designed to assist researchers wishing to use grounded theory (Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The structured approach to conducting grounded theory research has been continued by Strauss and Corbin in further publications (see for example, Corbin, 1986a, 1986b; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Glaser has also re-stated his position on grounded theory (Glaser, 1978; 1992; 1998), questioning Strauss’ understanding of grounded theory in an open letter which became the foreword to *Basics of grounded theory analysis: Emergence v forcing* published in 1992. Glaser’s approach to grounded theory, often referred to as “*orthodox*” grounded theory (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000), has been one where even the research question itself emerges from the data, with the researcher having to trust that a theory will eventually emerge. For Glaser, the structures proposed by

Strauss and Corbin have suggested forced outcomes based on verification, a positivistic approach that grounded theory had sought to avoid. While there is no doubt that grounded theory may be used to generate hypotheses that are testable through verification or falsification as suggested by Corbin (1986b), grounded theory is essentially an interpretive qualitative approach (Charmaz, 2000). The approaches to conducting grounded theory are clearly different and researchers proposing to use grounded theory should decide which approach is to be adopted. This thesis adopted the approach advocated by Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1990; 1998).

The main differences between the approaches to grounded theory research of Glaser and Strauss are summarised in Table 3.1 below. In response to Glaser's (1992) suggestion that deviation from orthodox grounded theory forces frameworks onto research, thus detracting from producing theories that are truly grounded in data, Strauss and Corbin (1998; 2000) have argued against this on the basis that paying due regard to previous research enables the researcher to become sensitised to data and prevents duplication of studies. Consequently, in this study having knowledge of past research in the area of destination branding and in particular the role of branding in image formation enabled the researcher to identify gaps in the literature that this research seeks to address.

Despite Glaser's (1992) criticism, it seems that rigid adherence to procedures was not Strauss and Corbin's (1998; 2000) intention. Elaboration of grounded theory method was meant to clarify sampling procedures rather than violate the original premises of grounded theory (Robrecht, 1995). Indeed, Strauss and Corbin (2000) have proposed that while due regard must be given to rules and procedures in order to ensure that

grounded theory is conducted properly, thereby avoiding outcomes based on partial or incorrectly formulated approaches, this should not be regarded as imposing a rigidly constructed framework that is set a priori.

**Table 3.1: Main Epistemological and Methodological Differences between Glaser’s and Strauss and Corbin’s Approach to Grounded Theory**

	Glaser	Strauss and Corbin
Epistemology	Less positivistic, based on symbolic interactionism	More positivistic, based on symbolic interactionism
Research Paradigm	Postpositivist	Poststructuralist/Interpretive
Researcher’s Role	Independent	Dialectic and active
Theory	Emphasis on generation	Emphasis on validation
Literature	Supports emerging theory	Preliminary review to enhance theoretical sensitivity
Research Problem	Emerges in study	Personal experience Suggested by others Literature Emerges in study
Theory Generation	Categories emerges from data	Rules and procedures Structure provided by Paradigm Model.

**Source:** Adapted from McCann and Clarke (2003)

Bryman and Burgess (2000) and Bryant (2002) have claimed that grounded theory is seldom implemented in its entirety, sometimes being used to disguise methodological weakness or research incompetence. Bryman (1988) has questioned whether grounded theory method actually does produce theory, suggesting that the approach appears to produce categories rather than theory. Finally, the epistemological basis for grounded theory has been challenged, with suggestions that researchers can undertake grounded theory without the theoretical underpinning provided by symbolic interactionism (Charmaz, 2000; Milliken and Schreiber, 2001).

Milliken and Schreiber (2001) have argued that challenges to the epistemological underpinnings of grounded theory discussed above are not sustainable as symbolic interactionism exists at every level of grounded theory, with the researcher engaging in symbolic interactionism between data, participants and emerging theory. Researchers undertaking grounded theory utilise symbolic interactionism either consciously or otherwise. In this study the researcher was part of the process of symbolic interactionism through her involvement in the research (e.g. interviewing) and was therefore an integral part of the research.

Acknowledging and understanding criticisms of grounded theory serves to prepare the researcher for the task ahead. Recognising previous errors in grounded theory has highlighted to the researcher the need to ensure that data collection, analysis and theory generation are transparent processes, and that theory generated is raised to a higher conceptual level than just discovering meaning. The processes associated with data collection, analysis and theory generation are detailed in this chapter.

### **3.2.2.3 The process of grounded theory**

In the case of this research, data were collected and analysed in keeping with Strauss and Corbin's (1990; 1998) description of the methodology in order to understand better the phenomenon of this research. The basic principles of Strauss and Corbin of open coding, axial coding, theoretical emergence, theoretical sampling and the process of abstraction remain fundamental throughout this research as they guided

the researcher during the analysis and helped the researcher to manage large amounts of data as will be discussed later in this chapter.

In grounded theory approach, the researcher starts with an area of interest and then begins collecting the data. This is analysed and reflected on them, while, at the same time, exploring the literature. This allows the researcher to make comparisons between the concepts emerging from the data and the scholarship and work of other researchers. As the researcher collects new data and integrates new concepts, the grounded theory of the study is modified and reformulated (Glaser, 1978). Research of this nature allows the researcher to make shifts of emphasis early in the research process so that the data gathered “*reflects what is actually occurring in the field rather than speculation about what cannot or should have been observed*” (Glaser, 1978, p.38).

In this research, the researcher started collecting the data while exploring the literature at the same time and engaged in continuous comparative analysis throughout the data collection process. From the moment the researcher commenced this research, the data collection and data analysis went hand-in-hand. Analysis started as soon as the researcher took the first few steps in data collection and as the researcher was collecting data from the initial interviews, cues from the first emerging ideas and concepts were incorporated. In addition, new questions continually occurred which guided the researcher to new data sources and in that way the collection of the data became more focused and specific as the research process proceeded. Additional detail on the application and adaptation of grounded theory relating to this research will be discussed in the following sections of this chapter.



### 3.2.3 Case Study Methodology

In order to complement the survey and gain additional insight into the perspectives of place marketers, an in-depth approach was chosen rather than a cross-sectional approach. Case study approach was adopted in order to answer the following research questions: (a) Which are the promotional techniques that tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively? (b) Which are the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use to advance the projected image of Bournemouth? (c) Which is the past and present projected tourism image of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers? (d) Which is the brand personality of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers? (e) Which is the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications such as promotional tourism brochures and online information sources?

The application of case studies as a qualitative research methodology is widely recognised and is a broadly used method of research in business and medicine as well as tourism (see for example, Eisenhardt, 1989, 1991; Parkhe, 1993; Perry and Coote, 1994; Yin, 1994). Case study methodology is appropriate when the phenomenon of study is difficult to distinguish from its context. It relies on multiple sources of evidence and requires the topic broadly to be defined in the first instance (Yin, 1994). As Stake (1995) observed, case study research is concerned with the complexity and particular nature of the case in question.

In particular, case studies are applicable when investigation covers both a particular phenomenon and the context within which the phenomenon is occurring. This can

arise when the context is hypothesised to contain important explanatory variables about the phenomenon, or the boundary between phenomena and the context are not clearly evident (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000). In this research, the context was the destination marketing of Bournemouth and the phenomenon was the promotion of its' projected tourism image by various stakeholders through a variety of marketing techniques and communications.

A further strength of case study research is that different theoretical and methodological frameworks, such as grounded theory, can be incorporated into it (see for example, Newman, 1994; Stake, 1998; Crane, 1998; Leonard and McAdam, 2001). The research design framework adopted in this study can be described as a case study, following the theory building structure, as described by Yin (1989), i.e., where the sequence of chapters follow a theory-building logic, and using the grounded theory method of qualitative analysis.

Van de Ven (1992) and Yin (1989) argued that case studies are especially appropriate within grounded theory methodology where real-life contexts are being investigating over a period of time. Carson and Coviello (1995) pointed out that, case studies have much to offer as part of grounded theory. Moreover, Seale (1999) highlighted that when the researcher combines a case study approach with a grounded theory approach, new theoretical concepts and categories are likely to be found.

#### **3.2.4 Towards Triangulation as an Approach.**

The term triangulation refers to the employment of multiple sources of data, observers, methods, or theories, in investigations of the same phenomenon. This

approach has two main objectives: firstly, to support a finding with the help of other evidence (validation) and secondly, to complement the data with new results and to find additional pieces to the overall puzzle (completeness) (Decrop, 1999).

Based on the triangle analogy, triangulation implies that a single point is considered from several different and independent sources. Triangulation received attention in qualitative research as a way to ground the acceptance of qualitative approaches (Denzin, 1978; Rossman and Wilson, 1985). “*Triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation but an alternative to validation*” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994b, p.2). Thus, “*triangulation is not used in order to correct any bias or to improve validity* (Blaikie, 1991, p.115) *for that is not the purpose of triangulation*” (Denzin, 1989, p.224; Fielding and Fielding, 1986, p. 33; Flick, 1992, p.194).

Furthermore, by employing a strategy of triangulation the researcher can corroborate evidence from different sources in order to shed light on a particular theme or perspective. The triangulation of ideas is useful in helping the researcher achieve a measure of comprehensiveness and also interconnectivity (Chen and Pearce, 1995). Additionally, Decrop (1999) argued that triangulation is a good way of enhancing the trustworthiness of the research findings and the credibility of the researcher.

Denzin (1989) claimed that triangulation comes in different forms: *data triangulation*, where the researcher use multiple data sources, *investigator triangulation*, when the researcher is involved with more than one expert researcher in the same study, *theoretical triangulation*, when the researcher employs several possible theoretical interpretations of the study and finally, *methodological triangulation*, when the researcher uses two or more methods in the same study.

Data triangulation has often been used in qualitative tourism research, for example, in their study of tourism marketing images of industrial cities, Bramwell and Rawding (1996) triangulate data from committee papers, promotional brochures and structured interviews. Also, examples of methodological triangulation are found in the tourism research literature thus, Markwell (1997) used both participant observation and semi-structured interviews; Corey (1996), and Marti (1995) carried out focus groups and structured questionnaires and Dann (1996a), open-ended interviews and semiotic analysis of photographs.

In this study, the researcher used both data triangulation and methodological triangulation in the data collection approach methods. Firstly, as regards data triangulation, the researcher used semi-structured interviews from marketers of three different groups: the tourism council, the international conference centre and hotels, in different settings and at different times. As regards methodological triangulation the researcher used semi-structured interviews with textual and visual content analysis of promotional tourism brochures and online web pages.

### **3.3 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION**

#### **3.3.1 Theoretical Sampling for Interview Selection**

Theoretical sampling is one of the main characteristics and distinctive features of grounded theory methodology; it involves the identification of cases that are likely to yield rich and varied information in order to maximize theory development and will lead to information richness (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Glaser (1978, p.36) described theoretical sampling as “*the process of data collection for generating theory whereby*

*the analyst jointly collects, codes, analyses the data and decides what data to collect next and where to find it, in order to develop the theory as data emerges. Thus, the process of data collection is “controlled” by the emerging theory”.*

As Charmaz (2000) noted, the sampling for grounded theory methodology is not a fixed-number sample but will vary according to the research situation and research findings. Only the initial sample is likely to be defined by the researcher, based on the research situation. As new categories emerge from the data, the researcher can seek to add to the original sample in such a way that further increases the diversity of the research. The ideal number of participants can therefore vary according to the researcher’s judgement.

Creswell (1998) suggested that interviews with twenty to thirty participants are reasonable. Others have suggested that it is unrealistic to specify the number of participants because the researcher cannot know how many participants will be required to reach saturation of the revealed concepts and make sure that all the concepts important to the study are coded. Additionally, the researcher cannot accurately anticipate the number of participants given that a change in study focus may be suggested by the data.

As this study progressed, theoretical sampling was introduced, where choices concerning interviewees were based on the emerging theory (Glaser, 1978; McCann and Clark, 2003). Thus, theoretical sampling procedure was adopted in this research to select the initial interviewees. Thereafter, the technique used to select the participants was snowball sampling. Thus, the selection process was assisted by the participants who provided recommendations and comments on the most suitable

person for this research. Consequently, this type of sampling method can identify both, the initial issues and relevant factors as well as the later research themes.

In this way data from interviewees were compared with emerging categories and further analysis was conducted until saturation of categories was reached. Categories were deemed to be saturated when no new data emerged, categories were conceptually dense and all variations in categories were explained (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; McCann and Clark, 2003). In grounded theory research, data collection and analysis occur simultaneously through the constant comparison of data and emerging theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

The sampling process of this research began in September/October 2005. The researcher initially talked to four tourism marketers and obtained general knowledge about the marketing techniques that had been used for the promotion of the tourism image of Bournemouth as a seaside resort. Next the researcher selected three participants from Tourism Services at Bournemouth Borough Council, two participants from the Bournemouth International Centre and two participants from two different hotels in the town. Only the most relevant participants were selected because they could best speak to the phenomenon under study.

After these initial interviews, the researcher sorted the data into general patterns and themes, and new questions and areas then emerged for further interviews. During the second phase of data collection, seven more participants were selected. These included three participants from Tourism Services at Bournemouth Borough Council, two more from the Bournemouth International Centre and two from different hotels, in order to confirm the previous patterns and themes developed through the initial

sample. After confirmation of the general pattern and themes, seven more participants were interviewed in order to obtain more specific data on particular issues and to provide a further understanding. Interviewing continued until no new information was forthcoming and saturated categories began to emerge.

### 3.3.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews are widely used. This usage is linked to the expectation that views are more likely to be expressed in a relatively openly designed interview than in a standardized interview or a questionnaire (Flick et al., 2004). A semi-structured interview has a primary focus but multiple subunits are studied to “*help understand the primary case more fully*” (Yin, 1994, pp.41-44). Warnaby and Yip (2005), for example, undertook semi-structured interviews with marketing managers in order to investigate the promotional planning in UK regional shopping centres. Also, Hawkins and Hudson (2006) carried out semi-structured interviews with marketers directly involved in image development exploring the place marketing strategies used by the cities of Liverpool and Glasgow.

In the first stage of this research, face to face semi structured interviewing was chosen as the most appropriate means of gathering information for the following reasons:

- i) it allows the researcher to ask open-ended and probing questions that can help to explore the phenomenon;
- ii) it gives the researcher greater flexibility to follow the interviewee’s conversation and to interact with them;
- iii) it allows for structured questions in a set sequence with wording that is prescribed but flexible;

- iv) it is deemed explicit and specific enough to elicit the detailed information necessary for analysis across participants (Silverman, 2004).

The interviews in this research were broadly guided by the following four objectives:

- i) To critically assess the range of promotional techniques which tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively.
- ii) To identify the effective promotional factors used to advance the projected image.
- iii) To determine the past and present projected tourism image of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers, especially in an endeavour to understand the resort's transformation.
- iv) To examine the brand personality of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers.

Semi-structured interviewing is based on the use of an interview guide (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001), which is a written list of questions and topics that need to be covered in a particular order. An initial review of the literature was conducted for the purpose of generating interview questions already grounded in data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This process allowed the researcher not only to identify existing findings to shape the interview questions, but also to explore areas that had not been addressed in the literature, as well as to guard against errors made in previous research.

The interview questions were then reviewed, rewritten and re-evaluated resulting in a series of revisions. Blanche and Durrheim (1999) concluded that the benefits of a



semi-structured interview include the opportunity it affords the interviewer to interact with respondents in a conversational setting so as to reach the heart of the subject under investigation. The interview questions were therefore grouped in sections by topic and were arranged in an order that would ideally lend itself to natural conversation. The participants were free to expand on the topic as they saw fit, and to relate their own experiences.

During the process of conducting the interviews, the data was continually analysed and the principles of theoretical sampling were applied as stated earlier in this research. The process of simultaneous data collection, analysis and sampling allowed concepts and themes to emerge from data and facilitated the recognition of the point when data saturation was reached. This shaping of the approach also speeded up the data collection and analysis process and enabled the researcher to focus and explore significant issues in greater depth as they emerged. At all times the researcher retained an open-mind and a flexible approach to allow new issues to continue to emerge as the data was collected.

The interviews were tape recorded in order to allow the interviewer to pay close attention to discussions. Transcriptions of the interview recordings were made. In total, twenty five semi-structured interviews were conducted, each of which lasted for about 60 to 90 minutes and were carried out at the participant's office. The way in which the semi-structured interviews were analysed is discussed later in this chapter.

### **3.3.3 Ethical Considerations**

The primary intention of research ethics is to protect individual participants and organisations from harm or adverse consequences from research activities (Emory and

Cooper, 1991). Two ethical issues in research that need to be addressed are confidentiality and anonymity. Confidentiality is about protecting the individual from potential harm when research results are made public. Researchers should assure respondents that their replies will be treated in the strictest confidence and that the results will only be published in aggregate form so that individual responses cannot be identified (Finn et al, 2000).

The researcher achieved this by: 1) fully informing respondents of the intent of the research prior to the interview; 2) assuring the protection of the respondents' right to privacy and anonymity; 3) the respondents being free to withdraw from the case study; and 4) the researcher having an obligation to behave in a manner that does not harm the integrity and reputation of the interviewed organisations. In addition, the researcher carefully explained to the participants that the purpose of the research was purely academic and that all the interviewees could possibly benefit from the research findings.

Also in this research, all interviews were recorded with permission from the interviewee. The participants were assured that the information recorded would be used only for the purpose of the research. Before each interview was confirmed, a formal letter with an informed consent form was sent to each interviewee requesting their participation in an interview.

Furthermore, several steps were taken in the research to maintain participant confidentiality and guard the reports provided by them: (a) previously assigned personal identifying numbers were used for each participant and transcription; (b) the list of the participants' names and personal information, along with their

corresponding personal identifying numbers, were kept in a secured location apart from the data; (c) the manner in which the results of this study is reported assures confidentiality by preventing individual identification and assuring anonymity. Finally, the potential participants elected to be part of the study by agreeing to the terms and signing a consent form.

3.3.4 Sampling of Tourism Brochures and Promotional Website

Fifteen tourism brochures advertising Bournemouth were collected from the Leisure and Tourism Directorate of Bournemouth Borough Council during the period of October 2005 and November 2007. Table 3.2 displays these tourism brochures advertising Bournemouth during the years of 2004, 2005, 2006 and 2007.

Table 3.2: Tourism Brochures of Bournemouth

Number	Tourism Brochures
1	Restaurants Pubs & Inns 2004-2005
2	Camping Caravanning & Holiday Parks 2004-2005
3	Holidays and Short Breaks Guide 2004
4	Holidays and Short Breaks Guide 2005
5	Holidays and Short Breaks Guide 2006
6	Bournemouth Group Travel Guide 2006
7	Camping Caravanning & Holiday Parks 2006-2007
8	Restaurants Pubs & Inns 2006-2007
9	Family Fun 2006-2007
10	A Connoisseur's Choice 2006-2007
11	Bournemouth Group Travel Guide 2007
12	Holidays and Short Breaks Guide 2007
13	Bournemouth 100 Greatest Things to Do & See
14	Bournemouth Pocket Guide 2007
15	Bournemouth Leisure Directory 2007

Also, the tourism promotional website for Bournemouth holidays and tourist information ([www.bournemouth.co.uk](http://www.bournemouth.co.uk)) was selected on November 2005 for this research in order to identify the resort's projected image and to understand its projected image more comprehensively.

### **3.4 DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS**

#### **3.4.1 Grounded Theory Approach Analysis**

At a general level, data analysis in qualitative research deals with words, language, and the meanings these imply (Miles and Huberman, 1994). It seeks to organize and reduce the data gathered into themes or essences, which, in turn, can be fed into descriptions, models or theories. This is achieved by means of coding which allows exploration of the information in the data and identifies similarities and differences to categorise and label (Tutty et al, 1996; Padgett, 1998; Patton, 2002). However, the first stage of data analysis involved a familiarization with each conversation by searching for individual perspectives and nuances of language (Patton, 2002).

Using grounded theory approach, data analysis is accomplished through a more elaborate set of coding processes. Coding, in grounded theory, is similar to its use within the qualitative traditions, but it is also much more. Thus, in grounded theory, its level of development and specificity clearly distinguish it from other qualitative methods. Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.12) described coding as not simply part of data analysis but “*the fundamental analytic process used by the researcher*”. Coding is the term used by Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1990; 1998) to describe the

process where researchers use incidents in the data to conceptualise and develop meaning based on their perception of what is being expressed.

Glaser and Strauss both use coding as the process of analysing the data differently. Glaser's (1978) coding methods appear rather simple, quite focused and more in keeping with the original version of grounded theory, dividing the coding process into two procedures: substantive and theoretical coding. Strauss's (1987) coding, on the other hand, divides the process into three phases and labels them open, axial and selective.

The ultimate aim of these procedures is to allow a systematic, dense, explanatory theory to be developed. It is important to point out that coding in the three stages does not necessarily follow in sequence. Indeed, Strauss and Corbin (1998) pointed out that in any one coding session it is possible to move between different forms of coding. In this research, the interviews were transcribed by the researcher and the data were analysed by following the coding procedures described by Strauss and Corbin (1998).

Thus, the interactive process of grounded theory in this study started with a systematic data coding process which consisted of open coding, axial coding and selective coding as described later in this chapter. Throughout the data analysis process, the researcher looked for developing analytic interpretations of the data to guide further data collection, which was then used in turn to inform and refine the developing theoretical analysis.

The data were fragmented and firstly coded using open coding and then consisted of reformulating the fragmented codes by forming overarching categories and

developing umbrella categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Schatzman, 1991; Goulding, 2002). The next stage entailed a comparison and the identification of links between categories using axial coding as suggested by Riley (1995) and Schatzman (1991). Selective coding was then used to search for patterns and themes across all conceptual categories.

#### **3.4.1.1 Open coding**

In open coding, it is important to incorporate the use of memos. Memos are notes written immediately after data collection as a means of documenting the impressions of the researcher and describing the situation. Memos are very important for the researcher as they provide a bank of ideas that can be visited later (Goulding, 1998). Consequently, the analytic process of this research started with the creation of memos after the completion of each interview.

Strauss (1987, p.101) has defined open coding as the “*analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in the data*”. The first purpose of open coding is to identify concepts and substantive codes. Thus, a researcher initiates by opening up the data, breaking it down and looking for empirical indicators of concepts. The newly developed concepts are tested within the data to see whether they have explanatory power (Strauss, 1987).

By looking for similarities and asking questions, concepts that are in essence very similar can eventually be labelled within the same name. Each concept can then be defined in terms of a set of discrete properties and dimensions to add clarity and understanding. In due time, the list of concepts generated has to be sorted into groups

of similar or related phenomena, which in turn become categories. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), categories have conceptual power because they can pull together other groups of concepts or sub-categories. It is this feature that moves open coding on to axial coding.

#### **3.4.1.2 Axial coding**

Whereas open coding is used to break down the data and to identify first level concepts and categories, axial coding is the term used to denote the way in which connections are made in new ways between categories and sub-categories. Strauss and Corbin (1998) described the key difference of this stage as being the identification of specific features, such as the conditions that give rise to the phenomenon and to the context in which the concept is embedded, which in turn help to give precision to a category or sub-category.

Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.123) described axial coding as “*the process of relating categories to their subcategories, termed “axial” because coding occurs around the axis of the category, linking categories of the level of properties and dimensions*”. Thus, the purpose is to outline and extricate relationships on which the axis of the category is being focused (Strauss, 1987).

As axial coding proceeds, patterns in the data become apparent and it is possible to generate tentative hypotheses or statements of relationships between phenomena. The next stage is to verify that these statements hold true against the rest of the data or can be used as a focus for future data collection. However, as Strauss and Corbin (1998) importantly pointed out, this phase is not simply about seeking confirmation of

relationships, but also involves looking for instances where there are variations and contradictions in the data.

#### **3.4.1.3 Selective coding**

The final phase of coding is called selective coding. This stage involves identifying one or two core categories to which all other sub-categories relate and building a conceptual framework from which to develop a grounded theory. Selective coding, according to Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.143) is the “*process of integrating and refining the theory*”.

The analysis enters higher levels of abstraction in this stage. The researcher works towards identifying the higher-order core categories. This means that from the categories identified so far, one or two have to be chosen. Here the analysis is directed towards a central focus and the process of analysis goes through paths that are similar to those employed in the previous steps. This means working through notes, models, categories, searching for the central phenomenon and the central category (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

#### **3.4.2 Content Analysis of Tourism Brochures and Website**

Textual and pictorial content analysis of Bournemouth’s tourism brochures and tourism promotional website was carried out in order to identify the resort’s projected image and to understand which image tourism marketers used in order to market the resort effectively. Content analysis is a technique that is applied to non-statistical material which allows the researcher to analyse such material in a systematic way and in addition is a quantitative means of analysing qualitative data (Finn et al, 2000). In



addition, content analysis is deemed to be one of the most common approaches to tourism literature analysis and the understanding of textual representations (Lew, 1991).

As Dann (1996b) has argued, the visual and textual contents of brochures and also web pages are important in aiding a conceptualization of a place. Previous studies have investigated the pictorial or textual contents of promotional materials from the perspectives of the research subjects after exposure to the messages (see for example, Day et al, 2002; Mackay and Fesenmaier, 2000). Furthermore, a few tourism studies have used content analysis to investigate the visual images used in tourism marketing (see for example, Uzzel, 1984; Dilley, 1986; Hughes, 1992).

O'Leary and Deegan (2005) argued that content analysis of published information, such as guidebooks and travel brochures, could provide a great deal of information about the images projected by a tourism destination. For example, Dilley's (1986) study compared the images used in 21 different National Tourist Organisation brochures and found that over half the brochures devoted more than seventy five percent of their page space to pictorial images. There were also clear patterns in the types of images projected, for example brochures for island destinations were dominated by images of coastal landscapes and recreational activities.

The brochure representations of Scotland were investigated by Hughes (1992) who found, for example, that just under three-quarters of the pictures in the main guide of the Scottish Tourist Board (STB) were dominated by the theme of castles and landscapes. The accompanying text in the brochures suggested that the Scottish

countryside was littered with friendly '*folk*' like pipers, weavers, anglers and boatmen '*ever ready to perform on cue*' (Hughes, 1992, p.35). The effect of such a place promotion is to modify the places in the tourist imagination, and is often accompanied by a physical reshaping which is designed to lend credibility to the promoted place representations (Hughes, 1992).

Additionally, several studies have applied content analysis in a web environment within a tourism marketing analysis. Stepchenkova and Morrison (2006), for example, examined the online content of tour operator websites about Russia. Bauer and Reid (2000) reported how Singapore as a tourism destination was marketing itself on the Internet. Tierney (2000) investigated the effectiveness of a tourism promotional website in California, concluding that there are substantial methodological challenges in conducting web-based surveys.

### **3.4.3 Content Analysis Applied in the Current Study**

The textual and visual data of tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website of Bournemouth were content-analysed using the NUD\*IST Vivo 7 (NVivo 7). The content analysis of text and images was conducted separately. The textual data of the fifteen tourism brochures and the 105 pages of the tourism promotional website were imported for analysis.

In content analysis one of the most fundamental and important decisions is the determination of the basic unit of text to be classified. Six units that have been commonly used in content analysis literature are: word, word sense, sentence, theme, paragraph, and whole text (Weber, 1990). The word, sentences and paragraphs of the

tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website were chosen as units of analysis in this content analysis in order to identify how the resort's projected image was promoted.

The use of qualitative software can help organise a vast amount of data and make it easier to search for themes and patterns. This, coupled with an understanding of analytical processes, increases the potential for rigorous analysis. The process of coding by tagging text in electronic documents allows the researcher to turn the previous use of a highlighter pen to mark interesting passages and noting codes in the margin into a relational database, which can be searched in multiple ways. Tagged text from several different documents can be read, making it easier to note connections and relationships in data in a way which is difficult when codes are scattered through pages and pages of text (Richards, 2000).

From the tourism brochures, 433 images were imported into NVivo for analysis and from the tourism promotional website, 318 images were imported. In total, 751 images were content analysed in terms of motifs (objects or appearances) and themes as applied in other studies of tourism photography (see for example, Albers and James, 1988; Markwell, 1997). The final themes were recorded in an Excel table for measurement of distribution and frequency (See Chapter Six: the findings of this research).

#### **3.4.4 Data Analysis Using NVivo**

The analysis started with a full transcription of the interviews, each interview was read and a memo relating to the transcript was written. Once transcribed, the data

were stored, condensed and coded using N-Vivo software (Gibbs, 2002). The researcher then analysed the data line looking for codes in each sentence.

Coding categories were developed according to research issues. Second, all documents, including transcripts, notes, images, tourism brochures, web pages and other relevant written materials, were imported to NVivo software. These documents formed a document system providing the basis for processing and maintenance of all documents where appropriate (Richards and Richards, 1994).

The data was then coded and sorted into categories. At this stage the key themes in the data are largely based on the topics that were discussed during the interviews which, in turn, were based on the research questions, and the literature discussed in the initial chapters of this research. Following the above procedure, the researcher created nodes that were based on the central themes. The next step was to establish relations between the different categories. The researcher conducted the same procedure for the data from the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website. In discovering coherence and relations, ideas about what to write about the data increasingly gained shaped.

Theoretical saturation occurred when no new categories were created and no new qualities, dimensions, or relations were derived from the categories. Then a theory derived from the coherence and relations between the categories. The results were integrated into a coherent theory through adopting a more practical approach. A more detailed data analysis using NVivo in this research will be discussed in the following chapter.

### 3.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

To ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial. Trustworthiness has been further divided into credibility, which corresponds roughly to internal validity; dependability, which relates more to reliability; transferability, which is a form of external validity; and confirmability, which is largely an issue of presentation (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Graneheim and Lundman 2004). In the context of this research, quality and credibility were established through the use of rigorous methods of research design, data collection and management. Four widely used criteria to demonstrate the trustworthiness of this qualitative research were *internal validity* (or *credibility*), *external validity* (or *transferability*), *reliability* (or *dependability*), and *objectivity* (*confirmability*) (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990; Yin, 1994). Each criterion will be tested in the following section.

#### 3.5.1 Internal Validity or Credibility

Validity, or credibility, refers to the establishment of a phenomenon in a credible way (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Results of a study are credible when they are believable. It is suggested that credible findings can be achieved through the process of research design, data collection and data analysis (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990).

Validity is concerned with whether what is measured is what was intended to be measured, and can be differentiated into internal and external validity. Internal validity is related to the measuring instruments within a study. Through the use of a

variety of methods of data collection or triangulation, the internal validity of a study increases (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In the context of this research internal validity demonstrated through the rigorous of the process. The research started with a literature review of prior theories. The researcher then developed the research problem and research issues. Therefore, the researcher has developed a pre-understanding of the phenomenon. This is particularly important as knowledge of the researchers' assumptions and theoretical orientations increases the credibility of the research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990).

Furthermore, in the process of collecting and analysing data, the triangulation technique was used to enhance the credibility of the research findings. Triangulation has been considered from the start of the research design (Patton, 1990). In this research the use of both methodological and data source triangulation provided a clearer window to the reality being investigating (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994b; Oppermann, 2000; Perry, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994).

Triangulation of sources was adopted in the process of data collection and data analysis through the use of multiple methods: by conducting semi-structured interviews and undertaking textual and visual content analysis of promotional tourism brochures and online information sources. Furthermore, multiple sources of data were collected from marketers in Tourism Services at Bournemouth Council, the International Conference Centre and from major hotels in the resort.

Additionally, in this research to achieve internal validity of the data, open coding was used in the development of concepts and categories, axial coding was used to develop connections between categories and sub-categories, and selective coding was used to integrate categories to build the theoretical framework. The process ended at the point when improvements to the model reached theoretical saturation.

### **3.5.2 External Validity or Transferability**

External validity concerns the generalisability of the conclusions of one study to a different context. External validity means “*establishing the domain to which a study's findings can be generalised*” (Yin, 1994, p.33). Therefore, the researcher ensured that the initial process of identifying research issues was comprehensive and rigorous (Perry, 2001) and that a detailed description of the context, for example, the tourism marketing techniques of the destination was provided.

In this research, the literature review and the interview process sought to clarify the research issues and propositions in a comprehensive and structured manner. After having achieved theoretical saturation (Goulding, 2002) in the data analysis, a comparison with the extant literature was undertaken. In this comparison stage, emergent theory was compared with existing theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) and the extent to which there was consistency, divergence and conflict was explored. This process has improved external validity by establishing the domain to which the study's findings was applied.

Combined with the case study approach, this process enabled the researcher to confirm or disconfirm theory and make analytical generalisations (Perry, 2001; Yin, 1994). In addition to the use of existing theory, Healy and Perry (2000) argued that external validity can be enhanced by the maintenance of a readily accessible case study database and triangulation techniques. Thus, transcriptions of interviews and audio recordings of data were therefore maintained to verify the procedures adopted in this research.

### 3.5.3 Reliability or Dependability

Reliability, also called dependability, refers to whether or not the results are consistent and reproducible (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Reliability means “*demonstrating that the operations of a study-such as the data collection procedures can be repeated, with the same results*” (Yin, 1994, p.33).

In this research a case study database was established to increase the reliability and overall quality of case study research. As suggested by Patton (1990) and Yin (1994), this database contains:

- audio tapes and notes of all interviews,
- printed interview transcripts of all interviews with copies on the computer,
- originals and copies of case study documentation,
- computer and printed copies of all data analysis notes under the NVivo program with associated coding templates,
- correspondence and documentation relating to the preparation and implementation of the data collection.



The use of computer software also enriched the analytical procedures and provided an efficient support system for managing the qualitative data. Because of the large amount of data anticipated from the interview transcriptions, the content analysis of the textual and visual tourism brochures and the online information sources, the choice of NUD\*IST NVivo software program offered a mechanism for data storage, indexing of themes and categories, and the retrieval of linkages between data (Maclaran and Catterall, 2002). This use of computer software contributed to the trustworthiness of the research, in effect, the auditing process was facilitated by electronic storage of the grounded theory data (Carson et al, 2001).

### **3.5.4 Confirmability or Objectivity**

Confirmability means “*establishing correct operational measures for the concepts being studied*” (Yin, 1994, p.33). Confirmability is related to the objectivity of the research, particularly in the process of collecting data and analysing data. Patton (1990) and Yin (1994) included interviews and documentation as two of the major multiple sources of evidence in qualitative research. Therefore this research achieved confirmability by using semi-structured interviews as a primary data source supplemented by documentation, in the case of this research, tourism brochures, marketing strategies reports, web pages, as multiple sources of evidence.

A trail of evidence was also established and maintained during the data collection process. The researcher has kept all original audiotapes and notes of the interviews, written and printed transcripts of all interviews and documentation collected in the process of the research project (Patton, 1990).

When considering the confirmability/objectivity of the research Lincoln and Guba (1985) stressed that the researcher should assert the strengths of qualitative methods and also will develop an in-depth understanding of the research participants to better understand their worlds. Hence multiple interviews with tourism marketers from Bournemouth Borough Council, from International Conference Centre and various hotels of the resort as well as multiple perspectives achieved through triangulation served to enhance the objectivity of the research. The use of broad questions before probing, the maintenance of a self-critical perspective of the researcher's own values in conducting the research and the provision of findings for participant each contributed to objectivity (Healy and Perry, 2000).

### **3.6 SUMMARY**

Chapter three provided a discussion of the choice of methodology used to collect and analyse the present research. The range of methods and approaches that were applied fall within the paradigms of qualitative research. This chapter justified the use of qualitative research as the appropriate method for this study.

The researcher supported the choice of approach with a detailed description of the use of grounded theory approach incorporated within a case study, the use of triangulation and finally the way in which this approach was customised to suit the requirements of the research as a whole.

Semi-structured interviews were used as the primary data source supplemented by tourism brochures and online web pages to provide a fuller picture of this rather

complex destination image phenomenon. Also, this chapter described the method of sampling and data analysis process and the NUD\*IST NVivo category system used as well as the reliability and validity of this research.

The following chapter will present an overview of the grounded theory process used and the data analysis that emerged from the research. The chapter will address the coding stages, the constant comparative method of analysis and finally the categories emerged from this research.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS-A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH USING NUD\*IST VIVO (NVIVO) SOFTWARE**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes the grounded theory approach used in this research and presents the data analysis that emerged from the research. Firstly, the chapter presents an introduction of using NVivo as data analysis and outlines the key components of the grounded theory method. The chapter provides an overview of how the data was analysed and describes the process of grounded theory used in this research within NVivo and specifically the coding technique process of open coding, axial coding and selective coding.

Also, the chapter discusses the data analysis of this research; thus, the constant comparative method of analysis that was conducted throughout this research, the coding, further comparisons and categories emerged. Then, the chapter addresses the reorganising of categories and subcategories, and explains when the theoretical saturation was reached in this research. Finally, this chapter presents the final stages and the core categories that emerged from the analysis of this research.

## 4.2 THE QUALITATIVE SOFTWARE NVIVO

### 4.2.1 Using NVivo as Data Analysis

This research used QSR NUD\*IST (Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing) Vivo 7, also called NVivo 7, qualitative software within a grounded theory approach, to analyse information obtained from interviews, tourism brochures and online information sources. The researcher considered several other software packages before the data analysis took place and NVivo was chosen as best fit for the study as well for the researcher's ease of use. Careful attention was paid to coding and memoing extensively during data analysis.

NVivo is qualitative data analysis software designed explicitly for the latest qualitative approaches, such as grounded theory, through its memo, coding, analysis and charting functions (Bazeley and Richards, 2000; Charmaz, 2000; Kan and Parry, 2004; Soliman and Kan, 2004). NVivo has been argued to be effective particularly in consolidating data and theory, exploring the data consistently, and for its speed and representation to assist in theory building. Its ease and flexibility of coding and memoing were also noted (Weitzman, 2003; Soliman and Kan, 2004).

In this study the researcher took some time to understand the structural design of NVivo and some basic concepts like "links", "nodes", "memos", and "attributes". However, once the basic features were understood, the process of analyzing large amounts of qualitative data became uncomplicated and dominant.

In this research, NVivo was successfully used to:

- Store and categorise interview transcripts, memos, tourism brochures, online information sources and other documents;
- Create categories through computer-assisted coding;
- Conduct searches relevant to analysis to generate reports;
- Move and link data as higher order themes emerged; and
- Create basic hierarchical models of codes.

NVivo is a powerful way to employ sophisticated data coding and it supports several ways to build theories. These capabilities fit well with this study's research goal and the data analysis approach. NVivo was also very helpful in easily organising different data types and sources used in the study and it was very useful to look at the data emphasizing the relationships within it. Using NVivo, it was logical to re-order the codes and add memos about potential relationships to files. The advanced features of NVivo also helped to develop concepts and produce a detailed assessment of the data. The sophisticated search option of NVivo, for example, encouraged the researcher to explore complex ideas.

In addition, NVivo helped to automate and speed up many data management and analysis tasks. Overall, NVivo was very helpful while building a rigorous database for the data analyzed and it demonstrated very clearly all the data coded and the way it had been coded. The relationships explored by the researcher among the data sources could be seen easily in the two browsers of NVivo. Moreover, it can be said that the NVivo package provided significant support in the data analysis process and helped

increase rigor in terms of data management. More detailed information around the particular techniques used within this study will be discussed in this chapter.

#### **4.2.2 Data Documents in NVivo**

In order for the researcher to start working with qualitative data in NVivo, the first step was to load NVivo on to the computer and then to create a project containing all the documents, coding information, and associated files needed for the data analysis. The researcher started the project, created a number of necessary files and then added various types of files to the project over time.

Once the researcher had created a new project in NVivo, then documents were imported for analysis. Utilisation of NVivo made it possible to create and work with different kinds of documents as much as was needed. Thus, documents were imported from a computer hard disk into NVivo (internal documents) and files on the computer hard disk used as proxy documents (external documents).

In the document browser all documents can be viewed in a database with short descriptions of each document, the time it was created or modified, and how many other documents were linked to each document. In this research, the interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim in a Word format. These were then imported into NVivo ready for coding electronically.

### 4.2.3 Nodes in NVivo

Before coding the data, it was necessary to become familiar with the concept of a *node*. This is the term used by NVivo to represent a code, theme, or idea about the data that the researcher wants to include in the project. In NVivo there are three options for coding data: free nodes (coded but not categorized nodes), tree nodes (codes in hierarchical mode), and case nodes (codes categorized under different cases). *Free nodes* are free-standing and are not associated with a structured framework of themes or concepts. *Tree nodes*, on the other hand, are codes that are organized in a hierarchical structure.

Researchers can place data links to documents at any place in a document or at a node. Sets of documents or nodes can be created allowing detailed filtering by coding. Nodes can be created and managed in different ways and *Free nodes* and *Tree nodes* can be displayed separately. Coding and editing of the document and linking to other documents or nodes can be combined in the same mode of working. New ways of coding and of exploring and using coding place particular emphasis on easy creation of new categories and exploration of other data. That means that coding is an exploration process till the end of the data analysis process.

### 4.2.4 NVivo Functions

Using NVivo, it is also possible to search the documents or nodes in the project. In fact, NVivo has a very sophisticated search tool which can be very useful when dealing with very large data files. Another important function of NVivo is using *sets*,



a function in NVivo which groups documents in order to see the relationships among themselves and creates the *models* based upon it.

In addition, the program allows for open coding, axial coding, hyperlinks to no textual data such as photographs, coding according to demographic information, and the exploring of ideas visually with a modeller. Rather than requiring that all the data be collected before analysis can start, the program has been intentionally designed to encourage researchers to analyze data as they are collected.

Moreover, the program facilitates and allows text searches, ideas to be linked, data coded and searched, and models to be drawn while always being able to instantly access the original data behind the concepts. However, this does not imply that the computer is actually doing the analysis, on the contrary, the researcher must still ask the questions, interpret the data, decide what to code, and use the computer program to maximize efficiency in these processes. Figures around the particular functions and techniques discussed above and used within this study can be found in the appendices of this thesis.

### **4.3 THE PROCESS OF GROUNDED THEORY AND NVIVO**

#### **4.3.1 Data Documents in Grounded Theory and NVivo**

In this study, interviews, tourism brochures and online information sources were the main sources of data, which were then saved as individual documents in NVivo. The design of NVivo was strongly influenced by grounded theory and therefore the program gave good support for the method. First, as mentioned previously, all the data, thus the transcribed interview data, the textual data of tourism brochures and

online information sources stored in the researcher's computer as Microsoft Word documents and then were transferred into the NVivo Document browser as three separate projects.

Newspaper reports and various strategy documents from Tourism Services at Bournemouth Borough Council were also saved in NVivo as document memos. An advantage of using a program such as NVivo is its ability to transform the way data are viewed in a way that makes relationships between categories more visible by using text formatting and hyperlinks to other documents and categories (Fielding and Lee, 1998).

Internal annotations and external files can be attached to any piece of text in a document to record referential information that may be important for context but that would interrupt the flow if places as text in the transcript. Thus, internal annotations are brief and conceptually similar to footnotes. External files can be attached in a similar way and these might include pictures, audio files, video clips or Web pages (Bringer et al, 2006). The pictures from the tourism brochures and the promotional web page of Bournemouth, for example, were inserted as external files in NVivo for the data analysis process. Moreover, compound interlinking documents were created using colour, formatting, and linking annotations, memos, documents, and nodes. This helped the researcher to think about the conceptual links and associations in the data, a key element in the grounded theory approach (Fielding and Lee, 1998).

In this study the researcher undertook data collection and analysis side by side. As new theoretical ideas emerged, the researcher collected more data. The new data provided the researcher with information that increased the list of categories and

themes. The system of data analysis used in this research was based on Strauss and Corbin's (1998) version of grounded theory, which involves progressive coding techniques that move the analyst from description, through conceptual ordering, to theorizing.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) presented many specific ideas and techniques for achieving a grounded theory analysis that can be supported well using NVivo. They divided grounded theory analysis into three stages:

- Open coding, where the text is read reflectively to identify relevant categories;
- Axial coding, where categories are refined, developed, related and interconnected;
- Selective coding, where the central category that ties all other categories in the theory together into a story, is identified and related to other categories.

#### **4.3.2 Open Coding**

The coding processes in grounded theory start with open coding, examining the data for similarities and differences, and grouping together conceptually similar data to form categories. Open coding is the process of breaking down the data into distinct units of meaning. It starts with a line by line analysis of the transcript which allows the text to be searched for key words or phrases giving an insight into the behaviour under study. This continues until the researcher sees patterns emerging, codes are then clustered into categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In addition, Strauss and Corbin (1998) defined open coding as the analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions discovered.

The researcher using grounded theory in this study entered the field early on in the data analysis process. Analysis was conducted at the same time as the data were being collected rather than after all the information had been gathered. The analytical process started with the writing of memos, notes written immediately after data collection as a means of documenting the impressions of the researcher and describing the situation. Memos were vital, as they provided a bank of ideas noted during the data collection process and could be revisited at a later date by the researcher in order to outline the emerging theory.

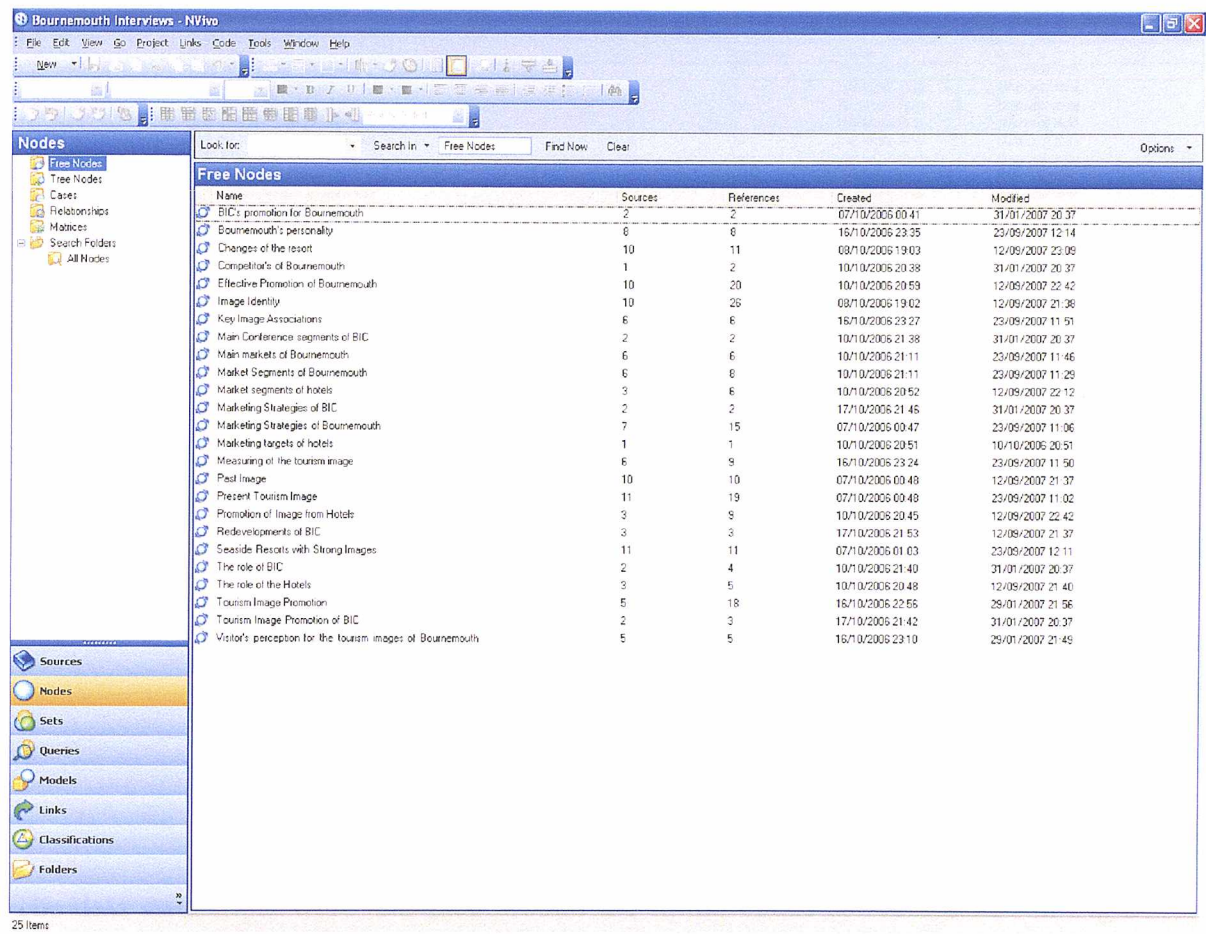
This analysis started with a full transcription of an interview, after which the text was analysed line by line in an attempt to identify key words or phrases which connected the informant's account to the experience under investigation. In this research, each interview was accompanied by a memo, clarifying ideas and incorporating codes and their possible meanings. The first few interviews were transcribed verbatim and a line-by-line analysis was conducted to identify the full range of possible codes. Therefore, the purpose of open coding in this research was to identify initial concepts and substantive codes. During the early stage of line-by-line analysis there were hundreds of codes. The next stage was to continue transcribing further interviews and repeat the process of line-by-line analysis.

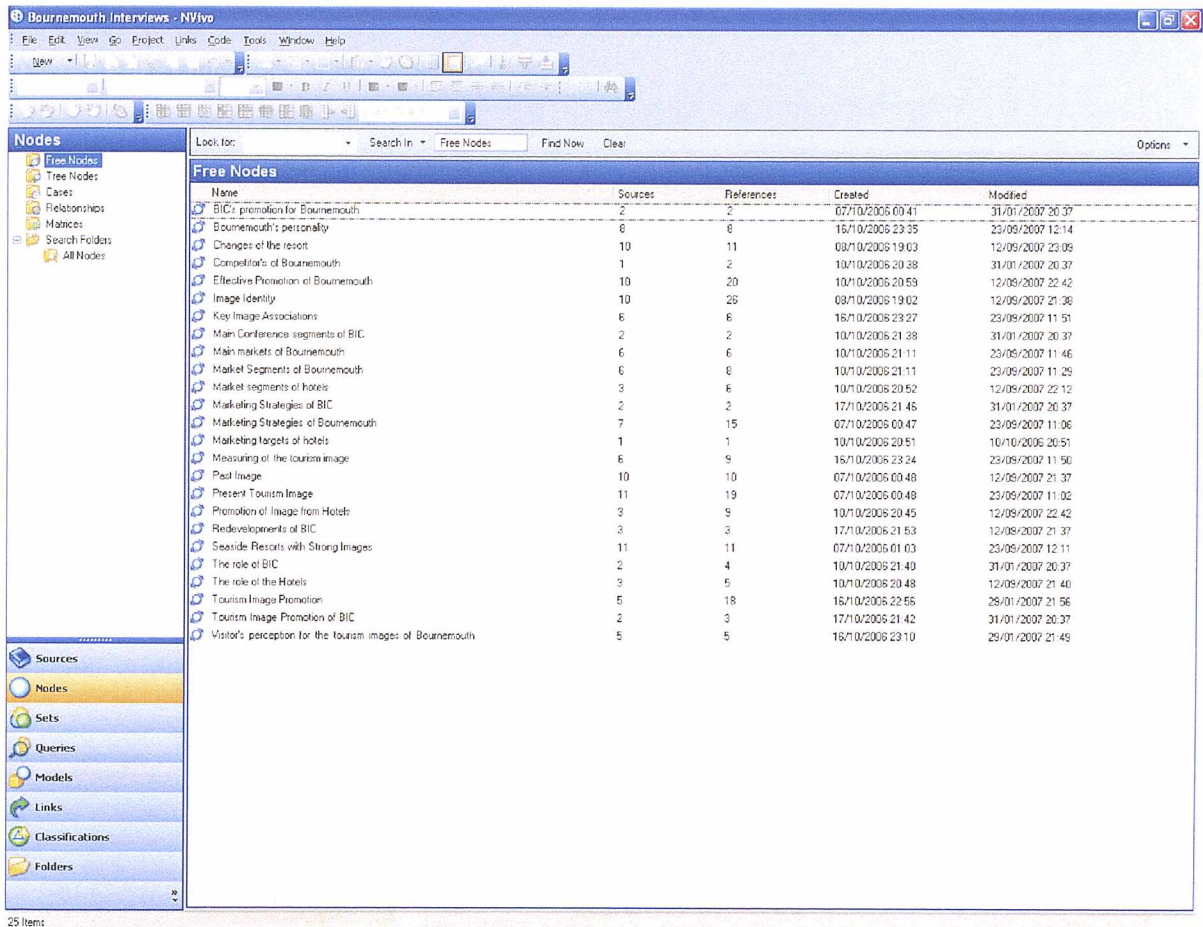
The researcher continued by opening up the data, breaking it down and looking for empirical indicators of concepts. The newly developed conceptual categories were tested within the data and were compared to others. As a result, comparing and setting concepts against each other demonstrated which ones were important and deserved further analysis and which could be omitted.

Strauss and Corbin (1998) described conceptualizing, or giving a conceptual name to categories (represented in NVivo by nodes), as the first step in theorizing. Bazeley and Richards (2000) emphasised the analytical and organizational functions of coding as they described the process of coding in NVivo. Tools within NVivo facilitated the continual oscillation between the open coding analysis and deeper analysis. These tools included non-hierarchical listing of categories (free nodes), hierarchical organization of categories (tree nodes), memos, models, and search tools.

At the beginning of the coding process, all nodes were in the free node format since it was not very clear how they fitted in the study and what the relations were between them (see Figure 4.1). However, after reading and regularly reviewing all the data, some patterns emerged and then these patterns were coded under the tree node option.

Figure 4.1: Free Nodes List in the Node Browser.

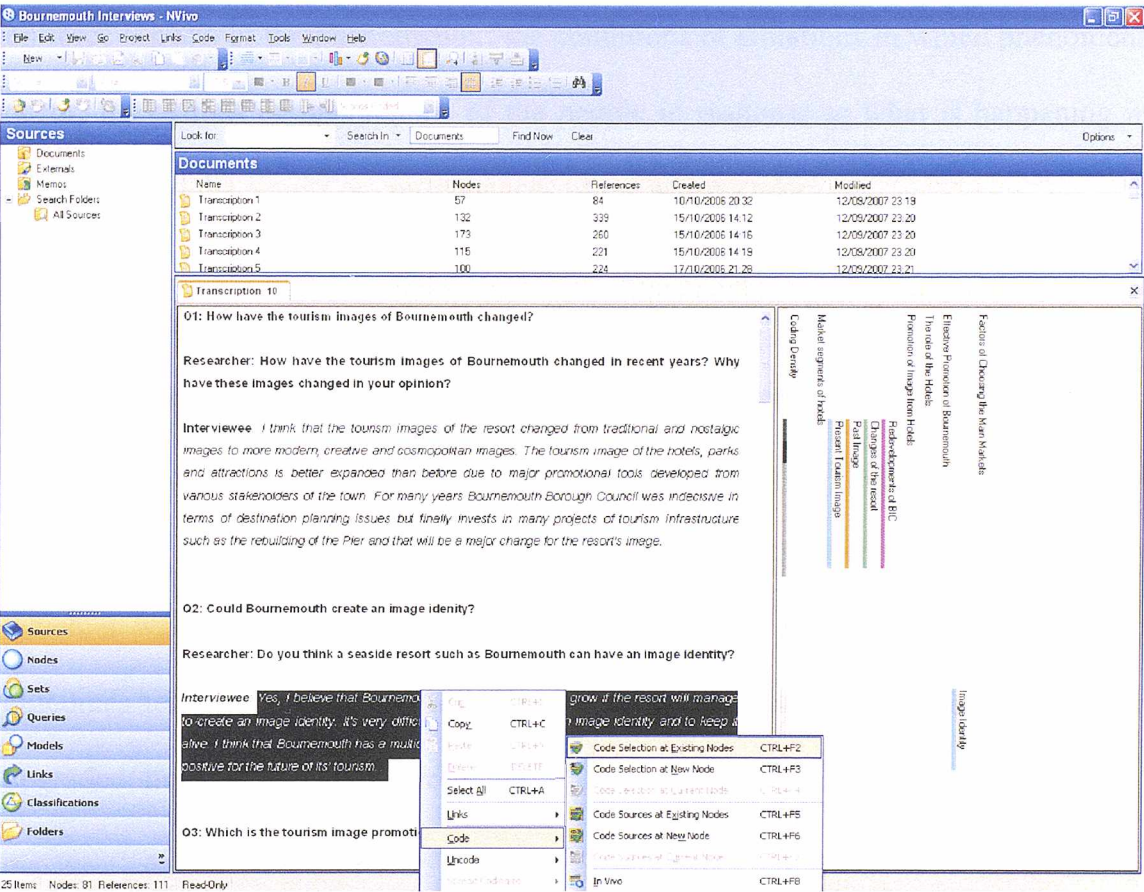




The data transcripts were analyzed around the initial codes as represented in Figure 4.2. During the coding process, the phrases, sometimes all paragraphs, sometimes a single word, have been highlighted and then either the title of a new code typed in the node field area or an existing node title was selected by the researcher.



Figure 4.2: Example of Coding in NVivo.



After the open coding analysis process, the researcher began the axial coding process.

4.3.3 Axial Coding

In grounded theory, axial coding is the second of Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) three-phase method. It involves moving to a higher level of abstraction through which the data are re-assembled to illustrate connections between the categories. In this stage, the researcher has to constantly compare the data in order to specify the relationships between the incidents. The purpose of axial coding, according to Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.97), is to put the disaggregated data back together in new ways “by making connections between a category and its subcategory”.



This connection is accomplished through the use of a coding paradigm, which focuses on three aspects of the phenomenon: the conditions or situations in which phenomena occur; the actions or interactions of the people in response to what is happening in situations and the results or consequences of the actions taken.

Axial coding is the appreciation of concepts in terms of their dynamic interrelationships which can form the basis for the construction of the theory. Using axial coding, the researcher develops each category by specifying the conditions that gave rise to it, the context in which it was embedded, and the action strategies by which it was managed and carried out. These conditions, contexts, strategies and outcomes tend to be clustered together and the connections may be hierarchical or upgraded, linear or recursive (Goulding, 2002).

In this research, all data analysis was guided by constant comparative analysis as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Data collection and analysis happened concurrently and the analysis started immediately after conducting the initial interviews with line-by-line coding of the transcribed interviews in order to discover the processes expressed in the data. Analysis of the data helped with the identification of emerging codes and categories. This first phase of the data analysis allowed the creation of *free nodes*.

In addition to conducting the interviews the researcher reviewed literature pertaining to place branding and destination image. This literature allowed further coding and the creation of more *free nodes* within Nvivo. Having conducted further interviews, the analysis continued, providing more coding and creating more *free nodes* within

NVivo. At that stage of analysis the researcher started coding more selectively. The properties of codes and the relationships between them were explored. Codes and concepts were collapsed into larger collections of codes labelled as categories.

Subcategories of the categories called *tree nodes* were identified. After the additional transcripts had been analysed and the codes had been examined for relationships, similarities and differences, questions arising from the data which had not been answered were then asked at subsequent interviews. In line with Strauss (1987), the researcher, worked to understand categories in relationship to other categories and their subcategories using axial coding.

#### **4.3.4 Selective Coding**

In the last stage, selective coding, the researcher is charged with the task of integrating the data around a central theme, hypothesis, or story, to generate a theory. Selective coding, according to Strauss and Corbin (1998, p.143), is the “*process of integrating and refining the theory*”. The researcher uses the most frequently used codes to synthesize and conceptualise large amounts of data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Selective coding was implemented to compare and contrast themes and validate categorical relationships to the central phenomenon of interest by identifying direct quotations that best represent the themes (Creswell, 1998; Newman, 2000).

Consequently, the researcher selects a core category and then relates all the categories to the core as well as to other categories. Selective coding is similar to axial coding, in that the categories are developed in terms of their dimensions, properties and relationships, except that the integration occurs at a more abstract level of analysis

(Strauss and Corbin, 1990). As Strauss and Corbin (1998) described, selective coding is used to integrate and refine categories to form a larger theoretical scheme. Theorizing is based on developing explanations between categories and placing findings into an explanatory theoretical framework. In this research, theoretical integration was achieved as statements of relationship between categories were developed.

Therefore, as the researcher developed the axial coding, a small number of phenomena or themes began to emerge as central to the study. The researcher recognised them because they appeared high up in the coding tree. Selective coding began with the selection of one or two of these as the core categories. Once the researcher has selected the core categories, other nodes needed further refinement, filling out their properties and dimensions. The core categories were then integrated with the academic literature to form the basis for the theoretical findings of the study.

#### **4.4 DATA ANALYSIS-PHASE ONE**

##### **4.4.1 Stage One-Category Nodes**

The steps in the analysis process of this research were grouped into four stages: creating category nodes, creating sub-category nodes, using constant comparative method and constructing models. The analysis of this research began immediately following the first interviews. Thus, interview transcripts were read line-by-line and paragraph-by-paragraph, looking for incidents and facts that seemed potentially relevant, which could be coded. This coding was very detailed and time-consuming, yet it was critical as it forced the researcher to be open to all possibilities and to systematically conceptualise the data.

As codes were compared, more data were collected, categories were merged, memos were written and compared, and then more data were collected. Memos were written at different stages in the analysis and the memos built on previous memos capturing new insights into the data. Interview transcripts were read and re-read throughout the study as the categories were developed.

During the first stage, open coding continued line-by-line, paragraph-by-paragraph and incident-by-incident. During each episode of open coding, the categories were further developed, their properties and dimensions more fully described. Some categories were collapsed into a single category and others were expanded into further categories. The initial open coding resulted in an extensive list of categories. Each of these categories was described as a free node in NVivo and represented a division of data. Twenty six categories were identified from the open coding of the transcriptions as represented in Table 4.1.

As analysis continued, other concepts were identified, which through constant comparative analysis, if characteristics were unique, were placed in a newly developed concept category. Those categories that embraced similar events, actions, and interactions were grouped together under more abstract categories termed concepts and subcategories. To assist with the categorizations, each category, concept, and subcategory was given a descriptive label that defined its essential characteristics.

**Table 4.1: List of Free Nodes Categories**

No	Free Nodes Categories
1	Bournemouth’s image personality.
2	Changes of the resort.
3	Competitors of Bournemouth.
4	Effective promotion of Bournemouth.
5	Factors of the main markets.
6	Bournemouth’s image identity.
7	Key image associations.
8	BIC’s promotion for Bournemouth.
9	Main conference segments of BIC.
10	Main markets of Bournemouth.
11	Market segments of Bournemouth.
12	Market segments of hotels.
13	Marketing strategies of BIC.
14	Marketing strategies of Bournemouth.
15	Marketing targets of hotels.
16	Measuring of the tourism image.
17	Past tourism image of Bournemouth.
18	Present tourism image of Bournemouth.
19	Marketer’s tourism image promotion.
20	Redevelopments of the resort.
21	Seaside resorts with strong images.
22	The role of BIC in the promotional image of the resort.
23	The role of hotels in the promotional image of the resort.
24	Tourism image promotion of Bournemouth.
25	Tourism organisations of Bournemouth.
26	Visitor’s perception of Bournemouth’s tourism images.

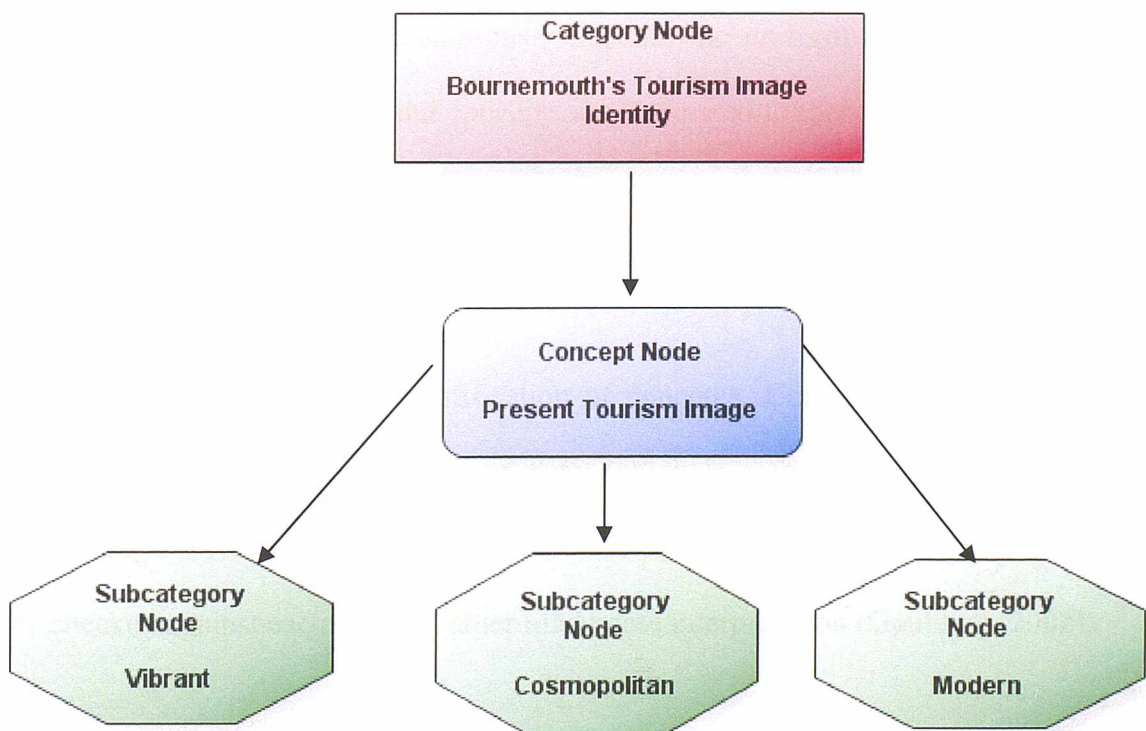
**4.4.2 Stage Two- Subcategory Nodes**

Through the second stage of the coding process, categories and their related concepts and subcategories were refined to form more precise explanations about the effective promotional techniques that tourism marketers from different tourism organisations

undertook in order to portray the tourism image of the UK seaside resort of Bournemouth. The model suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) was used to identify the central idea or phenomenon around which other categories were related.

Consequently, during the second stage of the analysis process the data at each category was reviewed and coded to the next level. These nodes are described as concept nodes or Tree Nodes in NVivo. Each concept node was then reviewed and coded to the next level down to subcategory nodes. Coding of the whole twenty five transcriptions produced a total of 2,427 Nodes. Figure 4.3 represents one of the early models created during the analysis of this research.

**Figure 4.3: Example of a Model**



In this research, a total of 145 concepts were coded into twenty six category nodes. In NVivo, each node below a higher node is called a child. The first tree node or concept of this analysis, for example, has nineteen children or subcategories. Under the 145 concept nodes for the twenty six categories, a total of 371 subcategory nodes emerged. The analysis of this research continued using the constant comparative method.

#### **4.4.3 Stage Three- Constant Comparative Method**

The constant comparative method enables the generation of theory through systematic and explicit coding and analytic procedures. The process involves three types of comparison: First, incidents are compared to incidents to establish underlying uniformity and its varying conditions. Second, the uniformity and the conditions become generated concepts and concepts are compared to more incidents to generate new theoretical properties of the concept. Finally, concepts are compared to concepts (Glaser, 2004).

This process facilitates the identification of concepts. Concepts go beyond merely describing what is happening in the data, which is a feature of open coding and explaining the relationship between and across incidents. Incidents in the data need to be checked against each other in order to validate interpretation (Goulding, 2002).

The process of constant comparison of the data in this research resulted in early conceptual categorisation. Each of the concepts was analysed in terms of their properties and relationships to each other. At this stage many provisional concepts

were rejected owing to their lack of recurrence in the data. Constant comparative analysis was achieved by comparing data in an iterative process. Ideas emerging from the data were constantly compared with other data to find differences and similarities (Glaser, 2001). Constant comparative analysis raises questions about properties and characteristics of a concept or category. This directs further data analysis and further data collection in the search for answers to these questions (Browne and Sullivan, 1999). Gradually the researcher establishes relationships between codes, between concepts and eventually between categories in order to identify the core categories.

Categories were reduced by comparing and contrasting categories to see how they clustered or connected together. This process helped to build, distinguish and saturate the categories and was also a vital step in discovering the core categories. The formation of categories was characterised by fluidity because as more data were collected, some of the categories changed and others became part of another category. The categories were compared and contrasted until the major categories were identified for each group. These categories were then developed and integrated through use of selective coding, memos, models and the literature, to identify the core categories for the substantive theory.

Moreover, categories have been developed through memos in the early stages of the data analysis. Memos were used extensively in this research and helped firstly, to keep track of the analysis by documenting what the data were saying about different codes and categories, secondly, by capturing relationships between categories, and thirdly, by enhancing the theoretical ordering of the categories and finally by integrating existing memos.



Memos are essential for conceptualising during the analytical process as well as in demonstrating the researcher's introspective process. Furthermore, all types of memos leave an audit trail for research and provide data for presentations, publications and possible further research (Hutchinson, 1993). Memos were used to integrate existing memos, compiled and sorted and then the researcher derived the material to write up the final theory. Memos were written constantly on all the data, which meant that towards the end of the data analysis, there was a large collection of memos on different categories and issues. Hence, the process of writing more theoretical memos about existing memos enhanced the sorting of the memos and helped to clarify the linkages between the categories and the core categories.

Additionally, the literature was used to further the process of constant comparative analysis, providing similarities and contrasts to the categories identified in the field research.

#### **4.4.4 Stage Four-Models**

In addition to writing memos, the mapping, linking and ordering of categories were developed through the use of models. Constructing models helped the researcher to show how the categories related to each other to develop the theoretical codes. Through the use of models, the researcher discovered relationships that had not been readily apparent and also the examination of a model indicated gaps in the analysis where the categories needed further development.

In this research, models also made a strong contribution to the final formulation of the substantive theory as considerable effort was directed towards providing a pictorial representation of the theory so that the core categories were clearly outlined in relation to the other categories. Table 4.2, illustrates a list of models that emerged during the data analysis of this research.

**Table 4.2: List of Models.**

Name	Created	Modified
<b>Bournemouth's Co-operational Tourism Organisations</b>	2007-2-20 10:37 PM	2007-2-20 10:59 PM
<b>Bournemouth's Tourism Strategies</b>	2007-2-20 8:15 PM	2007-2-20 8:24 PM
<b>Competitors of Bournemouth</b>	2006-10-24 10:19 PM	2007-2-20 8:28 PM
<b>Main Markets of Bournemouth</b>	2007-2-20 8:29 PM	2007-2-20 8:39 PM
<b>Negative Tourism Image Personality</b>	2006-10-19 11:19 PM	2007-2-19 11:59 PM
<b>Overseas Markets Segments</b>	2007-2-20 8:40 PM	2007-2-20 8:54 PM
<b>Past Tourism Image</b>	2006-10-12 12:36 AM	2007-2-23 10:10 PM
<b>Positive Tourism Image Personality</b>	2006-10-19 10:22 PM	2007-2-23 10:09 PM
<b>Present Tourism Image</b>	2006-10-12 11:44 PM	2007-2-20 9:53 PM
<b>Promotion of Bournemouth as a Tourism Destination</b>	2006-10-20 10:46 PM	2007-2-20 10:04 PM
<b>Promotional Tools of Bournemouth</b>	2007-2-20 10:05 PM	2007-2-20 10:36 PM
<b>UK Domestic Markets Segments of Bournemouth</b>	2007-2-7 10:25 PM	2007-2-20 11:16 PM
<b>UK Seaside Resorts with Strong Images</b>	2006-10-21 12:14 AM	2007-2-20 11:28 PM
<b>Visitor Segments of Bournemouth</b>	2007-2-23 8:59 PM	2007-2-23 9:22 PM

## 4.5 DATA ANALYSIS-PHASE TWO

### 4.5.1 Reorganising the Category Nodes

As the researcher continued to compare incident to incident in the data, then incidents to categories, a core category began to emerge. This core category became the focus of further selective data collection and coding efforts. Several workable categories have been developed by the researcher and then those that seemed to have explanatory power began early to saturate as much as possible.

A list with nodes of all the concepts was produced in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet as a pre-cursor to the second phase of coding involved reorganising the data. The list showed that similar concepts occurred in each category but as a response to different questions either with the same title or with a different title with a similar meaning. Consequently, at that stage the 145 concepts were assigned by the researcher to twelve categories and are presented in chapter five of this thesis.

#### **4.5.2 Reorganising the Subcategory Nodes**

After reorganising the category nodes the researcher reviewed the subcategory nodes coded to each category. Thus, the data was reviewed, confirmed or nodes moved into new subcategory nodes. As the researcher went through each of the twelve category nodes some subcategory nodes were changed. From the original list of 371 subcategory nodes, 148 remained under the twelve categories.

In the following chapter, there is a more detailed illustration of each category and subcategory nodes. The chapter discusses the categories in more detail illustrating them with data from the interview transcripts.

#### **4.5.3 Theoretical Saturation**

At this point during data analysis, coding and memos were selective and were related to the validation of relationships between categories and the expansion of existing categories. A number of categories were renamed and some were moved from one category to others.

Data collection and analysis continued until it was apparent that saturation had occurred. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained that throughout the study, coding continues until the codes stop contributing to the emerging theory. The constant comparison of data reduces the scope of data to defined categories and guides the focusing of the data collected to the point where no further focus can be achieved. In addition, data collection and analysis must continue until all the elements of categories are sufficiently described. Data collection continued until these elements were fully described.

In this research, data collection was completed when saturation was reached. Saturation indicates the stage in the research process at which no new or relative data emerges, the category is substantially developed and *“the relationships among categories are well established and validated”* (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p.212). Saturation is a term for describing a category *“when no new information seems to emerge during coding”* (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p.136). In other words, the data provide no additional categorical properties or relationships among categories, indicating that *“a category has become theoretically saturated in grounded theory”* (Dey, 1999, p.116).

It is important to clarify that saturation does not suggest that all category properties and variations have been methodically exhausted; saturation only implies that a category has been developed sufficiently enough to adequately include new data without major adaptations or modifications (Dey, 1999). Although there is always the possibility for new properties or dimensions to emerge, Strauss and Corbin (1998)

suggested that, once category saturation was reached, to continue open coding would not add that much more to that which had already been discovered. Saturation in this research was deemed to have occurred after the completion of the twenty fifth interview and when the description of the categories reaches a high level of complexity.

#### **4.5.4 Identifying Core Categories**

It takes time and much coding and analysis to verify a core category through saturation, relevance and workability. The core category reoccurs frequently in the data and comes to be seen as a stable pattern that is more and more related to other categories. It relates meaningfully and easily with other categories and it has clear and grabbing implications for formal theory (Glaser, 2004). Constant comparison of the data, categories and concepts allows for the core categories to emerge. During this stage, as mentioned before, theoretical saturation is achieved when sufficient data has been analysed to provide a clear understanding of the phenomenon and when no new categories emerge (Chamberlain, 1999).

Every grounded theory contains a core category, which emerges from the data, and which represents the main focus of the subject under study (Schreiber, 2001). Identifying the core category is another point of difference between Glaser's (1978; 1992) approach to grounded theory generation and that of Strauss and Corbin (1990; 1998). Utilising Glaser's approach, the core category requires little effort to discover it, having emerged in a fairly obvious manner from the data. In contrast, Strauss and Corbin's approach requires considerable data manipulation before the core category can be identified, with discovery often being an intuitive process resulting from

consciously or unconsciously reflecting on the data over time (May, 1994; Schreiber, 2001).

It has been argued that the core category contributes to generating grounded theory, and “*the integration and density of theory are dependent on the discovery of a significant core variable*” (Hutchinson, 2001, pp.505-21). According to Strauss (1987), the core category has six important features: (i) it repeats frequently in the data, (ii) it links various data, (iii) because it is central, it explains much of the variations in all data, (iv) it has implications for a more general or formal theory, (v) because it becomes more detailed, the theory moves forward, and (vi) it permits maximum variation and analyses. Following the emergence of the core category, the researcher then move to concept modification and integration in order to move from a descriptive to a theoretical level.

In this study the researcher arranged and re-arranged categories in various hierarchical orders. The researcher also developed a diagram of categories in order to facilitate their interchange, as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998). Eventually, four categories that accounted for the main patterns or themes existing in the data were identified and established as the core categories.

In this research, the core categories of the effective promotional factors used to advance the projected image of Bournemouth were “*promotion of multiple images*”, “*positive diverse slogans*”, “*successful tourism promotional website*” and “*complex brand identity*”. These core categories and the related concepts will be discussed in chapter five of this thesis.

## 4.6 SUMMARY

The aim of chapter four has been to provide an overview of the grounded theory process used in this research and in addition, the data analysis that emerged from the research. The chapter began by outlining the use of NVivo as the data analysis tool and then addressed the key components of the grounded theory method followed by an overview of the data analysis.

Throughout this research, a constant comparative method of analysis was conducted and comparisons between data were made continuously as the data was analysed to identify for patterns and relationships between categories. The chapter discussed the final stages of analysis, the reorganising of categories and subcategories and explained when theoretical saturation was reached in this research. Following a reorganisation of the categories, 145 concepts that were assigned by the researcher to twelve categories compared to the original list of 371 subcategory nodes, 148 remained under the twelve categories. Saturation of categories occurred following the twenty fifth interview in this research.

The constant comparative method of analysis along with the coding procedures led to the emergence of the core categories and the findings that will be presented in chapter five of this thesis. The four core categories of “*promotion of multiple images*”, “*positive diverse slogans*”, “*successful tourism promotional website*” and “*complex brand identity*” identified by the researcher and established as being the core

categories of the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers used to advance the projected image of Bournemouth.

The following chapter will present and discuss the twelve categories and the four core categories which emerged from the data analysis and also will summarise the substantive theory which emerged from the data.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION FROM THE GROUNDED THEORY ANALYSIS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the stages of data analysis were described, the outcome of which identified twelve categories containing data relevant to the promotion of Bournemouth's projected tourism image, its past and present projected image and its brand personality. In addition, the results identified the four core categories that emerged from the data analysis related to the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers used in order to advance Bournemouth's projected image. This chapter will present these categories and it will discuss the findings fully.

Firstly, this chapter illustrates the promotional techniques of Bournemouth's projected tourism image using the eight categories from the twelve categories that emerged from the data analysis. These findings are presented as a diagram showing the category and its associated sub-categories followed by the researcher's comments and discussion. For each category the researcher provides supporting quotations from the interview transcripts. The eight categories were: i) Bournemouth's main markets and the factors underlying their choice; ii) Market segments of Bournemouth; iii) Visitor segments of Bournemouth; iv) Promotional tools; v) Key image associations; vi) Co-operation of public-private partnerships; vii) Bournemouth's competitors; and viii) Effective promotion.

Secondly, this chapter describes the remaining four categories from the twelve categories which represent the issue concerning Bournemouth's projected image and its brand personality from the perspective of tourism marketers. In particular, Bournemouth's positive and negative brand personality and its past and present projected tourism image.

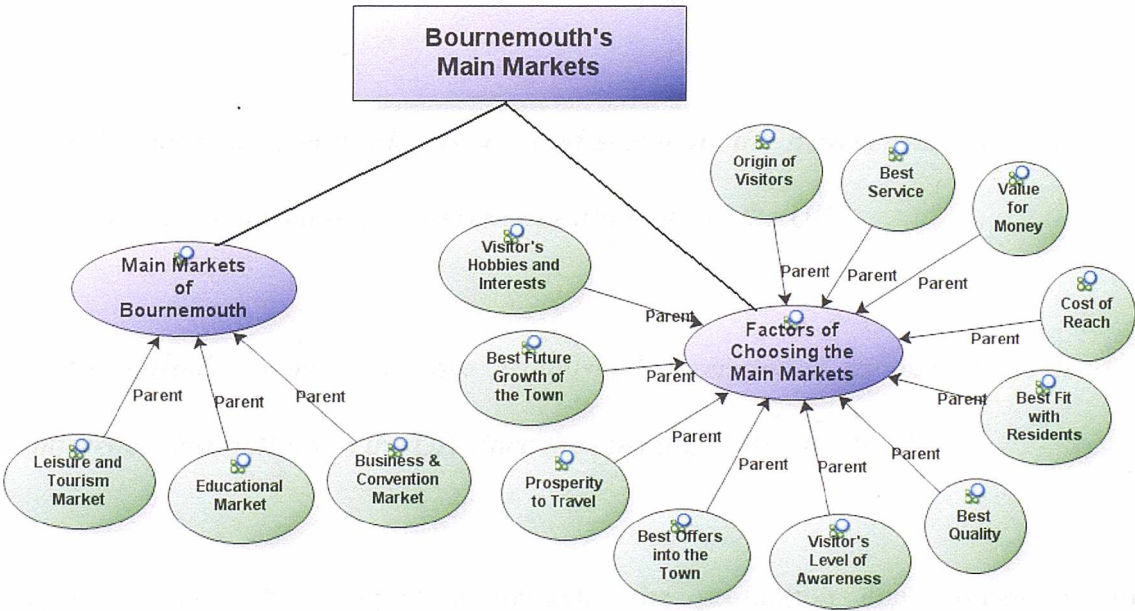
Finally this chapter discusses the four core categories that emerged as the promotional factors which are effective in relation to Bournemouth's projected image and provides a discussion of each category of the substantive theory developed from the study data. The four core categories that emerged were the "*Promotion of Multiple Images*", "*Positive Diverse Slogans*", "*Successful Tourism Promotional Website*" and "*Complex Brand Identity*".

5.2 PROMOTION OF BOURNEMOUTH’S PROJECTED TOURISM IMAGE

5.2.1 Category One: Bournemouth’s Main Markets and the Factors Underlying Their Choice

Details of this category are set out in figure 5.1. The main markets were the target markets which, Bournemouth’s stakeholders currently promote the resort. The figure also includes the factors which they took into account in order to identify these markets.

Figure 5.1: Category “Main Markets of Bournemouth”



5.2.1.1 Main markets

The study found that the current marketing of the resort mainly promotes to the leisure and tourism market but they also target the business, convention and

educational market. An interesting issue was that the most important market was the business and convention market which was increasing year by year. In addition, respondents stated that their future target market will be the “stockbroker surfer” market as plans for constructing an artificial surf reef at Boscombe in Bournemouth are under way making it the first in Europe. As one respondent commented:

*“Our target market focuses mostly in the leisure and tourism market. Although, with the redevelopment of the Bournemouth International Conference Centre we are also concentrating on the business and convention market”.*

Most of the respondents emphasised the promotion to business and convention markets and the important role that the Bournemouth International Centre (BIC) plays in the resort. Comments made by respondents suggested:

*“Our business tourism market is a broad sector as the Bournemouth International Centre is one of the leading conference destinations in the UK”.*

*“In the business market we have established a reputation as one of the leading conference destinations in the UK since the opening of BIC in 1984”.*

Following these two important markets, the promotion concentrates on the commercial and educational markets. The educational market plays an important role as every year they have an increase in students coming to study in the resort. As one respondent commented:

*“Our main important markets after leisure and business are the commercial and especially the educational market as every year we have an increased amount of students either to the language schools or our university”.*

#### **5.2.1.2 Factors of choosing the main markets**

In order to choose the right market segments respondents agreed about the important role of various factors that they used in order to target their markets. The most important factors that they took into consideration were the best future growth of the town, the best quality and the best service that they were offering. In addition, other factors were the origin of visitors, their level of awareness and their hobbies and interests. As one respondent commented:

*“First of all we take into consideration to give the best quality and the best service to our customers as they are having various needs and expectations. We consider, also, the origin of visitors, the level of visitors’ awareness and their hobbies and interests”.*

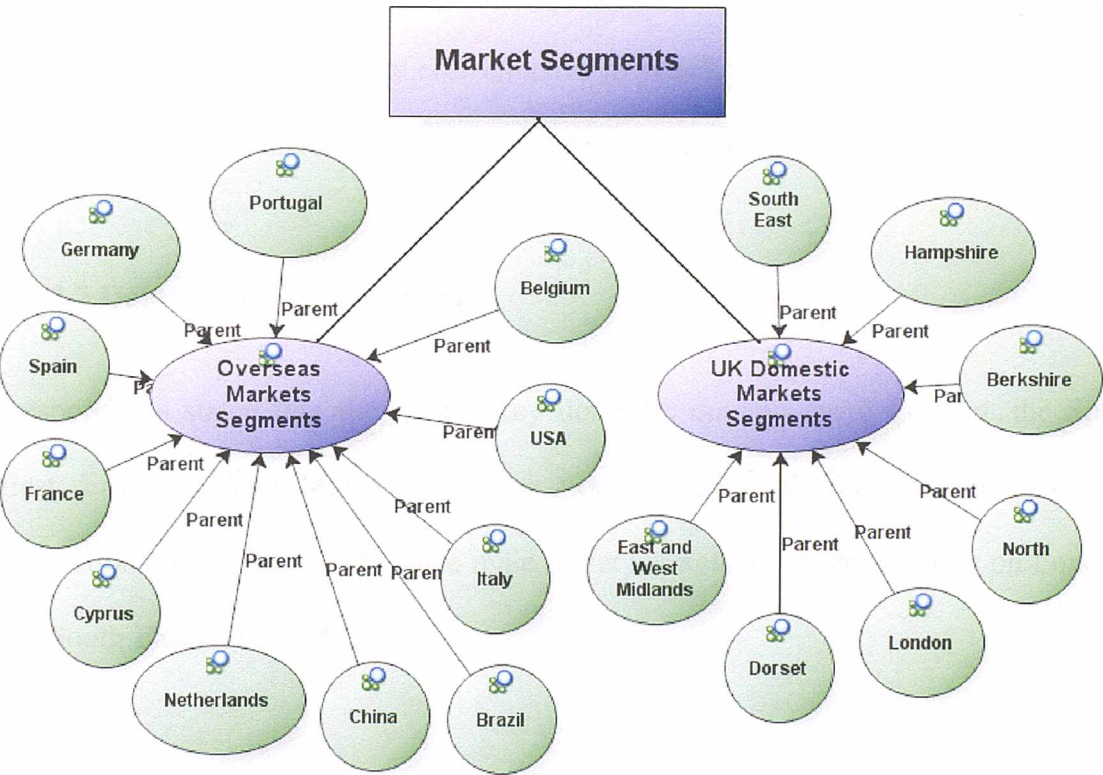
Also other factors that respondents considered were the value for money, the cost of reach, the best fit with residents and the prosperity to travel. As one respondent mentioned:

*“We take into account the potential capacity to encourage more visitors to the town and how they fit with the residents and finally if it will be effective for the town and more successful in the tourism economy as well”.*

5.2.2 Category Two: Market Segments of Bournemouth

The important market segments identified by respondents have been categorized into overseas and domestic as set out in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Category “Market Segments”



5.2.2.1 Overseas market segments

Respondents stated that their overseas markets were the European countries of France, Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Cyprus, Belgium and then countries such as U.S.A, China and Brazil. Participants stressed that the co-operation of the resort with major airports had enabled the town to target these various nationalities at relatively low cost, with Central Europe identified as a future target. Comments made by respondents stated:

*“Working with Bournemouth, Stansted and Heathrow Airports has made it possible to target diverse nationalities at relatively low cost”.*

*“Visit Britain has identified Central Europe as a key growth area and it may be possible to target some of the countries within this area via the low cost airlines but we do not specifically recommend targeting this market until it has become more developed and therefore more cost-effective to reach. As we know, first time visitors from these markets are most likely to spend time in London”.*

#### **5.2.2.2 Domestic market segments**

Respondents stated that the town’s key domestic markets were London, the South East, East and West Midlands and the North. In addition, they stressed that their promotion covers most of the three main target markets giving more focus on London, the South East and the Midlands.

Participants mentioned that various marketing studies carried out recently found out that day visitors in peak months came mainly from London and the South East. However, day visitors in off-peak months came from Hampshire, Dorset and Berkshire. As several respondents commented:

*“Studies from our tourism marketing department have shown that visitors come mainly from Dorset in off-peak months”.*



*“From various studies from the South West Tourism we find out that day visitors come mainly from London and the South East in peak months and from Hampshire, Dorset and Berkshire in off-peak seasons”.*

*“Recently the British Resorts and Destinations Associations have done a research illustrating that most of our visitors in peak months come from London and the South East”.*

### **5.2.3 Category Three: Visitor Segments of Bournemouth**

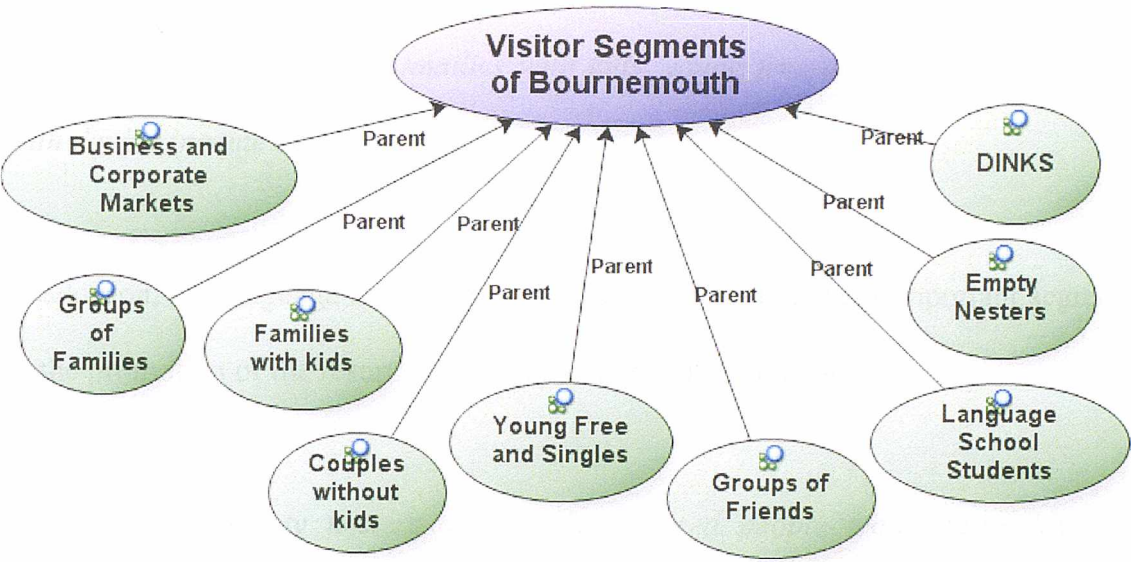
Figure 5.3 sets out the visitor segments that marketers targeted in order to promote the resort. Respondents stressed that the case for segmentation increases as markets grow in volume terms and in the number of sub-groups identified. The visitor segments that respondents targeted for the resort were diverse and depended upon their various promotional campaigns. Comments made by the respondents stated:

*“We divide total markets into component parts in order to deal with them more effectively and more profitably. Thus, the more that customer needs and motivations differ and the greater the level of competition between offers, the more important segmentation becomes to organisational success”.*

*“The promotional of special group facilities for educational visits to museums or the creation of special information materials for school visitors illustrate the different promotional ways of various sub-groups within our markets”.*



**Figure 5.3: Category “Visitor Segments”**



Several respondents stressed that the business and corporate markets, the groups of families and young free and singles segments were important segments for the resort. As one respondent commented:

*“Due to the conferences and exhibitions in the town and our co-operation with the BIC we target at corporate segments”.*

Respondents stated that families with kids, groups of friends, couples with double income and no kids (DINKS) were very successful segments. As several respondents mentioned:

*“Our visitors’ segments will vary according to the key aims of each campaign. For example, a campaign aimed at attracting business in the off-peak seasons will be*

*aimed at those without children, perhaps specifically mature couples or DINKS those for example that they have double income and no kids”.*

*“Our visitors’ segments are families with kids, young free and singles and couples with double income and no kids”.*

In addition, the language school students and empty nesters were important segments in the promotion of the resort. As several respondents commented:

*“We have the empty nesters, thus active, retired people with reasonably high disposable income exploring all types of area, often focusing on one of their hobbies or interests”.*

Furthermore, meeting friends and relatives were a flourishing market segment. In addition, stockbroker surfers will be another market segment in near future. Comments made by respondents stated:

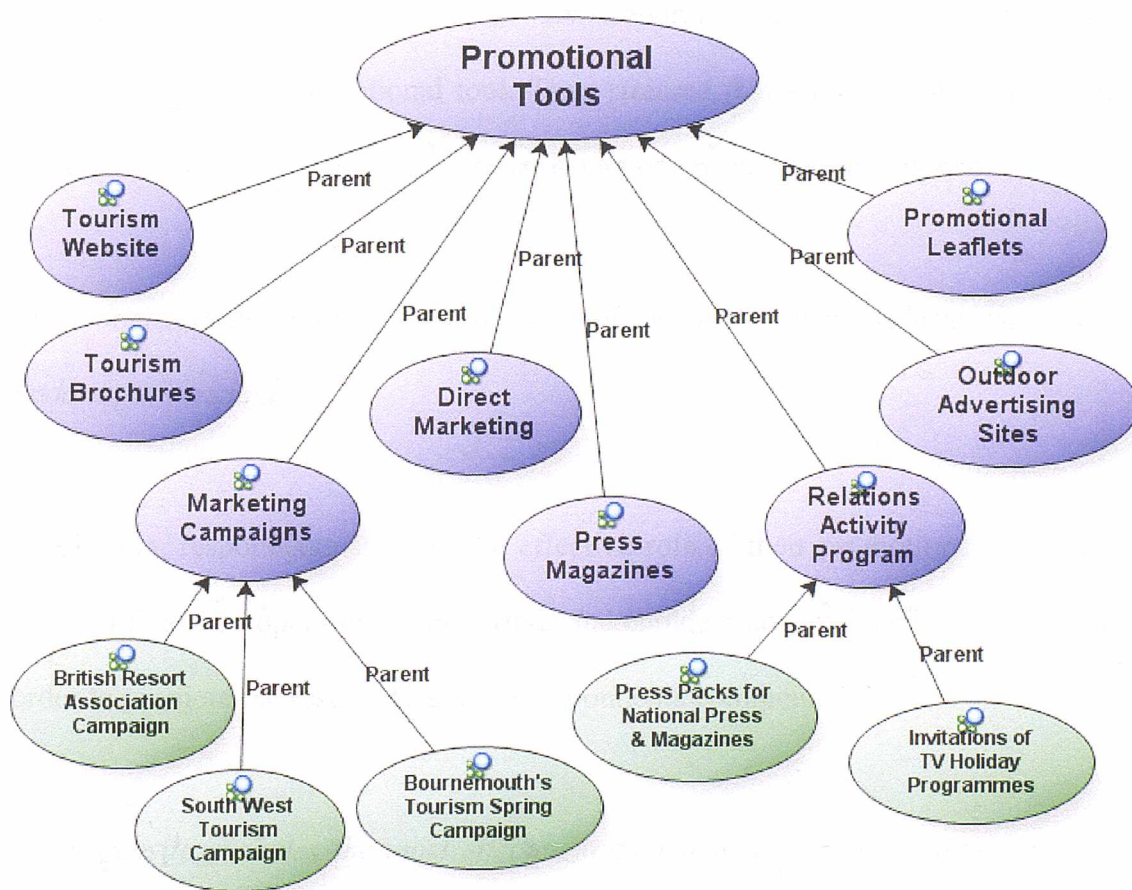
*“We have our eye on the stockbroker surfers market that there are professionals with money for expensive hobbies. To attract them in it we have plans under way to construct an artificial surf reef that it will be recognised as the first in Europe”.*

*“We have identified a significant and growing tendency towards groups of friends or families taking short break together. So, with such a mobile population, “Meeting Friends and Relatives” is likely to become a major market”.*

### 5.2.4 Category Four: Promotional Tools

The promotional tools category sets out in Figure 5.4 illustrates the main promotional techniques that marketers of the resort were using in order to portray the projected image and as a result to encourage visitors to take a holiday in Bournemouth. The sub-categories of “Tourism website”, “Tourism brochures”, “Marketing campaigns”, “Direct Marketing” and “Other promotional tools” are discussed.

Figure 5.4: Category “Promotional Tools”



The respondents stated that all traditionally recognised promotional tools such as advertising, public relations, sales promotion, indirect marketing and tourism-specific tools such as tourism brochures had an important role in Bournemouth's marketing strategies in overseas markets. Although the tourism website was recognised as one of the most important promotional tools, several respondents stressed the importance of the tourism brochures and the public relations.

#### **5.2.4.1 Tourism website**

Respondents mentioned that the [www.bournemouth.co.uk](http://www.bournemouth.co.uk) website was an increasingly useful promotional tool. They stressed that with their new web editing package the site can be updated constantly. As one respondent mentioned:

*"Our increasingly useful promotional tool is our tourism website that we are updating it constantly".*

In addition, respondents stressed the effective role of their promotional website and the significant co-operation with various stakeholders and various kinds of media in order to promote the resort. As several respondents commented:

*"Our website provides the most effective, efficient way to manage information and promote Bournemouth as a quality destination".*

*"Our leading and award winning website can be easily updated and create a dynamic electronic gateway to the resort".*

*“Our promotion consists of our promotional website and a lot of outdoor advertising. Additionally, we co-operate with different kinds of media and with various stakeholders in order to promote the town effectively”.*

Consistent with various studies, DMOs could promote their destinations more effectively by having an attractive website and by finding ways to attract traffic through links from compatible sites, search related marketing and traditional advertising (Gallarza et al, 2002; Govers and Go, 2004; Raventos 2006).

#### **5.2.4.2 Tourism brochures**

Respondents mentioned that one of the most important promotional tools was the tourism brochures produced by the Tourism Services that targeted the specific markets such as the families, tour groups, and out-of-season visitors. These publications were promoted via the Bournemouth Visitor Information Centre and also via the tourism website. As one respondent commented:

*“We have various publications of brochures for our visitors and potential visitors and these publications are a perfect promotional tool for those businesses wishing to enhance their presence to visitors to the area”.*

Respondents stressed that they are producing various publications of brochures for their visitors and potential visitors and they have developing links with Spain. As respondents commented:

*“We are producing many different publications of brochures for our visitors and potential visitors, for example the publishing Bournemouth Guide is a cosmopolitan, vibrant, modern destination guide introducing a new concept of promoting lifestyles”.*

*“We produce various publications of brochures and we have a pro-active Public Relation Team that deals with developing links with Spain via Bournemouth and Southampton International Airports”.*

Furthermore, respondents stated that they produce publications with a literature programme and they use photography in their brochures with images full of activities and sunny landscapes. As respondents stressed:

*“We produce publications and implement a literature programme with timetable and also we produce literature for Bournemouth Music Live, Kids Free Fun and Beach Club”.*

*“The marketing techniques that we are using are photography in our brochures and advertising. We are using images full of activities and with sunny landscapes and also with all of the resorts’ attractions”.*

These results confirm previous studies which have emphasised that brochures play a fundamental role in the formation of a projected image (Wicks and Schuett, 1991; Getz and Sailor, 1993; Santos, 1998). Various studies have indicated that the pictures of tourism brochures convey images of places and landscapes that have been picked

with a view to attracting the visitor (Uzzell, 1984; Miller, 1997; Morgan and Pritchard, 1998). According to Uzzell (1984) the landscapes in the brochures are eternally sunny, picturesque and full of interesting activities. Miller (1997) added that the representations of landscapes and places in the brochures were produced in a given historical and cultural context for certain target groups and they tell about the current reality and cultural importance of the landscapes and places they represent.

#### **5.2.4.3 Marketing campaigns**

Respondents stated that another important promotional tool they used were campaigns, both national and regional marketing campaigns, with partners such as the British Resorts Association and the South West Tourism. As respondents commented:

*“The town is promoted through both national and regional consortium marketing campaigns, such as the British Resorts Association and South West Tourism”.*

*“Every year we are creating different campaigns in order to promote the resort. For example, this year Bournemouth’s Tourism Spring Campaign was more targeted than other times to stimulate interest in Bournemouth and encourage people to book. To ensure the campaign was highly effective we were looking to work with partners in the town that would like awareness of their product to reach over three million families and couples within a two and a half hour drive time from Bournemouth in a cost effective way”.*



In line with Morgan and Pritchard (2002), Bournemouth has been required to find new ways to differentiate itself from the competition and to establish connections with consumers. Morgan and Pritchard (2002) emphasised that the key to effective destination differentiation is the creation of an emotional relationship with the consumer through highly focused communications campaigns, of which New York's "I love NY" and the "Glasgow's miles better" are two well known campaigns. Bournemouth achieves this emotional relationship with the consumer by the creation of different effective campaigns. Howie (2003) also identified the "I love NY" campaign as one of the most successful brand identity building and positioning campaigns, as well as the "Super Natural British Columbia" campaign.

#### **5.2.4.4 Direct marketing**

Another promotional technique used was direct marketing: brochures and mailer cards that are sent out to selected addresses around the UK. These addresses were compiled from past requests received at the Bournemouth Visitor Information Centre and through the purchasing of mailing lists aiming to target new customers with specific needs such as for rural holidays. As one respondent commented:

*"We manage the image of Bournemouth through direct marketing, for example brochures and mailer cards are sent out to selected addresses around the UK. These addresses are compiled from past requests received at our Tourist Information Centre and through the purchasing of mailing lists to target new customers with specific needs".*



Buhalis (2000) suggested that direct marketing is used in the promotion of a destination as destinations can identify prospective customers and promote elements of the local offerings that satisfy the specific demand. The author added that discount schemes are developing for several destinations to reward and maintain their loyal clientele.

Consistent with Buhalis (2000), marketers of the resort use direct marketing as one of their promotional tool in order to identify prospective customers and to offer special discounts to reward customers. As one respondent commented:

*“In terms of direct marketing, we are selling one million glossy super sized postcards to our target audience in mid-late March to encourage visitors to book before Easter for the summer holidays. The postcard contains a competition offering an indulgent luxury break including hotel accommodation, spa, eating out, and attractions with £2000 shopping vouchers to be spent with the assistance of a personal shopper. Also on the back of the postcard various companies offer special discounts for their product or service”.*

#### **5.2.4.5 Other promotional tools**

Several respondents stated that other effective promotional techniques that were being used were press magazines and special promotional leaflets produced by the Bournemouth Visitor Information Centre as well as a public relations activity programme and outdoor advertising sites. Comments made by respondents stated:

*“We are working in partnership with attractions and other trade organisations to ensure that we are continue to exploit opportunities to encourage day visitors of the town”.*

*“We have very strong, defensive and proactive public relations to make sure our markets are very clear and we are trying to do that with different forms of media”.*

*“In order to promote the resort successfully we should optimally combine different marketing tools, especially public relations, which are of the characteristics of our promotion a perfect tool”.*

*“We promote the resort via the various promotional methods such as videos, transparencies or images e-mailed to tour operators of Bournemouth and the surrounding area”.*

Public relations are extensively used for most tourism destinations. Some studies have indicated that public relations are used to generate new stories, articles and publicity in order to develop the awareness of consumers and persuade them to purchase the products (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998; Kotler et al, 1996; Middleton, 1992). Kotler et al (1996) highlighted that public relations are critical for the development and updating of the right image. Morgan and Pritchard (1998) stated that hosting a journalist or a celebrity in the destination can generate more interest than any other forms of promotion because consumers are more passive receivers.

In line with Morgan and Pritchard (1998), Bournemouth's public relations include invitations of journalists or celebrities; as one respondent put it: *"Our public relations activity programme includes press packs for national press, national magazines and invitations of TV holiday programmes, journalists or celebrities to the town and target regional newspapers and magazines in target towns and areas for the weekend visitor"*.

### 5.2.5 Category Five: Key Image Associations

Figure 5.5 sets out the key image associations that marketers were using in order to promote the resort via their promotional website, published brochures, press magazines and many more. The interviewees stressed that the images that they were using to promote the resort contain various icons from the seafront, the pier, the gardens and the shopping centre. As one respondent commented:

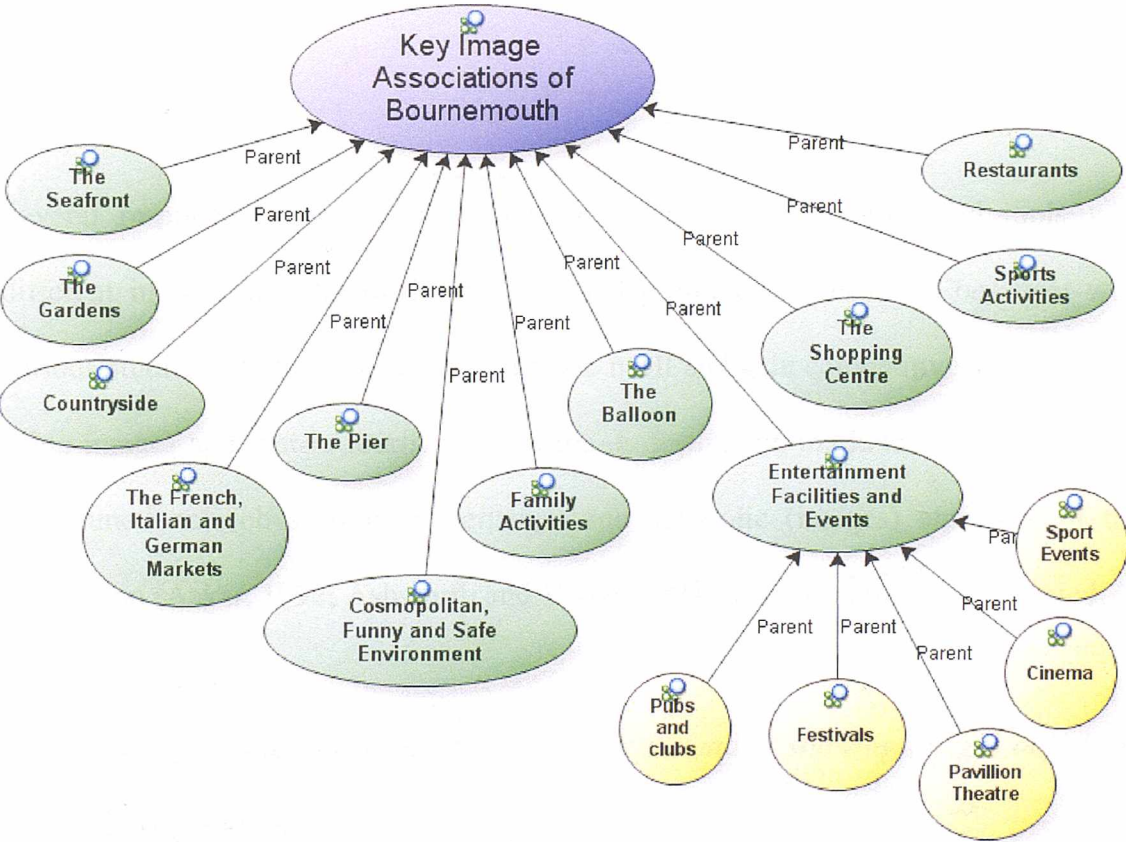
*"In our published tourism brochures we are giving a strong emphasis on the images of the seafront and beach with the Pier, promenade and formal gardens, also our good range of entertainment facilities and events, such as the Pavillion, cinema, clubs and restaurants"*.

Several respondents stated that most of the images included icons with entertainment facilities and events and with a number of family and sports activities. They emphasised that several images illustrated a cosmopolitan, funny and safe environment. In addition, they mentioned other images that they were using such as photographic representations from the French, Italian and German markets, from the

countryside and the various restaurants of the town. As several respondents commented:

*“Bournemouth as a resort but a town on top promotes active, cosmopolitan and also traditional images of different parts of the town centre, the gardens, the seaside and especially the Pier, the Balloon, the shopping centre in the town and many restaurants and clubs to promote its’ nightlife”.*

Figure 5.5: Category “Key Image Associations”



*“We are trying to promote images of lots of various sports activities, images of the shopping centre as well as images of our near distance countryside”.*

*“As key image associations we have the Pier, the seafront, the gardens, the shopping centre, the French markets, various restaurants and clubs, family activities for all kind of ages and we are illustrating the cosmopolitan image of the town”.*

*“An attractive environment is the most important factor when choosing a destination so we are trying to promote cosmopolitan images of the seaside, the Pier, and the gardens”.*

Several respondents stressed that they are using various promotional tools with different images in order to differentiate and promote the resort. Consistent with various studies a destination can differentiate itself and gain competitive advantage by using images and that in tourism promotion, a destination marketer should focus on both functional (physical characteristics) and symbolic (images) attributes of the destination (Aaker, 1992; Ashworth and Voogt, 1994). As respondents commented:

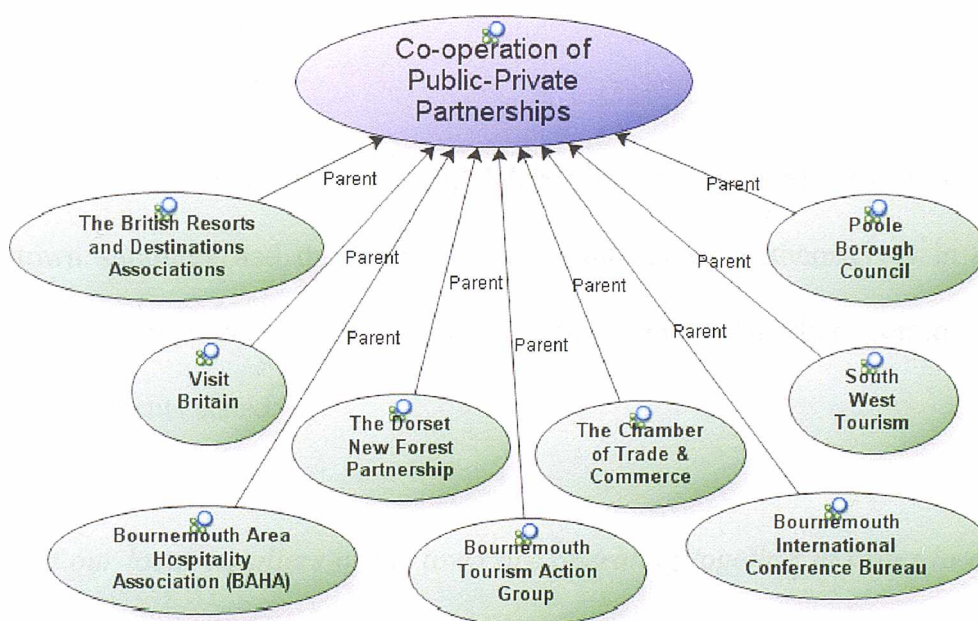
*“We tend to promote Bournemouth as a whole instead of showing images only from the Pier or the seafront”*

*“We are using various promotional tools in order to promote modern images of the shopping experience, content images of the town centre and the square with people having fun and lively images of different activities with kids in the beach”*

### 5.2.6 Category Six: Co-operation of Public-Private Partnerships

The category of co-operation of public-private partnerships, as sets out in Figure 5.6, describes the various tourism organisations that have collaborated in order to promote the resort effectively.

**Figure 5.6: Category “Co-operation of Public-Private Partnerships”**



Several respondents stated that the close co-operation between the public and private sector of the town was the key to a successful promotion of the resort. As several respondents commented:

*“We are working closely with many different tourism organisations to constantly improve the tourism offering for the resort and the surrounding area. To name a few of tourism organisations such as the South West Tourism, Visit Britain, the Dorset*

*New Forest Partnership, the British Resorts and Destinations Association, the Chamber of Trade, Bournemouth Area Hospitality Association called BAHA, the Bournemouth Tourism Action Group, the BIC and also we are co-operating with Poole Tourism”*

*“We collaborate with Bournemouth Borough Council and particularly the leisure and tourism services department. We are working very closely with various hotels of the town as they have contact with our Bournemouth International Conference Bureau and also with Visit Britain”*

They mentioned that these partnerships attracted visitors in the long term and that local town suppliers had the ability to co-operate between themselves in order to increase the tourism demand rather than to compete with each other. Comments made by the respondents stated:

*“Most of our local suppliers of the town are operating together in order to offer the best product of the resort in order to attract visitors all year round”*

*“We basically co-operate with Bournemouth International Conference Bureau, Visit Britain, South West Tourism and many other partnerships”*

This supports several studies that have indicated that cooperation between public and private sectors is fundamental to success in destination marketing. Palmer and Bejou (1995), for example, highlighted that the challenges and complexities of destinations, the marketing of them and the interdependency among stakeholders has resulted in the



development of local tourism marketing alliances between public and private sectors. Correspondingly, Gunn (2002) suggested that collaboration is required for successful tourism marketing, in particular collaboration between public and private organisations.

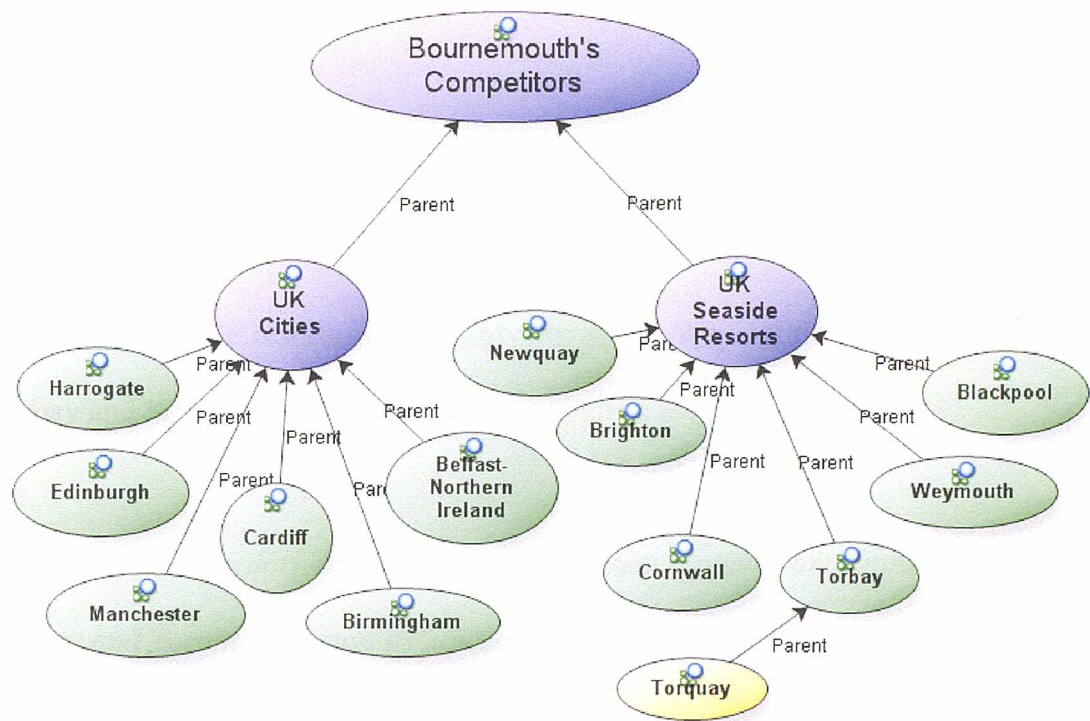
In addition, Prideaux and Cooper (2002) investigated the relationship between destination growth and destination marketing by examining the relationship between DMOs and local government authorities in the Gold Coast and the Sunshine Coast in Queensland, Australia. The authors noted that destination marketing can be undertaken in several ways, including local or national government-funded promotional organisations; bodies formed through a mix of private and public sector funding; or occasionally competing organisations each attempting to represent either the whole destination or areas within the destination. Their findings, however, highlighted that the growth and the marketing of destinations are influenced by public-private relationships, with the role of local government being particularly important.

### **5.2.7 Category Seven: Bournemouth's Competitors**

The category of Bournemouth's competitors as sets out in Figure 5.7 illustrates the various cities and seaside resorts that have competed with the resort as tourism in the resort increases successfully.



Figure 5.7: Category “Bournemouth’s Competitors”



5.2.7.1 UK cities

Several respondents declared that the main competitors of the resort in relation to conferences, exhibition venues and events were Harrogate, Manchester, Edinburgh and Birmingham. In addition, respondents stated that Cardiff and Belfast in Northern Ireland were also competitors due to their conference centre developments.

*“Our competitors are basically other conference and exhibition venues that based in other towns. For example, one of our competitors is Harrogate which is similar to Bournemouth”*

*“We have other competitors such as Birmingham that is a big conference centre near London, then Edinburgh, Belfast that recently got a new conference centre and finally Manchester”*

#### **5.2.7.2 UK seaside resorts**

Competing seaside resorts were mainly Brighton, Weymouth, Blackpool, Newquay, Torbay and in particular Torquay and Cornwall.

*“Our main competitors are Brighton that is near London and attracts a lot of day visitors and Torquay because its’ successful tourism image”*

*“One strong competitor is Weymouth in the summer season as it’s a seaside resort as well with a lot of attractions and natural views”*

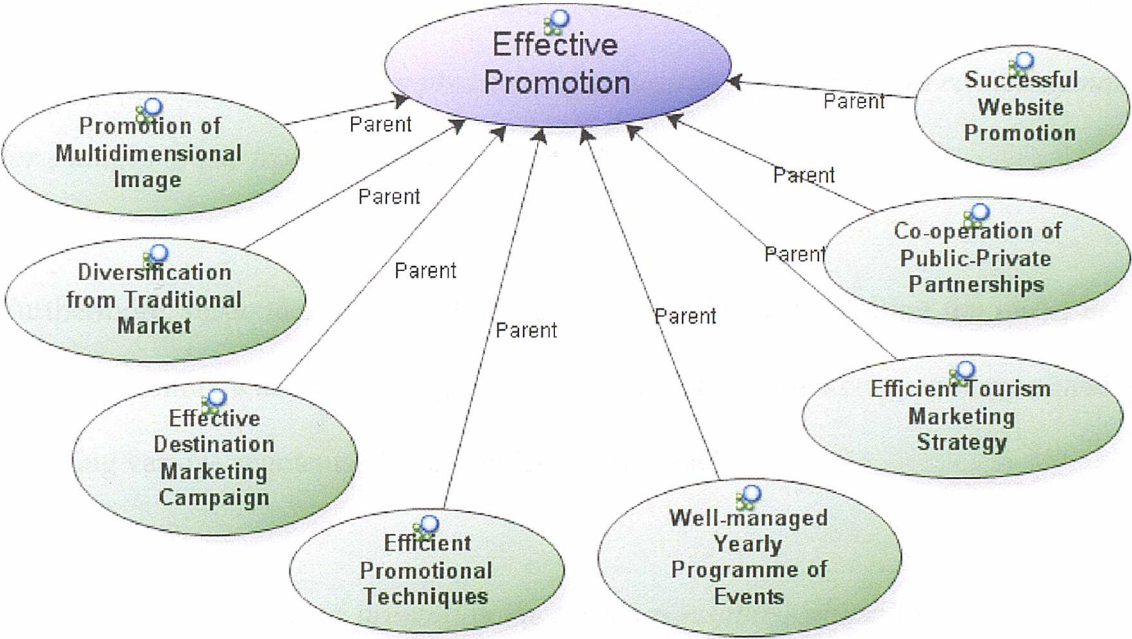
*“One of our competitors is Blackpool that is a popular destination near the seaside with a lot of entertainments for all visitors”*

#### **5.2.8 Category Eight: Effective Promotion**

The effective promotion category in this research as sets out in Figure 5.8 it shows the reasons of success of the resort’s projected image promotion. Respondents stated that their successful promotional website was one of their main reasons for their effectiveness of their promotion. As one respondent commented:

*“ As technology increases and people use more the internet to book their holidays our successful website can be easily used from visitors and now they can experience Bournemouth with a virtual tour that shows all the attractions of the town, the gardens, the seafront and a lot of events”*

**Figure 5.8: Category “Effective Promotion”**



Additionally, the various destination marketing campaigns that they were created for the resort and the efficient promotional techniques that they were using, were playing an important role in the promotion of the projected image of the resort. Comments made by the respondents stated:

*“We are trying every year to change and manage the resort’s image effectively with various promotional techniques. We are creating different campaigns every year and we have improved our image to the better”*

Several respondents stressed that the traditional summer holiday in the resort was being replaced by shorter visitor stays and the demand for serviced accommodation reduced as a consequence of the resort's effective promotion. As one respondent stated:

*“As a result of our effective promotion the traditional summer holiday was being replaced by shorter visitor stays and the demand for serviced accommodation reduced. The town suffered the pressures of an ageing population and related demand for changes of use from hotels to rest homes”*

Furthermore, respondents stressed that as a result of their promotion the resort have attracted visitors who are seeking five-star luxury and its marketing strategy aimed at targeting various segments. As respondents mentioned:

*“As a consequence of our promotion the town has established itself with a reputation for quality and could attract a wider range of visitors from families on a budget to the internationally select who are seeking five-star luxury”*

*“Our current strategy aims for sustainable tourism development by attracting higher-spending visitors and focusing on target segments that are not tied to specific seasons”*

Respondents stressed that the fact that they diversified their segment markets from the traditional market had a tremendous effect on the promotion of the resort's projected image. Other respondents confirmed that the improved co-operation of public-private partnerships and the tourism marketing strategy were significant factors for their promotion. As respondents commented:

*"Several factors involved in our promotion in order to expand from some of the towns' competitors as we had begun to diversify from the traditional market. For example, our flourishing language school sector had extended the number of overseas visitors staying with local families, providing much-needed secondary spending and employment opportunities, especially in the off-peak and shoulder seasons"*

*"Our strength to manage the tourism image effectively is that we take a more holistic approach to the marketing of the town, working and co-operating together with a lot of sectors"*

*"It is our responsibility to plan marketing strategies in order to manage the image of the town and we are managing that effectively"*

Moreover, respondents stated that another consequence of the effective promotion was the well-managed programme of events for all seasons. In addition, some respondents mentioned that the promotion of multiple images remained the key driver for the recent promotion of the resort's projected image. Comments made by respondents stated:

*“Together with a well-managed yearly programme of events and an acceptance that many visitors are using the resort as a secondary holiday destination we have been able to promote the resort’s image efficiently”*

*“We plan and manage our tourism promotion in a coordinated and professional way. It is essential that we present Bournemouth as a credible and desirable destination to ensure that we continue to develop as one of the UK’s premier tourist destinations and to make sure that the benefits from tourism are maximised and spread as widely throughout the local community as it is possible”*

*“Our promotion has extremely improved from the past we have a success developing the resort’s image. We have to make sure that we will continue to promote it with the right approach and we are giving the right messages to the tourists. Most visitors have different images in their mind when they think of Bournemouth but we are trying to promote what Bournemouth has to offer to them. However, we don’t promote only one particularly image of the resort but our marketing campaign portrays diverse images of the resort”*

### **5.3 BOURNEMOUTH’S BRAND PERSONALITY AND PROJECTED TOURISM IMAGE**

In this research destination personality is defined as the set of human characteristics associated with the seaside resort of Bournemouth as perceived from the marketers’ viewpoint. Therefore, the findings of this research relate to the projected image of the resort as perceived by the interviewees in their role as marketers. The findings are

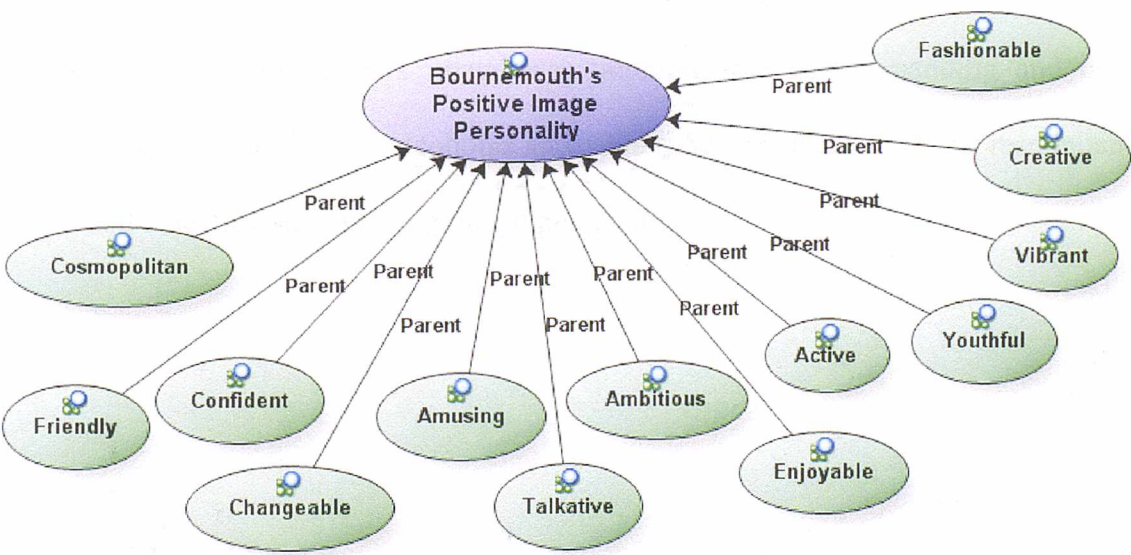


summarised in four categories: “Positive brand personality”, “Negative brand personality”, “Past Projected Tourism Image” and “Present Projected Tourism Image”.

5.3.1 Category Nine: Positive Brand Personality

The findings demonstrated that the resort had a number of positive image attributes which it seeks to promote. Respondents described the resort as vibrant, cosmopolitan, youthful, ambitious, active and creative. Other respondents expressed the resort’s brand personality as confident, friendly, enjoyable, talkative and amusing. Additionally, some respondents believed that the resort had a fashionable and therefore changeable personality.

Figure 5.9: Category “Positive Brand Personality”



Previous studies have indicated that as places strive to distinguish themselves from the competition, destination personality becomes a metaphor for understanding

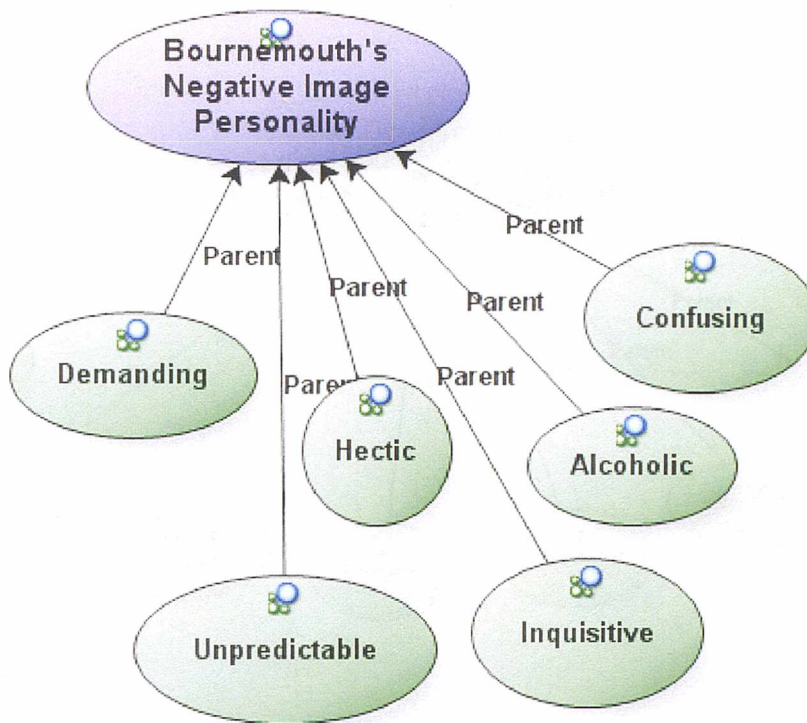
tourists' perceptions of places and a means for creating and contributing to a unique destination identity (Ekinici and Hosany, 2006; Morgan et al, 2002; Aaker, 1996).

Various studies have determined the brand personality of various destinations. Santos (2004), for example, revealed that Portugal was represented with personality attributes such as “contemporary”, “modern”, “sophisticated”, and “traditional”. Morgan and Pritchard (2002) posited that England was portrayed as being “conservative”, “pleasant”, “refined”, “civilised”, “eccentric” and “down to earth”. Furthermore, Henderson (2000) revealed that the New Asia-Singapore brand was composed of six personality characteristics such as cosmopolitan, youthful, vibrant, modern, reliable and comfort.

### **5.3.2 Category Ten: Negative Brand Personality**

Figure 5.10 sets out the negative brand personality category. Several respondents stressed out that the resort's image was unpredictable and demanding and other respondents described it as alcoholic and sometimes inquisitive. Other respondents expressed a hectic and confusing image personality.



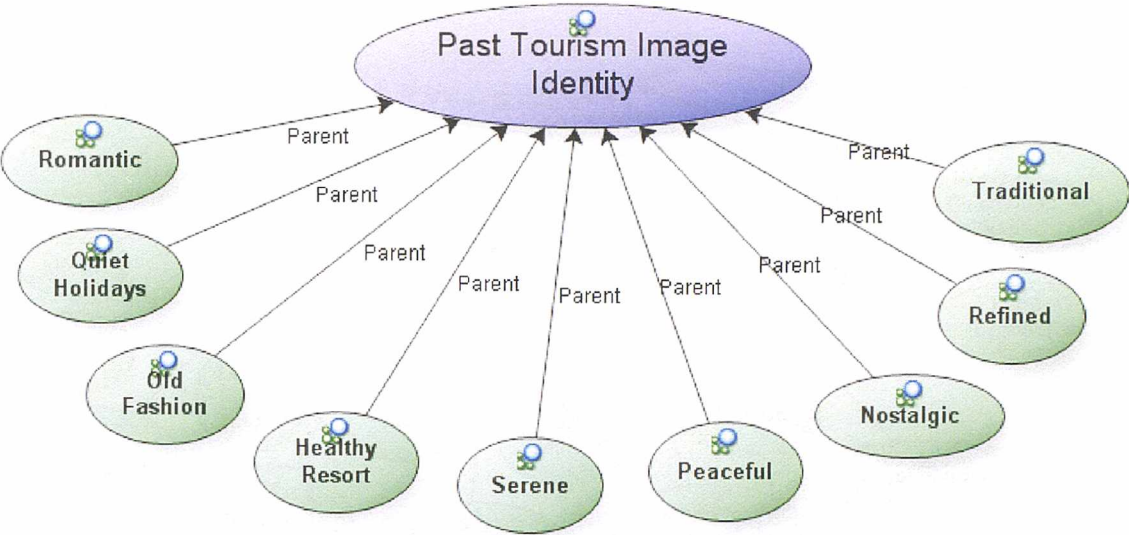
**Figure 5.10: Category “Negative Brand Personality”**

### 5.3.3 Category Eleven: Past Projected Tourism Image

Respondents believed that the projected tourism image has been through a lot of changes. They described the images in the past as traditional, nostalgic, peaceful, romantic, serene and refined as the resort was attracting more elderly or retired people.

The findings suggested that the images in the past used to be old fashion. The resort was promoted as an ideal place for relaxation and quiet holidays. Several respondents highlighted that in the past the resort was described as a health resort, as a serene and peaceful place to visit and a retirement place for tranquillity. As a result, the resort used to have an image of people that were coming to retire and stay rather than visit.

Figure 5.11: Category “Past Projected Tourism Image”

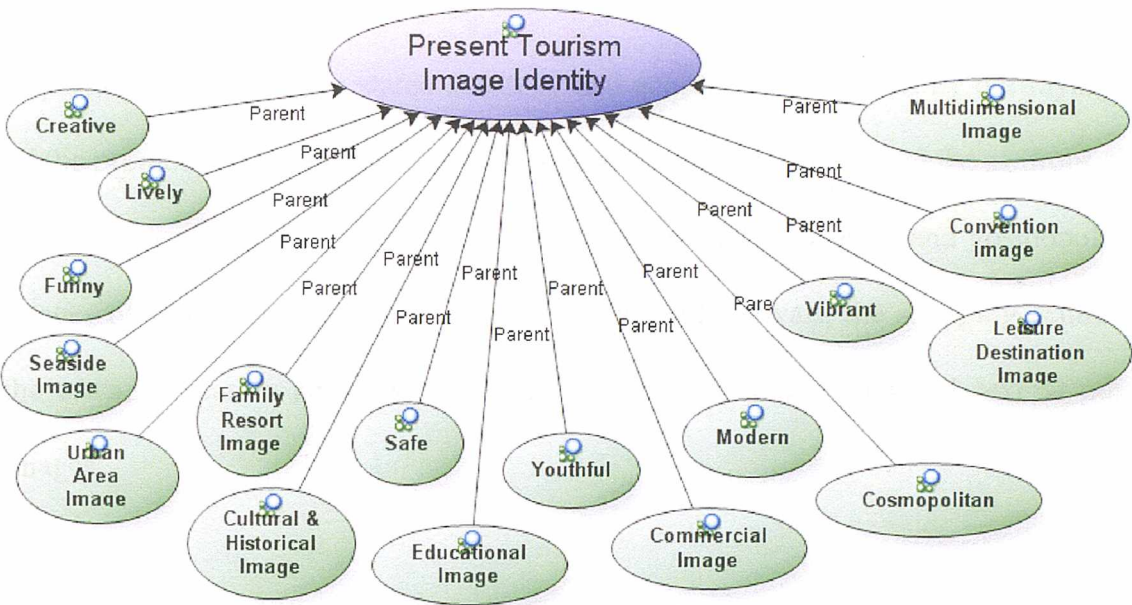


5.3.4 Category Twelve: Present Projected Tourism Image

The findings revealed that the present projected tourism image of the resort changed considerably from past years (Figure 5.12). Respondents considered that tourism was changing due to increasing competition. As a result, the image has changed due to various factors such as visitor’s expectations, habits and trends, various developments of the town and also due to the rapid changes of technology. As a result they were promoting lively, creative, vibrant, modern and cosmopolitan images of the resort.

Other respondents pointed out that they were not only portraying the town as a seaside resort destination, but as a major urban area in order to attract more visitors every year. In particular, the results revealed that they were promoting more youthful, safe environment to visit and funny images in all their promotional materials.

Figure 5.12: Category “Present Projected Tourism Image”



In addition, the interviewees emphasised that it was difficult to define the present projected tourism image of the resort as it had a multidimensional image. The resort’s present projected image was using a combination of the resort’s natural, cultural, historical, educational, commercial and conventional resources.

5.4 CORE CATEGORIES-EFFECTIVE PROMOTIONAL FACTORS OF BOURNEMOUTH’S PROJECTED IMAGE

5.4.1 First Core Category: Promotion of Multiple Images

The first core category that emerged from the data analysis was the “*promotion of multiple images*” which was one of the factors that demonstrated the effective promotion of the resort’s projected image. The promotion of multiple images of the resort has been used by marketers in order to form and portray the resort’s projected image. The findings exemplified that marketers were portraying multiple images of

the town in order to encourage a broader and more diverse range of visitors. As a result of that the volumes of tourists in the town have been increased dramatically over the last years.

In particular, respondents stated that they had achieved this success by portraying in all the promotional literature images of relaxation using pictures from the seafront, the parks, gardens and natural views of the town, as well as vibrant and cosmopolitan images of entertainment such as cultural events and festivals, the shopping centre of the town, recreation activities for all ages and in all year round and several other images.

Moreover, marketers represented icons with people having a relaxation holiday near the seafront and also having fun and entertain themselves. Marketers took into advantage the various icons of the resort by portraying all the sectors of the town instead of promoting a unique image. Additionally, marketers used cultural symbols to promote the country's built heritage and natural environment and also they used literature in order to give another quality in the projected image of the resort.

The findings revealed that in all promotional materials marketers combined a cheerful, creative, vibrant, modern, sociable, pleasant, fashionable and cosmopolitan image in a safe environment. The town's greatest assets that remained the key driver of the projected image were the town centre, the parks and gardens and the beaches. Consequently, the findings of this research demonstrated that the resort has been able to maintain its status as one of the key British resorts generating a multidimensional image identity of the resort instead of creating a single image identity. In line with the recommendation by Ashworth and Voogt (1994) that places are multi-functional and



that the same place can offer historical buildings, shopping facilities and entertainment venues, Bournemouth was found multi-functional as tourism marketers portrayed all the various attractions of the resort.

Urry (1990) suggested that the choice of images used by the tourism marketers is determined by two factors: subject and visual quality. The subject must be readily recognisable; designed to project the desired image of the destination and aimed to appeal to the aspirations of the tourist. The visual qualities are the primarily simplicity of structure that is still graphically coherent at a great range of sizes followed by colour and technical excellence. Thus, London becomes Big Ben, Sydney is its Opera House, Paris the Eiffel Tower, New York the Manhattan skyline and so on. Consistent with Urry (1990), tourism marketers used recognisable images for the resort in order to project its desired image and to appeal the aspirations of the tourist and in particular, its Pier, its seaside and gardens.

Buhalis (2000) added that themed or alternative tourism enables destinations to provide unique experiences and achieve their status area. Greece, for example, could concentrate on its heritage and history and offer ancient and mythology experiences; Italy can develop culture, art, design, fashion and cuisine themes; Romania should explore the Dracula myth and Bali should concentrate on the unique religious rituals and cultural traditions. Natural, agricultural, cultural, artistic, heritage resources of destinations can be used accordingly. The findings revealed that Bournemouth used its natural, historical, cultural and other resources in order to provide unique experiences.

### 5.4.2 Second Core Category: Positive Diverse Slogans

The second core category that emerged from the data analysis was “*positive diverse slogans*”. The issue of creating diverse and positive slogans of the resort stood out as important during interviews. The findings showed that tourism marketers were creating diverse slogans each year in order to promote the resort effectively. It was important for the promotion to create a series of slogans.

As a result of the findings of this study the main promotional slogans, that marketers were using, illustrating Bournemouth as a seaside resort destination. In creating slogans that communicate the positive messages of the brand creation of the resort, marketers developed firstly the slogan of “*World Class Resort*”. This slogan has been deployed in various marketing campaigns within the resort and abroad.

Respondents stated that one slogan was not enough to position the resort and accordingly they created diverse and positive slogans such as “*A Resort for all Seasons*”, “*Britain’s family world class resort*” and “*Life’s a Beach-Seven Miles of Golden Sand*”. Other promotional slogans that they created were “*Bournemouth your south coast escape*”, “*Britain’s Baywatch*”, and “*Bournemouth the chic town of the South Coast*”.

Marketers highlighted that the development of a slogan that summarises a destination’s diverse and eclectic range of natural resources, built attractions, culture, activities and accommodation was always challenging. However, they reflected that the slogan that appeared to cover everything was “*A Resort for all Seasons*”.

Moreover, marketers targeted a diversity of geographic markets in order to attract a wide range of segments for their image of products using slogans such as “*Life’s a Beach-Seven Miles of Golden Sand*” because the market was interested at the diverse group of active stakeholders that were heterogeneous.

The findings demonstrated that these diverse and positive slogans were developed in order to distinguish the resort from other seaside resorts destinations. Respondents stated that the use of various slogans for the resort, which were changing frequently in order to follow tourism demand trends, updated the image of the resort. They recently changed, for example, the common slogan from “*World Class Resort*” to “*A Resort for all Seasons*”. This change reflected the refocus of the resort’s product away from the established product to a much more sophisticated offering based on socio-cultural diversity and on various sports activities, festivals and events throughout all year.

Projecting the image of the destination brand by careful selection and tactical utilization of effective slogans is essential for a destination marketer. Moriarity (1991) attributed slogans with the ability to deliver a constant theme about tourism destinations and emphasised that in order to play this role successfully slogans must reflect the character or personality of the destination. Richardson and Cohen (1993) mentioned that slogans play a crucial role in advertising and have been widely used as part of advertising campaigns for various destinations.

In addition, Morgan and Pritchard (1998) highlighted that marketers use slogans which change frequently in order to update the image of destinations and to follow

tourism demand trends. They mentioned that Spain have changed its slogan from “everything under the sun” to “passion for life”. This change reflected the refocus of its product away from the traditional “sun and sea” product to a much more sophisticated offering based on socio-cultural diversity and the life-style of local people.

#### **5.4.3 Third Core Category: Successful Tourism Promotional Website**

The third core category of this research was a very significant factor for the projected image promotion of the resort. The findings that emerged from this research identified the current “*successful tourism promotional website*” of the resort as the most effective factor for the projected image promotion.

The findings of this study illustrated that tourism marketers felt that they were successfully portraying the identity of the resort through the website promotion via various sources of information. Initially they were portraying its’ identity through the multiple images of the town, i.e. the seafront, the parks and gardens, natural views, the shopping centre, the historical buildings, images of cultural events, festivals, sports activities and finally through images of people and local residents.

In addition, the well-organized online promotional information included the resort’s history, beaches, sports activities, online-booking accommodation, virtual tour of the resort, attractions, programme of events and festivals, and finally general news of the town. Respondents emphasised that the website promotion became successful due to the fact that they had to try to convey a sense of experiencing the place through virtual



tours, weather updates, programme of events and festivals and diverse images rather than merely delivering a site encounter.

The images on Bournemouth's promotional website portrayed the resort as a cosmopolitan and vibrant seaside resort, illustrating the seafront and the town centre with people having fun. Moreover, there were a lot of images related to recreation experiences, festivals, entertainment and local people. Additionally, the website illustrated pictorial images of international cuisine and dining with pictures that depicted actual dining experiences.

The findings revealed that marketers of the resort modified the online promotional information continuously in order to influence the diverse range of tourists visiting the resort. Thus, their website has been expanded to include sections that appeal to specific target groups in addition to the independent traveller. These included tour groups, meeting and convention markets, weddings and honeymooners, media, travel agents, online shoppers and children. The findings demonstrated that visitors' volumes increased in the resort and as a consequence that proved that the promotional website was an effective factor of the resort's projected image promotion.

These findings confirm previous studies that have indicated that a promotional website can be an extremely effective tool for destination branding and for the destination's projected image promotion in terms of both cost effectiveness and market penetration (Williams and Palmer, 1999; Gretzel et al, 2000; Govers and Go, 2004). Williams and Palmer (1999) stated that a website can facilitate and strengthen the process of destination brand building via its unique merits of flexibility, interactivity, and cross-selling among complementary products within a destination.

The authors noted, for example, that the Brand West Australia (Brand WA) marketing campaign has created a strong destination brand, which is being reinforced through an electronic distribution strategy, mainly by way of their promotional website.

Further support by Gretzel et al (2000) that emphasised that a destination's promotional website offers great potential to influence consumers' perceived images, including creating virtual experiences of destinations. Furthermore, Govers and Go (2004) highlighted that the influence of promotional website on the destination's projected image promotion has become an important issue for tourism researchers.

#### **5.4.4 Fourth Core Category: Complex Brand Identity**

The findings of this research exemplified as the fourth core category the “*complex brand identity*” that emerged from the data analysis. The complex brand identity proved to be as one of the important factors of the effective promotion.

Respondents commented that the resort's brand identity was important in the effective promotion of the projected image and that the complex brand identity was a positive outcome of the achievement of unity and collaboration among the marketers of the resort. In addition, respondents stated that for the meantime the brand identity was combined by multiple images that were caught in the moment. The photographic style represented who they were as a destination and the brand of the resort combined a cosmopolitan, creative, vibrant, youthful and modern identity.

The findings illustrated that Bournemouth was a cosmopolitan meeting place with international recognition, international locals and visitors and broad appeal. In addition, it was creative since it was an inspiring and forward active, thinking town in which the arts, business, culture and opportunity for learning thrive. It was vibrant because it conveyed a lively, vibrant personality with a free and safe atmosphere. At last but not least, it was youthful and modern because Bournemouth was a compact, dynamic and young town with passionate, imaginative and welcoming people.

In addition, the findings revealed that the development of the resort's complex brand identity linked to attributes such as the natural attractions, the history and culture, the character of the local people and international place status has led to the successful transformation of the resort into vibrant leisure and business tourism destination. Additionally, respondents emphasised that its' complex brand identity has led the resort to differentiate from other seaside resorts destinations.

These results support by Ward (1998) that highlighted that cities have succeeded in developing positive brand identity linked to attributes such as heritage and history, the character of the local people, associations with famous people and international city status. In particular, the author added that the development of positive brand identities such as these has led to the successful transformation of several post-industrial cities, such as New York and Glasgow, into vibrant, leisure and business tourism destinations.

## 5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings from the grounded theory method analysis. The data, as previously described, has been coded firstly to the twelve categories to reflect the major facts of the promotion of Bournemouth's projected tourism image and to identify its brand personality and its past and present projected tourism image.

In summary, firstly the chapter presented the eight categories of the resort's main markets and the factors underlying their choice, its market segments, its visitor segments, its promotional tools, its key image associations, the co-operation of public-private partnerships, its competitors and its effective promotion. Under each category a number of sub-categories reflected the theoretical basis of each category. In order to ground the data the sub-categories were supported by quotes from interview respondents.

Secondly, the chapter illustrated and discussed the positive and negative brand personality of the resort and the past and present attributes of its projected tourism image as perceived by the marketers. Finally, this chapter discussed the four core categories underlying the effective promotional factors of Bournemouth's projected image. The current study revealed that the "*promotion of multiple images*", "*positive diverse slogans*", "*successful tourism promotional website*" and "*complex brand identity*" were the reasons of the effective promotion of the resort's projected tourism image.

## CHAPTER SIX

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION FROM THE CONTENT ANALYSIS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this chapter is to present the content analysis results in order to identify the projected image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications in order to understand which image are using to market the resort effectively. As discussed in chapter three, Bournemouth's fifteen tourism brochures and the promotional website of [www.bournemouth.co.uk](http://www.bournemouth.co.uk) produced by the Leisure and Tourism Directorate of Bournemouth Borough Council were content analysed in terms of the photographic material and textual representations presented.

As Dann (1996) argued, the visual and textual contents of brochures are important in aiding a conceptualization of place. Mackay and Couldwell (2004) emphasised that visual contents of brochures are vital to successfully creating and communicating images of a destination. In addition, O'Leary and Deegan (2005) argued that content analysis of written information such as guidebooks and travel brochures, can provide a great deal of information about the images projected by a tourism destination.

The chapter commences with a discussion of the findings from the content analysis of the textual representations of both tourism brochures and promotional website. The "*Projected Image*" theme emerged as a main theme with 23 attributes describing the projected tourism image of the resort.

The chapter continues with the findings and discussion of the textual analysis of the tourism brochures and the promotional website which identified ten themes and five themes respectively illustrating which image was projected by the tourism marketers to promote Bournemouth. In addition, the researcher discusses and compares the themes identified from the tourism brochures and the promotional website. Finally, this chapter presents, discusses and compares the findings from the content analysis of the pictorial representations from the tourism brochures and the promotional website.

**6.2 MAIN THEME- PROJECTED IMAGE**

The “*Projected Image*” theme emerged from the content analysis of the tourism brochures and the promotional website. Within this theme 23 attributes emerged describing the projected tourism image of the resort. Table 6.1 displays the frequency list of these twenty three attributes.

The “*cosmopolitan*” attribute appeared with a maximum frequency covering the 11.54% of the analysed content. That suggests that what was projected by tourism marketers was very much a cosmopolitan destination.

Then the most frequent appearing attributes were “*vibrant*” and “*beautiful*” with a percentage of 9.62% followed by “*famous*” (7.05%) and “*modern*” (6.41%). The “*sporty*” attribute appeared in 5.77% of the analysed content, which suggested that in general terms the recreation activities were reflected in the projected imagery.

Table 6.1: Frequency List of Attributes

Attributes	Frequency	Percentage
Cosmopolitan	18	11.54%
Beautiful	15	9.62%
Vibrant	15	9.62%
Famous	11	7.05%
Modern	10	6.41%
Sporty	9	5.77%
Sunny	7	4.49%
Traditional	7	4.49%
Awarding	6	3.85%
Clean	6	3.85%
Fashionable	6	3.85%
Family-friendly	5	3.21%
Fascinating	5	3.21%
Natural	5	3.21%
Relaxing	5	3.21%
Creative	4	2.56%
Cultural	4	2.56%
Friendly	4	2.56%
Peaceful	4	2.56%
Exciting	3	1.92%
Sophisticated	3	1.92%
Exotic	2	1.28%
Thriving	2	1.28%

The “*traditional*” and the “*sunny*” attributes appeared both with a frequency of 4.49%, and the “*awarding*”, “*clean*” and “*fashionable*” accounted for 3.85% respectively. It must be noted in this respect that the emerging projected image of the resort presented a combination of traditional and at the same time fashionable images.

Subsequently, the “*family-friendly*”, “*fascinating*”, “*natural*”, and “*relaxing*” were only significant at 3.21% and the “*creative*”, “*cultural*”, “*friendly*” and “*peaceful*” were at 2.56% respectively. It can be observed from the above that the cultural image was not often reflected in the projected image for the resort. Finally, the “*exciting*” and “*sophisticated*” attributes and the “*exotic*” and “*thriving*” appeared with the

minimum frequency of 1.92% and 1.28%. It should be noted here that tourism marketers were endeavouring to portray the resort emphasising a glamorous, stimulating, refined and flourishing projected image.

Overall, it can be inferred that Bournemouth is being projected as a cosmopolitan, vibrant, beautiful, famous and modern destination. In addition, the projected image has been displayed as “*fashionable*”, “*sunny*” and also “*sporty*” as it has been described with several recreational activities for the visitors to experience.

### **6.3 THEMES OF THE PROMOTION OF PROJECTED IMAGE FROM BOURNEMOUTH’S TOURISM BROCHURES**

In addition to the main theme, other ten themes emerged when examining the tourism brochures in order to identify which image was projected and was used to market the tourism destination of Bournemouth. Consistent with the findings from the grounded theory analysis, the findings from the textual data analysis of tourism brochures exemplified that tourism marketers were projecting multiple image identities of the resort in their promotional literature in order to encourage a broader and more diverse range of visitors.

#### **6.3.1 Seaside Image Promotion**

The first theme that emerged from the content analysis was the “*Seaside Image Promotion*”. The findings illustrated that all the tourism brochures portrayed the seaside image of the resort describing the seven miles beach and the recreation activities that visitors have been enjoyed. The following were some advertising examples from the tourism brochures:



*“Bournemouth is famous for its seven miles of beautiful deep golden sand that’s just perfect for building fantastic sand sculptures. Sit and listen to the waves breaking on the shore and maybe enjoy some traditional Fish and Chips. If you are feeling adventurous, have fun, with the host of activities available from, boating rides to water craft hire. For the more sedate, enjoy a coastal cruise or watch one of the many events that take place throughout the year.”*

*“Seven miles of sandy beaches, strewn with awards, together with excellent accommodation which ranges from the finest four star hotels to guest houses and self catering establishments make Bournemouth one of Britain’s most popular holiday destinations. Sometimes called Britain’s Baywatch with its striking lifeguards and water bike patrols, Bournemouth looks beautiful from every angle.”*

In addition, the tourism brochures revealed the seaside image of the resort illustrating the attractions near the beach and also the entertainment that visitors would have, visiting the resort.

*“Whether you're visiting for a weekend or two weeks, experiencing Bournemouth's seven miles of safe, clean, sandy beaches should be near the top of your "to do" list. Building sandcastles isn't the only activity to try your hand at; kayaking, beach games, surfing and cruises around the bay are also on offer for the more adventurous. As the sun sets, go for a stroll along the promenade and up into the ornate gardens and pine walks that have drawn visitors to the town for well over a century.”*

*“To allow you to get the most from the beach, sun loungers, deckchairs, parasols and beach bungalows are available for hire, and the cliff lifts and land trains to allow you to get to the best parts of the beach with ease. At the end of a hectic day you can always relax and enjoy a meal in one of the many restaurants and pubs along the length of the beach while watching the sunset.”*

### **6.3.2 Entertainment Image Promotion**

The “*Entertainment Image Promotion*” was the second theme that emerged from the content analysis. The findings showed that tourism marketers advertised entertainment in all of the tourism brochures describing festivals and events programmes and entertainment for kids and family. In addition, they illustrated where visitors can have fun day and night and all year round as follows:

*“There's entertainment to suit all tastes, too. Plays, stand-up comedy, symphony orchestras, pantomimes, concerts, musicals, ballet, drama....not to mention the special events and festivals peppered throughout Bournemouth's social calendar.”*

*“Sit back and enjoy a show at the BIC, Pavilion or Pier theatres, with entertainment from leading names in the world of music and show business. Further afield, you could spend the day sampling the delights of Paultons Park, with its many thrilling rides and attractions. And don't worry if you don't have time to see everything-you can always come back again next year!”*

*“With an extensive annual programme of free festivals and events the fun doesn't stop at the beach. For six weeks during the summer, Bournemouth hosts a "Kids Fun Festival" and the whole family will enjoy the enchanting "Flowers by Candlelight" on Wednesday evenings, while the "2CR Friday Night Fireworks" ensures everybody's holiday is a blast.”*

Additionally, the findings revealed that tourism marketers advertised as entertainment the shopping experience of the town, the enjoyment of socialising in bars and restaurants, the seasonal markets and the various exhibitions and events.

*“Bournemouth town centre oozes style, with a wide range of shops, nearby gardens to sunbathe in, and minutes from the beaches. Whether you come for the palm trees or the café/nightlife scene, you will find what you're looking for here. There is an average of 7.7 hours of sunshine for the beach lovers, party groups are accepted by many hotels and with events to enjoy most weekends, there is plenty to do, see and enjoy.”*

*“The main town centre is a hubbub of glittering shops, and is listed in the top 25 UK shopping centres. Here boutiques rub shoulders with high street favourites, and department stores all sit happily on wide pedestrianised boulevards. There are many arcades filled with unusual independent stores selling high quality merchandise, as well as all the top names in shopping.”*

*“When you are all shopped out you can relax and enjoy the café society. Many bars and restaurants offer al fresco dining to allow you to “people watch” under the palm*

*trees. Came the evening we have a surprisingly large range of cuisine to offer from our restaurants-from Himalayan to Lebanese, Mexican to Turkish."*

*"There's an extra touch of romance at the Pavilion, with the return of the popular Autumn Wedding Fayre on 15 and 16 September - bringing together all the ideas that make weddings go with a swing and freeing up brides, grooms and their families to enjoy the romance of the perfect day." The popular show has everything under one roof to help plan the 'wedding from heaven', with more than 70 exhibitors. Plus there are free daily fashion shows to provide inspiration for the latest in fashions for the brides and grooms."*

### **6.3.3 Recreation Activities Image Promotion**

The third theme that emerged from the content analysis of tourism brochures was the "Recreation Activities Image Promotion". Several tourism brochures advertised recreation activities for all ages illustrating the resort's leisure centres, its sporting events, its entertainment facilities and sporting activities such as kayaking, beach games, surfing, windsurfing, scuba diving, and cruises around the bay. The following illustrated some examples from the tourism brochures:

*"Whether you're visiting for a weekend or two weeks, experiencing Bournemouth's seven miles of safe, clean, sandy beaches should be near the top of your "to do" list. Building sandcastles isn't the only activity to try your hand at either; kayaking, beach games, surfing and cruises around the bay are also on offer for the more adventurous. As the sun sets, go for a stroll along the promenade and up into the ornate gardens and pine walks that have drawn visitors to the town for well over a century."*

*“There are activities, events and festivals to keep everyone busy and happy. With schemes such as Kidzone to keep the children safe on the beach, and Kids Fun Festival for six weeks in the summer to keep them occupied.”*

*“You’ll be spoilt for Sport. Bournemouth’s clean, safe beaches, acres of open space and excellent indoor and outdoor facilities make it a superb choice for an active break, and a breathtaking location for many high-profile sporting events.”*

*“Take to the waters in a canoe or sailing craft, find your hidden depths at a local scuba diving school, or get a head for heights with a flying lesson in a light aircraft or helicopter. Watching one of our prolific sporting events could whet your appetite for the game, and among our most popular facilities are tennis, bowling and water sports. The 18 hole municipal golf courses at Meyrick Park and Queen’s Park are as challenging as they are ornamental and both are easily accessible being surprisingly close to the town centre.”*

Furthermore, tourism marketers advertised as recreation activities the enjoyment travelling around the area near the resort such as exploring Dorset and New Forest and discovering fun parks, wildlife attractions, museums, historic houses and gardens.

*“If you favour the great outdoors, the natural beauty of the area can be enjoyed while partaking in many leisure pursuits. Try river fishing along the stunning Dorset coastline, pony trekking in the Purbecks, cycling in the New Forest or simply a brisk walk in the fresh air. It’s a sporting life in Bournemouth.”*

*“Bournemouth is home to a number of exciting attractions, leisure and entertainment facilities and is the perfect base from which to explore Dorset, the New Forest and beyond where you'll discover fun parks, wildlife attractions, museums, historic houses and gardens offering a warm welcome to visiting families.”*

#### **6.3.4 Art and Culture Image Promotion**

The *“Art and Culture Image Promotion”* theme emerged from the content analysis of this study. References to art and culture image of the resort were made in the tourism brochures. The tourism brochures included information about the town's culture, the festivals and the fairs programmes that were taking place all year round. Tourism marketers projected in several tourism brochures the resorts' cultural heritage portraying its museums, its cultural events and its traditional street fairs. Some of the references comments were as follows:

*“For a helping of art and culture seek out Bournemouth's recently restored Russell-Cotes Art Gallery and Museum. A magnificent example of Victorian architecture it is home to a fascinating collection of art, curiosities and reassures collected by Annie and Merton Russell-Cotes.”*

*“Festivals, fairs and good clean family fun.....sounds like a great day out to us. There are a number of events in Dorset that celebrate Britain's cultural heritage and encourage you to get involved too! One of the largest is the Great Dorset Steam Fair, a five-day event that attracts 200,000 visitors to its 2,000 exhibits, including steam engines, hundreds of craft stalls, heavy horse displays and funfair.”*

*“The Georgian Fayre in Blandford and pack Monday Fair in Sherborne are large traditional street fairs, while the Winchester Hat Fair and Shaftesbury's Gold Hill Fair offer entertainment for all the family.”*

### **6.3.5 Natural Environment Image Promotion**

The “*Natural Environment Image Promotion*” was one of the largest themes that emerged from the content analysis of the tourism brochures. The findings demonstrated that tourism marketers portrayed in several tourism brochures the resort’s gardens and parks, its countryside and the resort’s near forest as follows:

*“Listed in the English Heritage “register of gardens” Kingston Maurward, a Georgian house, is set in 35 acres of classic 18<sup>th</sup>-century parkland and lawn. The picturesque grounds include lakeside nature and tree trails and an animal park containing an interesting collection of unusual breeds.”*

*“There's so much you could do during your stay in Bournemouth that you may be glad of some time out to explore Dorset's gardens and countryside. Rolling hills and fields dotted with picture-postcard villages and chocolate box cottages await you; why not indulge in a cream tea or simply enjoy the fresh air? You'll also have Hampshire's New Forest on your doorstep, which is a haven for wildlife. This stunning National Park was once a Norman hunting forest and covers some 90,000 acres.”*

*“Set in 180 acres the Sir Harold Hillier Gardens & Arboretum contains the greatest collection of hardy trees and shrubs in the world-a garden for all seasons it provides a year round kaleidoscope of colour, scents and textures. The Stourton House Flower Garden allows you to stroll through, round and under a wonderful array of blooms, enjoy a creamy tea on the verandah or just sit and watch the dragonflies perform aerobatics over the “pitcher plant pond”.”*

*“Situated in the New Forest, the world-famous Exbury Gardens stretch over 200 acres of natural beauty. Created in the 1920s, the gardens feature spectacular displays of colour all year round, including rhododendrons, camellias and azaleas. You can even plant a piece of Exbury in your own back garden, as the plant shop on site sells cuttings from its enviable displays. Children will love the steam railway that weaves its way around the grounds.”*

*“Take a stroll through Bournemouth's 2,000 acres of award winning gardens and parks through some landscaping little changed in more than a hundred years.”*

#### **6.3.6 Commercial Image Promotion**

Another important theme that emerged from the content analysis was the “Commercial Image Promotion”. Tourism marketers illustrated to several tourism brochures a commercial image describing the commercial centre of the town, its traditional markets and also, expressing the shopping experience that visitors would



have when they will visit the resort. Some portrayal from the tourism brochures were the following:

*“Bournemouth town centre oozes style, with a wide range of shops, nearby gardens to sunbathe in, and minutes from the beaches. Whether you come for the palm trees or the café/nightlife scene, you will find what you’re looking for here.”*

*“The main town centre is a hubbub of glittering shops, and is listed in the top 25 UK shopping centres. Here boutiques rub shoulders with high street favourites, and department stores all sit happily on wide pedestrianised boulevards. There are many arcades filled with unusual independent stores selling high quality merchandise, as well as all the top names in shopping.”*

*“Taste the famous Dorset Blue Vinney cheese and wash it down with a delicious elderflower fruit wine. Buy wild boar and pheasant, honey products and olives... and chocolate lovers; keep an eye out for the chocolate torte! Make the most of a traditional farmers market, a perfect opportunity to sample the best of Dorset!”*

### **6.3.7 Architectural Image Promotion**

The *“Architectural Image Promotion”* theme emerged from the content analysis. Many references in the tourism brochures displayed the resort’s architecture as follows:

*“If you enjoy seeing how the other half used to live you’ll love Athelhampton House and Gardens, an outstanding 15<sup>th</sup>-century manor house containing fine furniture and set in extensive architectural gardens.”*

*“If it is the architecture of a building that you enjoy most, Highcliffe Castle a Grade 1 listed building is a must-being a fine example of the Romantic and Picturesque style. A permanent exhibition of its history and owners is coupled with cliff-top grounds and spectacular sea views.”*

*“In Bournemouth, St.Clement’s Church, a Grade 1 listed building, is an ecclesiastical structure of note. Completed in 1873 it was designed by Victorian architect John Dando Sedding. It features an unusually high pulpit reminiscent of St.Clement’s in Rome and interestingly is the burial place of the first bishop of Honolulu!”*

*“Closer to home, why not pay a visit to the Minster in the market town of Wimborne, with its rare chained library dating back to the 17th century and a knight with two left feet. Equally close to Bournemouth is Christchurch Priory, which houses the Miraculous Beam that grew in length, causing the town to be named with appropriate reverence.”*

#### **6.3.8 Famous People and Literary Figures Image Promotion**

Another theme that emerged from the content analysis was the *“Famous People and Literary Figures Image Promotion”*. Tourism marketers projected in the tourism brochures people that were famous residents or visitors in order to attract more

visitors in the resort. In addition, they portrayed some of the historical literary figures emphasising that they were inspired by the beauty of the resort.

*“Bournemouth has its fair share of famous residents and visitors, both past and present. The most scandalous for its time was when King Edward VII (then the Prince of Wales) built a house in Bournemouth for his mistress, actress Lillie Langtry, in 1877 for their secret rendezvous. Now called the Langtry Manor, Lillie's "Red House" still bears Lillie's and Edward's initials with intertwined hearts scratched into a downstairs window.”*

*“Other famous visitors and residents of the town include Oscar Wilde, Rupert Brooke, Lawrence and Gerard Gerald Durrell and the young Sir Winston Churchill, who almost changed the course of history when he fell off an Alum Chine bridge playing Cowboys and Indians and nearly died.”*

*“Bournemouth's most famous literary association is with the Shelley family. Mary Shelley, author of Frankenstein and wife of the Romantic poet Percy Bysshe Shelley, is buried in St.Peter's Church graveyard, along with-as legend has it-the heart of her husband.”*

*“Another resident writer of fantasy was J.R.R. Tolkein, famous author of The Hobbit and Lord of the Rings, who was a frequent visitor of the Hotel Miramar in Bournemouth and died in the town whilst visiting friends in 1973. If you are a clever detective, you will find the simple grave of Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, creator of the famous sleuth Sherlock Holmes, in Minstead church, its inscription reading "steel true, blade straight".”*

*"If you enjoy discovering unspoilt countryside and dramatic coastlines, then Dorset and the New Forest will truly astound. It was, after all, the patchwork quilt fields and spectacular coastline of Dorset that provided the inspiration for Thomas Hardy's novels "Far from the Madding Crowd" and "Tess of the D'Urbervilles" while the rugged "Jurassic" coastline of East Dorset has recently been designated a "World Heritage" site. In adjoining Hampshire, the ancient New Forest was created as a "Rooyal Hunting Ground" by William the Conqueror and remains virtually untouched by the 20th century."*

### **6.3.9 Cuisine and Dining Image Promotion**

The *"Cuisine and Dining Image Promotion"* was another theme that emerged from the content analysis of this study. Tourism marketers advertised the international and national cuisine of the town suggesting places to visit for lunch or dinner throughout the day or night as follows:

*"Bournemouth's appeal to all ages and nationalities is reflected in the global cuisine served in the resort's restaurants, bistros, cafés and bars. After a day's sunbathing or sightseeing, unwind with a cappuccino or catch up with friends over a meal from one of the mouth-watering menus on offer."*

*"Dining out in Bournemouth is a mouth-watering cosmopolitan delight. In just a single seaside resort you can discover cuisine from across the world, served to your table with a welcoming smile. From a cappuccino and light lunch in a friendly café to*

*a three-course dinner in a sophisticated bistro, Bournemouth has a menu for every occasion."*

*"You'll find delicious dishes from all corners of the globe, including France, America, Brazil, China, Mexico, Morocco, Italy, Spain and India. There are even family-friendly pubs and traditional fish and chip restaurants to complete the fare on offer."*

*"At the end of a hectic day you can always relax and enjoy a meal in one of the many restaurants and pubs along the length of the beach while watching the sunset."*

*"And when you fancy a spot to eat, take your choice from the restaurants, bars and bistros, offering everything from traditional English fare to the finest exotic cuisine."*

#### **6.3.10 Historical Image Promotion**

The *"Historical Image Promotion"* theme emerged from the content analysis of this study. References to history of the resort were made in the tourism brochures. The tourism brochures included information about the town's history and archaeology referencing to the various castles, stately homes, churches and sacred sites of the resort. Some of the references comments were the following:

*"If you enjoy seeing how the other half used to live you'll love Athelhampton House and Gardens, an outstanding 15<sup>th</sup>-century manor house containing fine furniture and set in extensive architectural gardens."*

*“Portland Castle is just one of many “must see” English Heritage properties near Bournemouth. Its history dates from Henry VIII to D-Day when it was an embarkation point for Allied Forces. Whilst there, be sure to walk the battlements for some superb views and the chance of a ghostly encounter.”*

*“The motoring enthusiast is catered for the National Motor Museum, Beaulieu. Here you will find one of the finest collections of vehicles and memorabilia in the world from early vintage models to Damon Hills’ winning Formula 1 car. Close by the well worth a visit is picturesque Buckler’s Hard, an 18<sup>th</sup>-century ship building village where wooden ships for Nelson’s fleet were built.”*

*“On a more poignant historical note you can relive the lives and times of the Tolpuddle Martyrs by following their trail in Tolpuddle village. The museum tells of the people, background and events experienced by the martyrs, whilst in the village you will find Thomas Standfield’s cottage, James Hammett’s grave and “Martyrs’ Tree” which sheltered Friendly Society meetings. The celebration of local traditions and cultures is shared collectively through the festivals and fairs that are held each year.”*

*“Travel further afield, and you’ll soon find stately homes, ruined castles and picturesque villages. Alternatively, you can savour the beauty of the New Forest; drink in the splendour of Dorset’s spectacular World Heritage Jurassic coastline; or enjoy the rolling countryside where Thomas Hardy lived.”*

*“You don’t have to travel far to immerse yourself in the region’s rich heritage. Glorious stately homes, impressive castles and majestic ruins offer fascinating*

*glimpses into the history of Dorset and surrounding area. If stately homes are on your list, Athelhampton House is one of the finest 15th century country houses in England. The Tudor manor is surrounded by beautiful gardens, with striking topiary pyramids. Slightly closer to home is Beaulieu's Palace House and 13th century abbey, with walks, exhibitions and children's rides in the extensive grounds for a great family day out."*

#### **6.4 THEMES OF THE PROMOTION OF PROJECTED IMAGE FROM BOURNEMOUTH'S PROMOTIONAL WEBSITE**

The content analysis results of textual representations from the promotional website identified five themes describing which image was projected and used to promote the resort. It was observed in comparison with the textual content analysis of tourism brochures that the promotional website had less textual representations. In addition, the promotional website did not contain any textual representations for "*Art and Culture Image Promotion*", "*Commercial Image Promotion*", "*Architectural Image Promotion*" or "*Cuisine and Dining Image Promotion*". On the other hand, the promotional website had visual images related to the above themes such as cultural events and facilities, shopping, historic buildings and heritage and local cuisine and dining as exemplified later in this chapter.

##### **6.4.1 Seaside Image Promotion**

The first theme that emerged from the content analysis of the promotional website was the "*Seaside Image Promotion*". The findings illustrated that tourism marketers portrayed more the seaside image of the resort at the promotional website combining a description of the seven miles beach, the seaside awards, the attractions near the

beach, the recreation activities that visitors would enjoy and also the entertainment that visitors would have, visiting the resort. The following were some advertising examples from the promotional website:

*“Experience a taste of the continent on the south coast of England. Nestled in a sheltered bay, Bournemouth’s seven miles of safe, sun-kissed beaches are perfect if you dream about long, lazy days by the sea”*

*“Try your hand at wake boarding, surfing or kayaking, or join a game of beach volleyball”*

*“Bournemouth’s award-winning beach is now the biggest and widest it has been for 60 years, with more space for visitors and residents. Most importantly however, the beach and coast have been protected for many years to come”*

*“Bournemouth’s beach during the winter season is an enchanting place”*

*“For the thrill seekers, hop on a simulator ride at Pier Approach by Bournemouth Pier and be prepared to get thrown around”*

#### **6.4.2 Entertainment Image Promotion**

The second theme that emerged from the content analysis of the promotional website was the *“Entertainment Image Promotion”*. The findings illustrated that tourism marketers emphasised the entertainment image of the resort at the promotional



website describing the shopping experience of the town, its festivals and its events programmes and entertainment all day and night with many ways in the town.

*“Bournemouth’s Town Centre provides a great choice of shops and boutiques in a traditional setting”*

*“At night, the town shimmers with glittering entertainment and star-studded West End shows.”*

*“Check out the amusements with the latest games at Bournemouth Pier and Neptune Arcade or the old favourites and Bingo at Happylands near West Cliff Lift.”*

*“Bournemouth is on the tour circuit for many top bands and international DJ’s and with a late night capacity of over 20,000; our numerous clubs and bars caters for every musical taste”*

The findings also illustrated that tourism marketers advertised a combination of the entertainment image with the seaside and natural environment image at the promotional website as follows:

*“Look beyond the award-winning golden sands and you’ll soon fall in love with the acres of beautiful gardens, top attractions, buzzing nightlife, breathtaking surrounding countryside and welcoming hospitality that attract both the young and young at heart”*

*“With seven miles of golden sands and sparkling sea, the vibrant cosmopolitan town of Bournemouth has it all-a vast variety of shops and restaurants, buzzing nightlife, endless countryside offering peace and relaxation, beautiful award-winning gardens and water sports galore”*

### **6.4.3 Recreation Activities Image Promotion**

The *“Recreation Activities Image Promotion”* was one of the important themes that emerged from the content analysis of this study. The findings showed that tourism marketers projected in the promotional website various sports and activities for all ages as the following:

*“Try your hand at wake boarding, surfing or kayaking, or join a game of beach volleyball”*

*“Whether you are after some adventure, to entertain (tire out) the kids, try something new or indulge in a bit of “me time”, Bournemouth offers a variety of sports and action!”*

*“The new artificial Surf Reef will offer, in addition to the beach facilities, the opportunity to try out windsurfing, surfing and boogie boarding! If water sports are not your thing, there’s fishing, tennis, bowling, golf, biking, hiking and even horse riding in the New Forest!”*

*“Whatever the weather, there are award-winning sport and leisure facilities in Bournemouth for the whole family to enjoy”*

*“Meyrick Park has many sporting activities there including an 18-hole golf course and outdoor bowls green accommodating International Bowling Tournaments.”*

#### **6.4.4 Natural Environment Image Promotion**

Another important theme that emerged from the findings was the *“Natural Environment Image Promotion”*. The findings demonstrated that tourism marketers advertised in the promotional website the resort’s gardens and parks, its countryside and the resort’s near forest as follows:

*“After a full day’s sightseeing, unwind in an alfresco coffee shop or stroll through the delightful tranquillity of over 2000 acres of Victorian parks and gardens”*

*“It takes a regiment of gardeners to plant the 280,000 summer bedding plants in Bournemouth gardens, water the 300 ornamental flower pedestals and tend the 30 flower filled roundabouts-each one created as a garden in miniature.”*

*“The Upper and Central and Lower Gardens are maybe the most famous and retain much of their Victorian character and are Listed Grade II. You can take a beautiful walk from the seafront through these gardens for 1.5 miles.”*

*“Pinewalk in the Lower Gardens-originally referred to as “Invalids Walk” by the Victorians when the aroma from the pine trees was considered beneficial for chest complaints.”*

#### 6.4.5 Historical and Famous People-Literary Figures Image Promotion

The “*Historical and Famous People-Literary Figures Image Promotion*” theme emerged from the content analysis of this study. Tourism marketers advertised in the promotional website a combination of the town’s history with reference to various iconic image figures. References to history of the resort were made in the promotional website describing the town’s history and the history of various hotels, stately homes, churches of the resort as follows:

*“The Russell-Cotes Art Gallery & Museum has a wealth of history attached to it”*

*“The Royal Bath Hotel hosted many royal visitors including Empress Eugenie, the Queen of Sweden, the King of Belgians and Edward VII. The hotel still attracts many celebrity quests to this day”*

*“The first spa hotel was built in 1885-the Mont Dore Hotel (now Bournemouth’s Town Hall). Apart from luxury rooms and tennis courts, the hotel also offered the Mont Dore cure which was said to be healing water and could not be found anywhere else in England. Sea and pure water from the Bourne stream were pumped into the basement of the hotel to allow the additional luxury of soaking and perspiring in Turkish and salt baths.”*

*“Bournemouth’s spa magic has been revitalised and history is repeating itself. A century ago the cream of Victorian society including royalty flocked to Bournemouth’s pine forest landscape of luxurious villas.”*

*“In Tess of the D’Urbervilles Thomas Hardy affectionately described Bournemouth as “a Mediterranean lounging place on the English Channel”. The aroma and perfume of the pine trees were considered health-giving and many a famous person came here to take advantage of it including J.R.R. Tolkien and D.H. Lawrence.”*

*“Lillie Langtry was one of London’s most celebrated society ladies in the mid 1800’s. She caught the eye of the Prince of Wales (Later Edward VII) and became his mistress. In order for them to have some private time away from the prying eyes, the prince arranged for a house to be built in 1877 for them in the new fashionable watering place of Bournemouth.”*

In addition, tourism marketers projected some of the famous people and literary figures who have been part of Bournemouth’s history as follows:

*“Sir Dan Godfrey-the Iconic founder and Principal Conductor for 41 year of the Bournemouth Municipal Orchestra.”*

*“Major General Richard Moody-Leading colonial administrator who was the First Governor of the Falkland Islands and the First Lieutenant Governor of New Caledonia before it became part of the newly formed British Columbia.”*

*“Mary Shelley-author whose work includes the famous Frankenstein novel”*

*“Percy Bysshe Shelley-Mary Shelley’s husband and one of the major English Romantic poets, political radical and a free-thinker.”*

*“William Godwin-father of Mary Shelley and a political writer”*

## **6.5 CONTENT ANALYSIS OF BOURNEMOUTH’S VISUAL IMAGES**

A content analysis was performed on the tourism brochures and promotional website photographs in order to understand the projected Bournemouth image more comprehensively. All the pictorial images from the tourism brochures and the promotional website were collected and categorised into ten major categories.

The ten major categories were the following:

- 1) Historic buildings and heritage,
- 2) Cultural events and facilities,
- 3) Parks and gardens,
- 4) Shopping,
- 5) Tourism facilities and infrastructure,
- 6) Entertainment and gaming,
- 7) Bird’s eye and natural views,
- 8) Local cuisine and dining,
- 9) Sports/Recreation activities and festivals,
- 10) People and local residents.

Content analysis of visual information including photographs in tourism brochures and in promotional websites can provide a great deal of information about the images projected of tourism destinations. Dilley (1986), for example, compared the images used in 21 different National Tourist Organisation brochures in projecting their

destination to the North American market. The author found that over half the brochures devoted more than 75 per cent of their page space to pictorial images. The author found that there were clear regional patterns in the types of images projected, with brochures for Britain, India, Japan, Portugal, showing a clear dominance of history and art type images, brochures for islands showing pictures of recreational pursuits and coastal landscapes and with some islands focusing on the exotic with images of local people, history and art.

The brochure representations of Scotland were investigated by Hughes (1992) who found, for example, that just under three-quarters of the pictures in the main guide of the Scottish Tourist Board (STB) are dominated by the theme of castles and landscape. Govers and Go (2005) were content analysed twenty Dubai-based websites in terms of the photographic material and textual representations in order to analyse how destination identity is projected through the use of photographic imagery and narratives. The authors found that private sector organisations projected images relate primarily to the specific facilities and tourist activities on offer in contrast with the destination marketing organisation that focused on the projection of cultural identity and heritage.

### **6.5.1 Visual Images from Tourism Brochures**

Overall, the images on the Bournemouth's tourism brochures pictured the resort as a natural, cultural, recreational and lively destination showing lots of natural views of the seaside, recreation experiences, festivals and cultural events. Among the total of 433 pictorial images, as Table 6.2 illustrates below, 59 were "*bird's eye and natural*

views”, 50 were “*sports/recreation activities and festivals*” and 57 were “*entertainment and gaming*”.

The resort was displayed as a place rich in historic buildings, heritage sites and cultural events as 49 photographs were “*historic buildings and heritage*” showing castles and historic buildings and another 49 were “*cultural events and facilities*” demonstrated various cultural events.

**Table 6.2: Frequency rates from the content analysis of tourism brochure’s pictorial images.**

Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Bird's eye and natural views	59	13.6%
Entertainment and gaming	57	13.2%
Sports/Recreation activities and festivals	50	11.5%
Historic buildings and heritage	49	11.3%
Cultural events and facilities	49	11.3%
Local cuisine and dining	44	10.2%
Parks and gardens	38	8.8%
Tourism facilities and infrastructure	38	8.8%
People and local residents	31	7.2%
Shopping	18	4.2%
Total	433	100%

In addition, the results of the content analysis displayed that among the total of the pictorial images, 44 were “*local cuisine and dining*” showing actual dining experiences, 38 were “*parks and gardens*” and another 38 were “*tourism facilities and infrastructure*” showing various hotels, transportation and convention facilities. Furthermore, the 31 images were “*people and local residents*” and finally only the 18 images were “*shopping*” showing people shopping in the various commercial centre of the town.



6.5.2 Visual Images from Promotional Website

The results from the content analysis of the promotional website’s pictorial images contained a high proportion of images related to “*sports/recreation activities and festivals*” and “*tourism facilities and infrastructure*” (Table 6.3). Another dominant categories in the promotional website were the “*bird’s eye and natural views*” and the “*entertainment and gaming*”.

**Table 6.3: Frequency rates from the content analysis of promotional website’s pictorial images.**

Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Sports/Recreation activities and festivals	55	17.3%
Bird's eye and natural views	49	15.4%
Tourism facilities and infrastructure	40	12.6%
Entertainment and gaming	37	11.6%
People and local residents	29	9.1%
Parks and gardens	27	8.5%
Local cuisine and dining	24	7.5%
Shopping	20	6.3%
Cultural events and facilities	19	6.0%
Historic buildings and heritage	18	5.7%
Total	318	100%

In addition, the contents analysis of the promotional website demonstrated that among the total of 318 pictorial images, 29 were “*people and local residents*”, 27 were “*parks and gardens*”, 24 were “*local cuisine and dining*” and 20 were “*shopping*” (Table 6.3). From the content analysis of the promotional website was observed that the number of visual images of the “*historic buildings and heritage*” and “*cultural events and facilities*” were smaller than for any other category.

It was noted comparing the visual images of tourism brochures with them of the promotional website that the tourism brochures had more visual images about the “*bird’s eye and natural views*” and “*entertainment and gaming*” than the promotional website. In addition, more images related to “*historic buildings and heritage*” and “*cultural events and facilities*” were on the tourism brochures than on the promotional website.

In addition, the promotional website contained a much higher proportion of images related to “*sports/recreation activities and festivals*”, “*local cuisine and dining*”, “*parks and gardens*”, “*shopping*”, “*tourism facilities and infrastructure*” and “*people and local residents*”. Furthermore, it was observed that in comparison with the textual content analysis of the promotional website, the tourism brochures and the promotional website were portrayed visual images about the “*local cuisine and dining*”, “*tourism facilities and infrastructure*” and “*people and local residents*”.

## 6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings from the content analysis of the textual representations and photographic material of the resort’s fifteen tourism brochures and the promotional website. Firstly, the chapter suggested the main theme of the findings from the content analysis of the textual representations from both the tourism brochures and the promotional website as the “*projected image*” with twenty three attributes describing the projected image of the resort mainly as “*cosmopolitan*”, “*vibrant*”, “*beautiful*” and then as “*famous*”, “*modern*” and “*sporty*”.

Secondly, the chapter discussed the ten themes emerged from the content analysis of the textual representations from the tourism brochures which identified the image identity that was projected and was used by the tourism marketers to market the tourism destination of Bournemouth. The findings exemplified that tourism marketers were projecting multiple image identities of the resort in their promotional literature. Some of the multiple image identities were the resort's seaside, its entertainment, its recreation activities, its natural environment, its culture and history and its architecture.

Thirdly, the chapter discussed the five themes emerged from the content analysis of textual representations from the promotional website which suggested that the promotion of the resort's seaside, its entertainment experiences and its recreation activities were projected by tourism marketers followed by the promotion of the resort's natural environment and its history with a combination of famous people and literary figures. These findings confirmed that tourism marketers were projecting multiple image identities of the resort also in the promotional literature of the promotional website.

Finally, this chapter illustrated and discussed the results from the content analysis of the visual images from the tourism brochures and the promotional website which categorised into ten categories. In summary, the findings revealed that tourism brochures were portrayed Bournemouth as a tourist destination by using bird's eye and natural views (13.6%) as a major image, followed by entertainment and gaming (13.2%), sports/recreation activities and festivals (11.5%) and historic buildings and heritage (11.3%). Furthermore, the promotional website demonstrated Bournemouth

images as the destination first for sports/recreation activities and festivals (17.3%) and then followed by bird’s eye and natural views (15.4%), tourism facilities and infrastructure (12.6%) and entertainment and gaming (11.6%).

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter highlights and recaps the research process of this study including the research background and objectives, methodology and data analysis techniques that have been adapted. In addition, this chapter concludes the thesis by addressing the contributions and implications of the research, as well as discussing the limitations of the current study and suggested future research.

#### **7.2 SUMMARY OF THESIS AND DISCUSSIONS**

The study started by reviewing the theoretical background and empirical research in tourism destination and destination marketing literatures and also in destination image and destination branding literatures in an attempt to cover most studies related to the research problem.

As destination marketing is often designed to attract people to particular places, tourism marketers from various tourism organisations seek to develop a favourable image of destinations in order to increase product consumption (McIntosh, 1984). The analysis of the tourism image of destinations has acquired special relevance in the last few years considering, in particular, its capacity to influence the tourists' decision-making process. However, the projected tourism image has been much less analysed than the images perceived by the tourists, residents or retailers.

This objective raises various questions such as to how the destination image is formed and to what extent does it match the social realities of the destination. It also provokes further questions concerning the level of importance of the process of creating and applying an image. A destination image has a crucial role in travel purchase decisions and levels of tourist satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Chon, 1990). Tourism marketing research generally focuses on such issues, thereby contributing to ways in which tourist destinations should be managed and strategically developed (see for example, Laws, 1995; Kotler, 2000). Although some studies have broke away from this general approach by emphasising the conceptual images in marketing and in the branding process of destinations (see for example, Ahmed, 1996; Baloglu, 1997; Chon, 1990), the projected images of a destination have not been sufficiently dealt with from an empirical-based perspective; especially one which considers the role of tourism marketers. Consequently, this study attempted to contribute to expand the conceptual understanding of “image projection”, as well as contributing to paradigms associated with “destination branding”, “destination marketing” and “iconography”.

The objectives of this study were to critically assess the range of promotional techniques which tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively; to identify the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use to advance the projected image; to determine the past and present projected tourism image of the resort and to examine its brand personality from the perspective of tourism marketers; and finally to identify the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications

such as promotional tourism brochures and online information sources in order to understand which image used to market the resort effectively.

This study adopted grounded theory approach combined with a case study method and in particular, the approach of grounded theory proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Semi-structured interviews were used with 25 tourism marketers from various tourism organisations of Bournemouth as the primary data source supplemented by the textual and visual content analysis of the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website of Bournemouth to provide a fuller picture of this rather complex destination image phenomenon.

Throughout this study a constant comparative method of analysis was conducted and comparisons between data were made continuously as the data was analysed for patterns of relationships between categories that emerged. From the reorganising of categories occurred 145 concepts that were assigned by the researcher to twelve categories and from the original list of 371 subcategory nodes, 148 remained under the twelve categories. Saturation of categories occurred during the twenty fifth interview in this research. The twelve categories were the following:

- 1) Bournemouth's Main Markets and the Factors Underlying Their Choice;
- 2) Market Segments of Bournemouth;
- 3) Visitor Segments of Bournemouth;
- 4) Promotional Tools;
- 5) Key Image Associations;
- 6) Co-operation of Public-Private Partnerships;
- 7) Bournemouth's Competitors;

- 8) Effective Promotion;
- 9) Positive Brand Personality;
- 10) Negative Brand Personality;
- 11) Past Projected Tourism Image;
- 12) Present Projected Tourism Image.

In summary, the findings from the twelve categories revealed that tourism marketers concentrated mainly to the leisure and tourism markets in order to promote the resort and then to business, convention and educational markets. Additionally, the significant market segments of Bournemouth were the European countries of France, Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Cyprus, Belgium and then the countries of U.S.A, China and Brazil and also the UK destinations of London, the South East, East and West Midlands and the North. The findings illustrated that day visitors in peak months came mainly from London and the South East, although day visitors in off-peak months came from Hampshire, Dorset and Berkshire.

Furthermore, the findings demonstrated that the visitor segments that tourism marketers targeted in order to promote the resort were diverse and depended upon their various promotional campaigns. The business and corporate markets, the groups of families and young free and singles were their main segments and then families with kids, groups of friends, couples with double income and no kids (DINKS), the language school students and empty nesters. Additionally, meeting friends and relatives and stockbroker surfers were their flourishing market segments.



The main promotional techniques that tourism marketers of the resort were using in order to portray the projected image and as a result to encourage visitors to take a holiday in Bournemouth were the tourism promotional website, tourism brochures, marketing campaigns, direct marketing and other promotional tools. The findings revealed that the tourism promotional website, the tourism brochures and the public relations of Bournemouth were recognised as the most important promotional tools. Additionally, all the traditionally recognised promotional tools such as advertising, public relations, sales promotion, indirect marketing and tourism-specific tools such as tourism brochures had an important role in Bournemouth's marketing strategies in overseas markets.

The findings illustrated that the key image associations that tourism marketers were using in order to promote the resort via their tourism promotional website and tourism brochures were images including icons with entertainment facilities and events and with a number of family and sports activities. In addition, tourism marketers were using photographic representations from the French, Italian and German markets, from the countryside and the various restaurants of the resort and also several images illustrating a cosmopolitan, funny and safe environment.

This study revealed that the close co-operation between the public and private sector of the resort was the key to a successful promotion of the resort and that these partnerships attracted visitors in the long term. In addition, local town suppliers had the ability to co-operate between themselves in order to increase the tourism demand rather than to compete with each other. However, the findings showed that there were

various cities and seaside resorts that have been competed with the resort as tourism in the resort increased successfully. Hence, the main competitors of the resort in relation to conferences, exhibition venues and events were Harrogate, Manchester, Edinburgh and Birmingham and also Cardiff and Belfast in Northern Ireland due to their conference centre developments. In addition, competing seaside resorts were mainly Brighton, Weymouth, Blackpool, Newquay, Torbay and in particular Torquay and Cornwall.

This study uncovered that the various destination marketing campaigns that tourism marketers were creating for the resort and the efficient promotional techniques that they were using were playing an important role to the promotion of the projected image of the resort. Additionally, the successful tourism promotional website of the resort was one of their main reasons for the effectiveness of their promotion.

The fact that tourism marketers diversified their segment markets from the traditional market, their updated tourism marketing strategy and the improved co-operation of public-private partnerships had a tremendous effect on the promotion of the resort's projected image. Moreover, another consequence of the effective promotion was that of the well-managed programme of events for all seasons and the key driver for the recent promotion of the resort's projected image was the promotion of multiple images.

In this study destination personality is defined as the set of human characteristics associated with the seaside resort of Bournemouth as perceived from the tourism marketers' viewpoint. This study discovered that Bournemouth's brand was composed of thirteen personality characteristics such as vibrant, cosmopolitan, youthful, ambitious, active, creative, confident, friendly, enjoyable, talkative, amusing, fashionable and changeable. On the other hand, Bournemouth was represented with a few negative personality attributes such as unpredictable, demanding, alcoholic, inquisitive, hectic and confusing.

Finally, from the findings of the twelve categories this study determined the past projected tourism image of the resort as traditional, nostalgic, peaceful, romantic, serene and refined. The projected tourism image has been through a lot of changes due to increasing competition, to the rapid changes of technology and also due to various factors such as visitor's expectations, habits and trends, various developments of the resort and as a result tourism marketers were presently promoting lively, creative, vibrant, modern and cosmopolitan images of the resort. This study suggested that the present projected tourism image of the resort was a multidimensional image as tourism marketers were not portraying the town as a seaside resort destination only but as a major urban area that would attract more visitors every year.

The constant comparative method of analysis along with the coding procedures led to the emergence of four core categories which established by the researcher as being the core categories of Bournemouth's projected image effective promotional factors. The four core categories that emerged were the "*Promotion of Multiple Images*", "*Positive*

*Diverse Slogans*”, “*Successful Tourism Promotional Website*” and “*Complex Brand Identity*”.

This study revealed the first factor that demonstrated the effective promotion of the resort’s projected image that tourism marketers have been achieved as the “*Promotion of Multiple Images*”. In summary, the promotion of multiple images of the resort has been used from tourism marketers in order to form and portray the resort’s projected image. This study exemplified that tourism marketers were portraying multiple images of the resort in order to encourage a broader and more diverse range of visitors. Tourism marketers achieved the effective promotion of the resort’s projected image by portraying in all the promotional literature multiple images and by portraying all the sectors of the resort instead of promoting a unique image. Additionally, tourism marketers were using cultural symbols in their promotional materials to promote the country’s built heritage and natural environment and also they were using literature in order to give another quality in the image identity of the resort. Consequently, the findings of this study uncovered that the resort has been able to maintain its status as one of the key British resorts despite the fact that tourism marketers were generating a multidimensional image identity of the resort instead of creating a single image identity.

The second effective promotional factor of the resort’s projected image that tourism marketers have been accomplished was the “*Positive Diverse Slogans*”. Tourism marketers were creating diverse slogans each year in order to promote the resort effectively such as “*A Resort for all Seasons*”, “*Britain’s family world class resort*”, “*Life’s a Beach-Seven Miles of Golden Sand*”, “*Bournemouth your south coast*”

*escape*”, “*Britain’s Baywatch*”, and “*Bournemouth the chic town of the South Coast*”. However, despite the diverse slogans that tourism marketers were using, tourism marketers highlighted that the slogan that appeared to cover everything was “*A Resort for all Seasons*”. This study revealed that tourism marketers were using diverse slogans in order to attract a wide range of segments, to follow tourism demand trends and to distinguish the resort from other seaside resorts destinations. Consequently, this regularly altering of slogans updated the projected image of the resort.

The “*Successful Tourism Promotional Website*” of the resort was the third effective promotional factor of the resort’s projected image. This study illustrated that tourism marketers were successfully portraying the projected image of the resort through the tourism promotional website via various sources of information and also via multiple images. The findings revealed that tourism marketers of the resort were modified the online promotional information continuously in order to influence the diverse range of tourists visiting the resort and as a result the tourism promotional website has been expanded to include sections that appeal to specific target groups in addition to the independent traveller. The tourism promotional website of the resort became successful due to the fact that tourism marketers had to try to convey a sense of experiencing the place through virtual tours, weather updates, programme of events and festivals and diverse images rather than merely delivering a site encounter.

Finally, this study exemplified as the fourth effective promotional factor the “*Complex Brand Identity*” of the resort. Despite the complex brand identity of the resort there was a positive outcome of the achievement of unity and collaboration among the tourism marketers of the resort. The brand identity of the resort was

combined by multiple images illustrating a cosmopolitan, creative, vibrant, youthful and modern identity. In addition, this study revealed that the development of the resort's complex brand identity has led the resort to differentiate from other seaside resorts and to the successful transformation of the resort into a cosmopolitan and vibrant leisure and business tourism destination.

Additionally, this study revealed the projected image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers were portraying through marketing communications in order to market the resort effectively by analysing textual and visual representations of the resorts' tourism brochures and its tourism promotional website. From the content analysis of the textual representations from both the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website revealed the main theme of the "*projected identity*" with twenty three attributes describing the projected identity of the resort mainly as "*cosmopolitan*", "*vibrant*", "*beautiful*" and then as "*famous*", "*modern*" and "*sporty*".

Ten themes emerged from the content analysis of the textual representations from the tourism brochures which identified the image identity that was projected and was used by the tourism marketers to market the tourism destination of Bournemouth. This study exemplified that tourism marketers were projecting multiple image identities of the resort in their promotional literature in order to encourage a broader and more diverse range of visitors and some of them were the resorts' seaside, its entertainment, its recreation activities, its natural environment, its culture and history and its architecture.

Five themes emerged from the content analysis of textual representations from the tourism promotional website which suggested that the promotion of the resorts' seaside, its entertainment experiences and its recreation activities were projected by tourism marketers followed by the promotion of the resorts' natural environment and its' history with a combination of famous people and literary figures. These findings confirmed that tourism marketers were projecting multiple image identities of the resort also in the promotional literature of the tourism promotional website.

It was observed in comparison with the textual content analysis of tourism brochures that the tourism promotional website did not contain any textual representations of the resort's art and culture, its architecture and its commerce. On the other hand, the tourism promotional website had visual images related to the above themes such as photographic representations of cultural events and facilities, shopping, historic buildings and heritage.

In this study the visual images from the content analysis of the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website categorised into ten categories such as:

- 1) Historic buildings and heritage,
- 2) Cultural events and facilities,
- 3) Parks and gardens,
- 4) Shopping,
- 5) Tourism facilities and infrastructure,
- 6) Entertainment and gaming,
- 7) Bird's eye and natural views,
- 8) Local cuisine and dining,

- 9) Sports/Recreation activities and festivals,
- 10) People and local residents.

This study discovered that tourism brochures were portrayed Bournemouth as a tourist destination by using bird's eye and natural views (13.6%) as a major image, followed by entertainment and gaming (13.2%), sports/recreation activities and festivals (11.5%) and historic buildings and heritage (11.3%). Additionally, the tourism promotional website demonstrated Bournemouth images as the destination first for sports/recreation activities and festivals (17.3%) and then followed by bird's eye and natural views (15.4%), tourism facilities and infrastructure (12.6%) and entertainment and gaming (11.6%).

It was noted comparing the visual images of tourism brochures with them of the tourism promotional website that the tourism brochures had more visual images about the *“bird's eye and natural views”* and *“entertainment and gaming”* than the tourism promotional website. In addition, more images related to *“historic buildings and heritage”* and *“cultural events and facilities”* were on the tourism brochures than on the tourism promotional website. The tourism promotional website contained a much higher proportion of images related to *“sports/recreation activities and festivals”*, *“local cuisine and dining”*, *“parks and gardens”*, *“shopping”*, *“tourism facilities and infrastructure”* and *“people and local residents”*. Furthermore, it was noted that in comparison with the textual content analysis of the tourism promotional website, the tourism brochures and the tourism promotional website were portrayed visual images about the *“local cuisine and dining”*, *“tourism facilities and infrastructure”* and *“people and local residents”*.



### 7.3 CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This thesis makes substantial contributions to the study of destination branding and especially to the projected images of seaside resorts. Previous research examining the projected images of tourism destinations is sparse, with even fewer studies examining the projected images of UK seaside resorts. Moreover, there has been no previous research to address the effective promotional techniques which tourism marketers use in order to advance the projected image. Similarly, there is no previous study to explore a seaside resort's past and present projected tourism image and its brand personality from the perspective of tourism marketers, especially in an endeavour to understand the transformation of seaside resorts. In the absence of the aforementioned research in the field of destination image, this study fills in a significant theoretical gap in the realm of destination branding.

Contributions of this research include (a) the use of grounded theory in destination marketing research; (b) the use of grounded theory to construct a theory of destination branding; (c) the use of grounded theory approach combined with a case study method; (d) the use of textual and visual content analysis of tourism brochures and online information sources; (e) the understanding of projected tourism image and brand personality in the context of tourism destinations by the perspective of tourism marketers; (f) the application of a grounded theory approach using NUD\*IST Vivo computer software system as data analysis; (g) the combination using content analysis of tourism brochures and online information sources; (i) the managerial contribution by giving recommendations for effective promotional factors to tourism marketers in

progressing the projected image of tourism destinations and especially of seaside resorts.

More important, the contribution of this thesis is threefold as it conveys methodological, practical and theoretical considerations.

### **7.3.1 Methodological considerations**

Strauss and Corbin (1994: 223) maintained that if “the phenomenon in question is a process, the method of choice for addressing the question is grounded theory”. Additionally, Glaser (1992) argued that grounded theory is a general method that can be used successfully by researchers in many disciplines. In terms of research carried out with the aim to either expand or generate new theory, Strauss and Corbin (1998) commented that grounded theory has come to rank among the most influential and widely used modes of qualitative research. Regardless of its usefulness and popularity, the use of grounded theory in destination branding has largely been neglected.

This study utilised the coding processes and constant comparison principles of the grounded theory approach. The results of this thesis revealed that the use of grounded theory is equally applicable to the field of destination branding. In utilising grounded theory, this study provides the first empirical analysis in relation to the promotion of the tourism image of Bournemouth, yields substantive theory on the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use in order to advance the projected

image and assess the range of promotional techniques which tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively.

### **7.3.2 Implications for theory**

The aim of the study was to answer the following questions:

- 1) Which are the promotional techniques that tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively?
- 2) Which are the effective promotional factors that tourism marketers use to advance the projected image of Bournemouth?
- 3) Which is the past and present projected tourism image of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers?
- 4) Which is the brand personality of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers?
- 5) Which is the projected tourism image of Bournemouth that tourism marketers promote through marketing communications such as promotional tourism brochures and online information sources?

To find answers to these questions, current theory and practice was reviewed. The research established there were differences between the theory of positioning a tourism destination and the reality of implementation within the seaside resort of Bournemouth studied. The existing theories seldom acknowledge the projected images of seaside resorts and this study provides a contribution to the body of knowledge. More specifically, this present study documents the way tourism marketers undertook promotional techniques for the projected image of a seaside

resort and their application to address a number of effective promotional factors: promotion of multiple images, positive diverse slogans, successful tourism promotional website and complex brand identity. In addition to the contribution to theory, the study highlighted several implications for practice which is discussed in the next section.

### **7.3.3 Implications for practice**

In today's competitive environment creating and managing an appropriate destination image and destination personality have become vital for effective product positioning. The information provided by this research has an added value of the promotion of destinations for the use of travel intermediaries who sell tourism products and public authorities that promote the different destinations. Promotion is a mid- and long-term investment aimed at building up a consistent and credible destination identity. Tourism brochures and online information sources can all create the image of a destination and every aspect of the promotional effort should project the same image to the tourist.

The textual representations projected by the tourism marketers in the tourism brochures were slightly different from those projected in the tourism promotional website. In addition, this study found that tourism marketers projected different online images of Bournemouth from those of the tourism brochures. This has significant implications for Bournemouth's tourism marketers and also calls for future studies on the roles and effects of destinations promotion through various travel intermediaries. While the Internet has obscured the identities of travel intermediaries and destination marketing organisations, there is no research to date that defines and analyses the online information role of travel intermediaries on destination image formation. This

study lends empirical support to the proposition of Govers and Go (2003) that image formation agents need to be redefined and categorised and incorporating the Internet into the continuum of image formation processes.

As a result of this study, the following propositions with regard to further research can be derived. Further studies should attempt a detailed examination of all tourism brochures of a destination in order to determine whether their usefulness is relating to image formation, influence on choice of destination and satisfaction of tourists' information needs. The ultimate purpose of image creation is to influence destination choice and manipulate demand. The impact of image, however, is much more wide-reaching in societal and cultural terms. In order to project desired image a destination must first identify its image and the effective promotional factors which contribute to it. This study demonstrated that these items can be identified. The research highlights key issues in destination branding and provides a platform for future research.

#### **7.4 LIMITATIONS AND STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY**

Irrespective of the design and focus of research studies, they will commonly have identifiable limitations. Very few studies have the advantage of time and resources which allow sufficient depth and breadth of investigation so that limitations are excluded entirely. It is acknowledged this current study has limitations which need to be taken into account when considering the findings. However, alongside these limitations are strengths that deserve to be highlighted.

This study investigated the projected image from tourism marketers' perspective using the destination of Bournemouth as a case study. The scope of this study is limited to Bournemouth, hence findings may not be regionally generalised. Tourism marketers in other seaside resorts may have different effective promotional factors in regard to the positioning of their image. Thus, it is suggested the data be collected from other seaside resorts to compare the obtained results. In addition, the case study for this research was based in the UK and research which is more international in focus would allow for further comparisons to be considered.

Several factors in this study may contribute to decrease generalizability of its findings. However, the objective of the research is not to provide statistical validation and universal generalizations but to discover patterns and develop theories for a better understanding of the subject under investigation. As Yin (1994:10) stated "case studies are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes".

Another limitation is due to the different qualitative traditions; researchers have been rather unsympathetic to the principles and procedures of grounded theory. They often consider the structure of the grounded theory method to be overly restrictive for the inherently artistic process that is qualitative data analysis. The researcher of this study acknowledges this criticism to a certain extent.

In addition, the sample size of twenty five participants could be viewed by some as a limitation of this study. However, it was adequate to satisfy data and category saturation, which in grounded theory approaches studies, is the more important determinant of appropriateness of sample size, rather than participant numbers per se.

Although the recruitment of participants for the study was very challenging, resulting in a protracted time for data collection, this provided strength to the data analysis process. In grounded theory, data collection and analysis need to occur concurrently. Within this process it is recommended that the data and emerging codes from each interview inform subsequent data collection. The extended time gap between many of the interviews allowed this to occur. A further strength of the study is that the procedures recommended to determine scientific rigour of qualitative studies were applied.

## **7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This research has shown that branding a tourism destination and especially positioning a seaside resort is a more complex phenomenon than the literature has suggested, and provides a foundation for further research into the phenomenon.

This study has identified several areas for further research. These include (a) further research into the effective promotional factors of Bournemouth's projected image to confirm the core categories suggested by this study; (b) research into the projected images of other seaside resorts in the UK; (c) a more comparative research into the similarities of Bournemouth's complex brand identity and Bournemouth's tourism

image as perceived by visitors; (d) further research into analysing all the tourism promotional websites that portraying Bournemouth to investigate further the projected image; (e) a comparative research into the effective promotional factors of other destinations or seaside resorts; (f) further research could be carried out from the perspectives of consumers at a defined target market, so as to investigate what or how Bournemouth image is perceived in the target market; (g) research into the application of the same methodology in other case studies to confirm whether the same universal views found here will be verified; (i) further studies may also be conducted using other qualitative methodologies (e.g., ethnography) to explore further the projected image of tourism destinations and the effective promotional techniques that tourism marketers undertake.



## APPENDIX I

### INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPANTS

**Title of Research:** Destination Branding: A Qualitative Analysis of Bournemouth's Projected Image as a UK Seaside Resort.

**Researcher's Name:** Sofia Panousi

**University:** London Metropolitan University

In order to decide whether you wish to participate in this research study, you should understand enough about its risks and benefits to be able to make an informed decision. This process is known as 'informed consent'.

This consent form provides detailed information about the research study. Before you sign this consent form, there are several general principles that apply to participation:

- Your participation is voluntary;
- You may or not benefit from participating in the study, but knowledge may be gained that benefit your organization;
- You may withdraw from the study at any time.

**Purpose of the Research:**

The research study is designed to critically evaluate the projected tourism image of a UK seaside resort: Bournemouth (A Seaside Resort with a multidimensional tourism image). I am a PhD student of the Business Service Sector Management of London Metropolitan University and I am conducting this research to achieve the following objectives:

- To critically assess the range of promotional techniques which the tourism marketers undertake in order to market Bournemouth effectively.
- To identify the effective promotional factors used to advance the projected image.

- To determine the past and present tourism image identity of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers, especially in an endeavour to confirm the resort's transformation.
- To examine the brand personality of the resort from the perspective of tourism marketers in order to verify its' destination identity.

**Explanation of Procedures:**

One phase of my research program involves semi-structured interviews with tourism organizations of Bournemouth which were randomly selected. Due to your position as one of the selected tourism organizations, you have been chosen to participate. Overall, twenty to twenty five person's in similar roles across Bournemouth will be included in this research.

Participation in this research will involve a semi-structure interview, which will last for approximately one hour. The questions for the interview will be sent to you prior to the interview. The interviews will be audio-taped by the researcher and later transcribed for the purpose of the data analysis. The interview will be conducted at a setting that is mutually agreeable to the participant and the researcher between the months of May and June.

**Risks and Discomforts:**

There are no risks or discomforts that are anticipated from your participation in the study.

**Confidentiality:**

The information gathered during this research will remain confidential. Only the researcher will have access to the research data and information. The tapes will be destroyed at the completion of the research. The results of the research will be published in the thesis of the researcher and may be published in a professional journal or presented at professional conference.

## APPENDIX II

### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

#### **“Destination branding: a qualitative analysis of Bournemouth’s projected image as a UK seaside resort”**

Prior to the commencement of the interview, the details of the study, as outlined on the consent form, will be reiterated to ensure that participants understand the intention of the study and their rights as research participants.

Measures will be taken to conduct the interview in a way that minimises any emotional discomfort that might occur as participants discuss issues related to the topic of the study. An informal interview environment will be maintained and questions will be asked in a non confrontational way, using a friendly, collegial demeanour. If any signs of distress do occur, the interview will be stopped temporarily, and if necessary, rescheduled for another time.

At the commencement of the interview participants will be encouraged to share information in a way that maintains anonymity and confidentiality and will be reminded that:

- 1) they have complete control over what they disclose;
- 2) the tape recorder can be stopped at any time if they do not wish some information to be recorded;
- 3) portions of the tape can be erased to remove any statements they do not wish to remain recorded;
- 4) in reference to any third parties they should not use any actual names of persons;
- 5) opportunity will be provided for them to review their interview transcripts and edit, delete, or add information as they see fit.

**INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TOURISM MARKETERS FROM THE  
TOURISM & LEISURE MARKETING SERVICES DIVISION OF  
BOURNEMOUTH BOROUGH COUNCIL AND FROM THE  
BOURNEMOUTH INTERNATIONAL CENTRE (BIC)**

**How have the tourism images of Bournemouth changed in recent years?**  
(Why have these images changed in your opinion?)

**Do you think a seaside resort such as Bournemouth can have an image identity?**

**How do you promote Bournemouth at present?**  
(For example, do you promote Bournemouth as a seaside resort or as a business tourism destination?  
Has this changed over the years?  
How has it changed?)

**Which marketing strategies are you using to manage the image of Bournemouth?**

**Do you promote different images to different visitor groups?**  
(If Yes How?  
Can you give an example?  
Which are these images?  
Which are the visitor groups?)

**How has the image of Bournemouth influenced visitors' choice of destination?**

**Which are Bournemouth's visitor segments?**

**Which are your market segments?**

**Which factors are you take into account when you are identifying your main markets?**

**Which are Bournemouth's main markets for tourism marketing?**

**How often you measure the image of Bournemouth as a destination?**  
(Can you give an example of a positive story that may indicate or increased volume of tourists coming to the area?)

**What are the key image associations you have tried to promote?**

(What marketing techniques have you used to do this?

Can you give examples of marketing techniques?)

**Which other tourism organizations promote the seaside resort?**

(Have you built a working relationship with these organizations? If so how?)

**Which seaside resorts do you feel have successful brand images?**

**If Bournemouth was a person could you describe its personality?**

(Can you give five positive adjectives that describe its' personality and five negative?)

**Overall, do you think Bournemouth has been able to manage its image effectively?**

## **INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE TOURISM MARKETERS FROM THE VARIOUS HOTELS OF BOURNEMOUTH**

**How have the tourism images of Bournemouth changed in recent years?**

(Why have these images changed in your opinion?)

**Do you think a seaside resort such as Bournemouth can have an image identity?**

**How do you promote your hotel that based in a tourism destination with multiple images?**

(For example, do you promote it as a seaside resort destination, as a business and convention destination or as an educational destination?)

**What role plays your hotel in the tourism image of Bournemouth?**

(Has this changed over the years?

How has it changed?)

**Do you promote different images to different visitor groups?**

(If Yes How?

Can you give an example?

Which are these images?

Which are the visitor groups?)

**Which are your hotels' visitor segments?**

**Which are the market segments of your hotel?**

**Which factors are you take into account when you are identifying your main markets?**

**Which tourism image does Bournemouth possess at present in your opinion?**

**Which tourism organizations co-operate with you in order to promote your hotel national and international?**

**Which sorts of tourists are staying in your hotel at present?**

(Which is the reason that they are visiting Bournemouth and which places do you think visit most in Bournemouth?)

**How has the image of Bournemouth influenced visitors' choice of destination?**

**Which seaside resorts in the UK do you feel have successful brand images?**

**If Bournemouth was a person could you describe its' personality?**

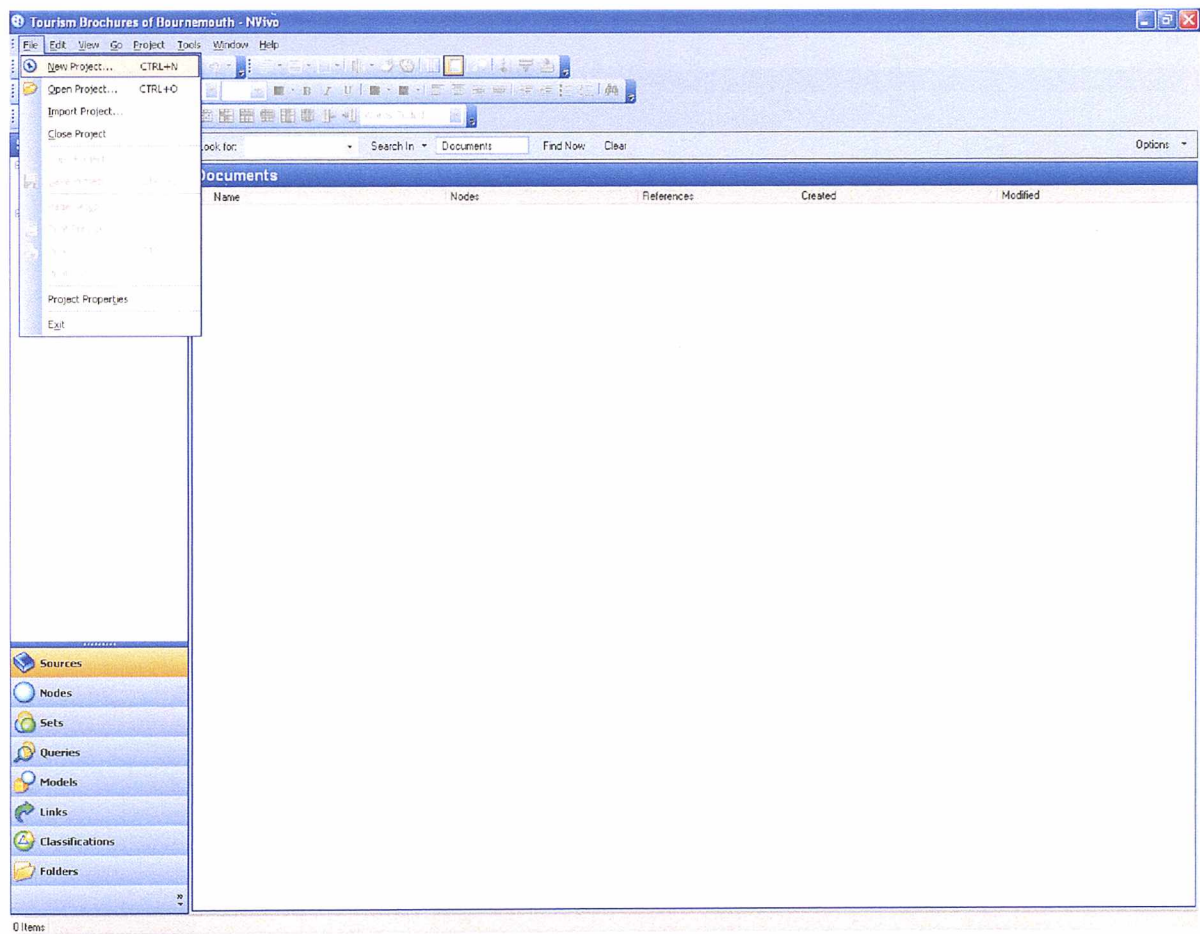
(Can you give five positive adjectives that describe its' personality and five negative?)

**Which tourism image of Bournemouth does your hotel illustrate at present?**

**Overall, do you think Bournemouth has been able to manage its image effectively?**

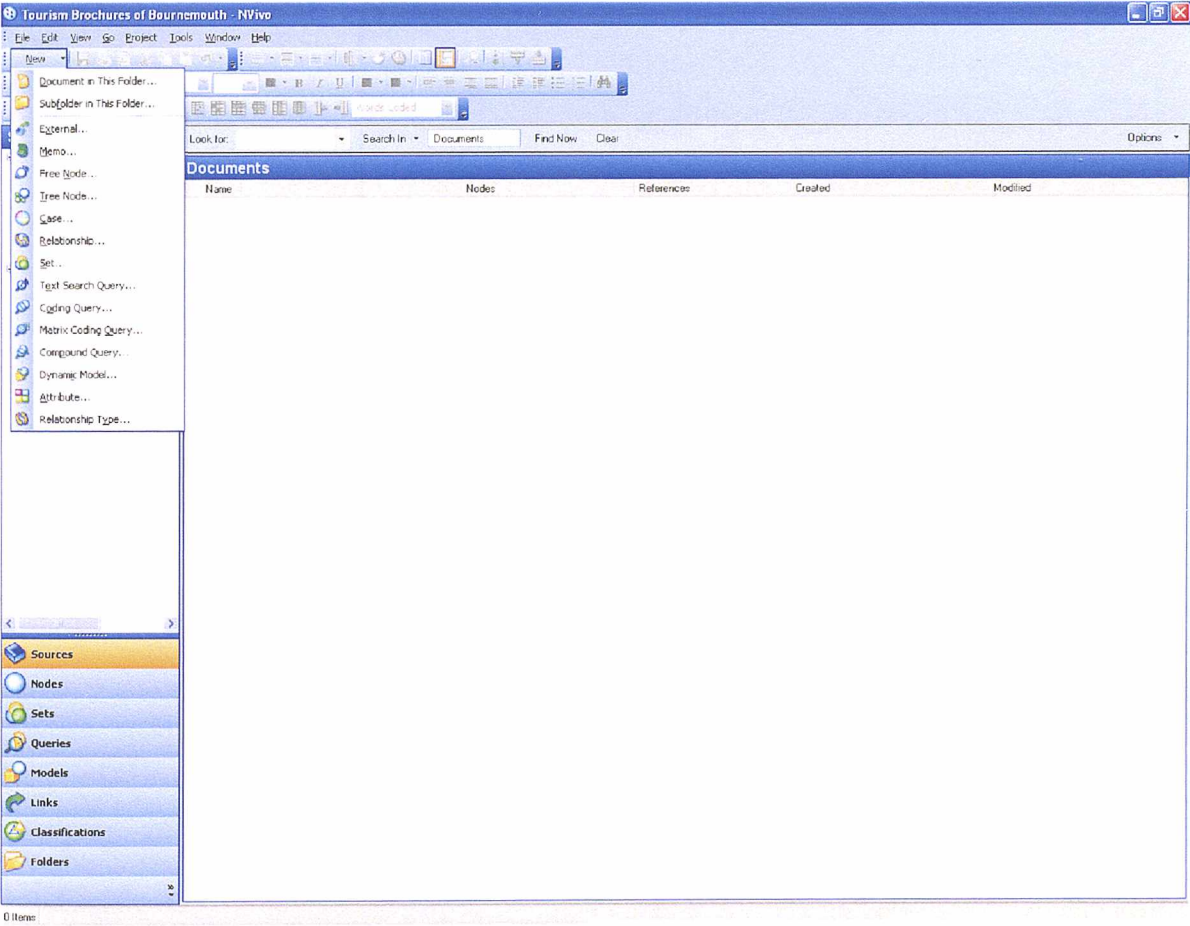
APPENDIX III

EXAMPLE OF A PROJECT CREATION WITHIN NVIVO



APPENDIX IV

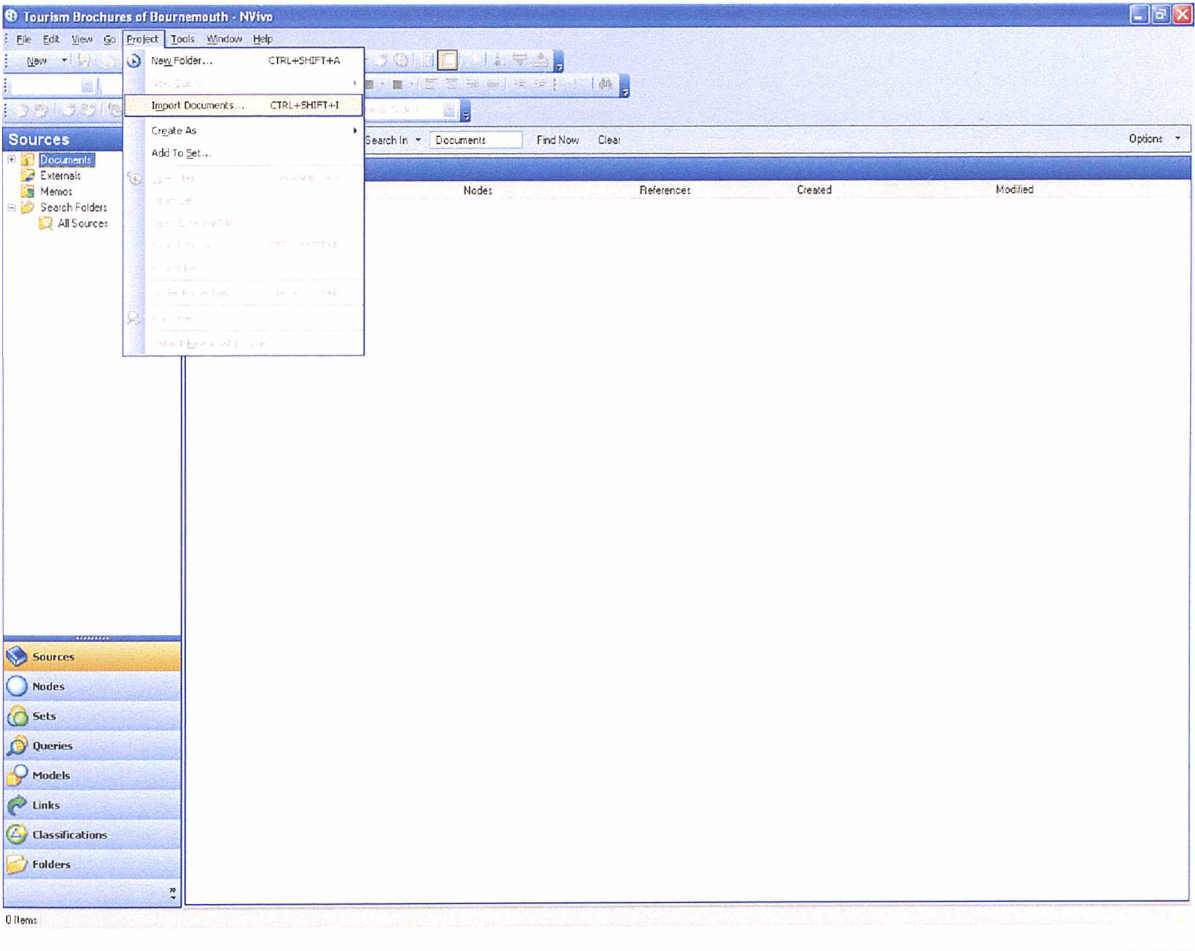
EXAMPLE OF DOCUMENT CREATION INTO A PROJECT WITHIN NVIVO





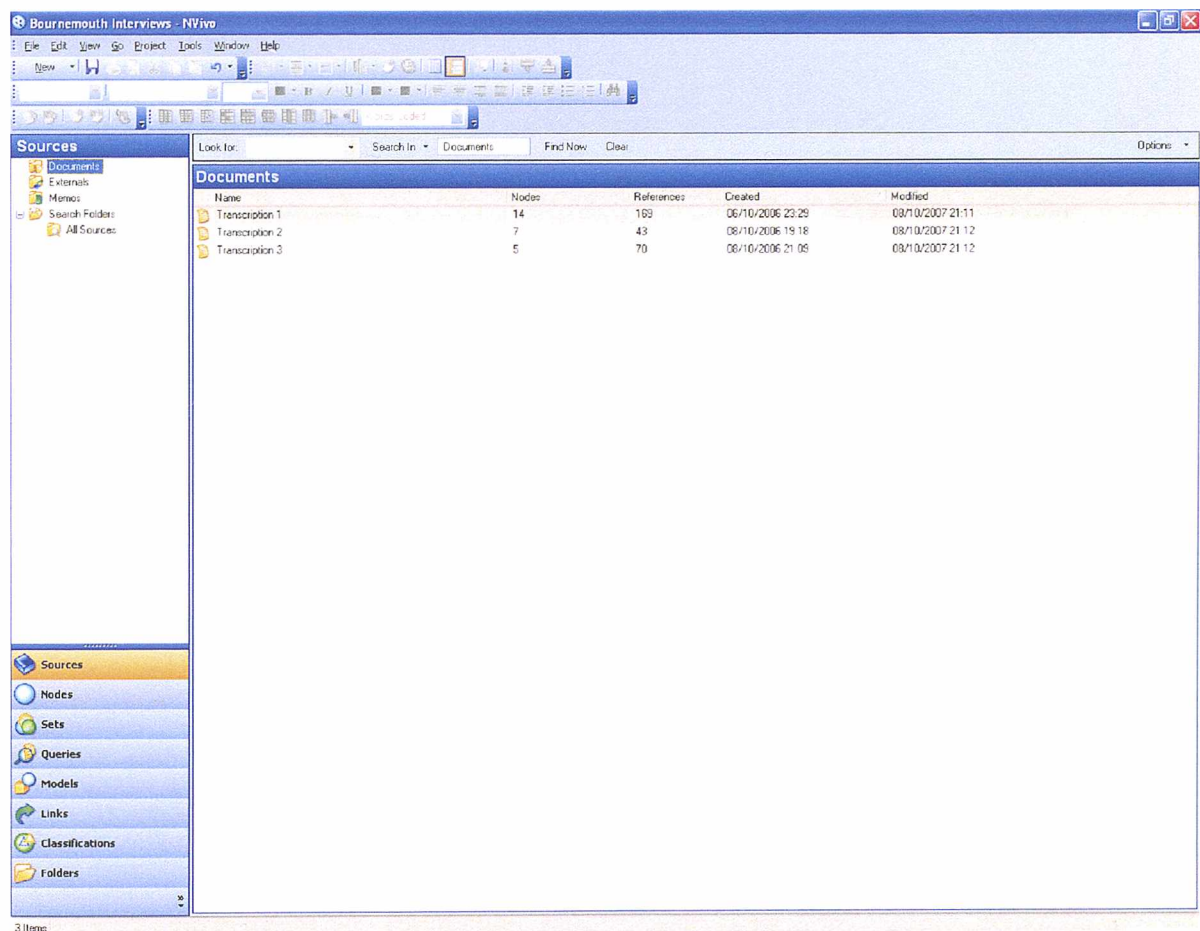
APPENDIX V

EXAMPLE OF DOCUMENTS IMPORTATION WITHIN NVIVO PROJECT



APPENDIX VI

INITIAL INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTIONS WITHIN NVIVO PROJECT



## APPENDIX VII

## FREE NODES LIST WITHIN NVIVO PROJECT

Bournemouth Interviews - NVivo

File Edit View Go Project Links Code Tools Window Help

Look for: Search in: Free Nodes Find Now Clear Options

Name	Sources	References	Created	Modified
BIC's promotion for Bournemouth	2	2	07/10/2006 09:41	31/01/2007 20:37
Bournemouth's personality	8	8	15/10/2006 23:35	23/09/2007 12:14
Changes of the resort	10	11	08/10/2006 19:03	12/09/2007 23:09
Competitor's of Bournemouth	1	2	10/10/2006 20:39	31/01/2007 20:37
Effective Promotion of Bournemouth	10	20	10/10/2006 20:59	12/09/2007 22:42
Image Identity	10	26	08/10/2006 19:02	12/09/2007 21:38
Key Image Associations	6	6	15/10/2006 23:27	23/06/2007 11:51
Main Conference segments of BIC	2	2	10/10/2006 21:39	31/01/2007 20:37
Main markets of Bournemouth	6	6	10/10/2006 21:11	23/09/2007 11:48
Market Segments of Bournemouth	6	8	10/10/2006 21:11	23/09/2007 11:29
Market segments of hotels	3	6	10/10/2006 20:52	12/09/2007 22:12
Marketing Strategies of BIC	2	2	17/10/2006 21:46	31/01/2007 20:37
Marketing Strategies of Bournemouth	7	15	07/10/2006 00:47	23/09/2007 11:08
Marketing targets of hotels	1	1	10/10/2006 20:51	10/10/2006 20:51
Measuring of the tourism image	6	9	15/10/2006 23:24	23/09/2007 11:50
Past Image	10	10	07/10/2006 00:48	12/09/2007 21:37
Present Tourism Image	11	19	07/10/2006 00:48	23/06/2007 11:02
Promotion of Image from Hotels	3	9	10/10/2006 20:45	12/06/2007 22:42
Redevelopments of BIC	3	3	17/10/2006 21:53	12/09/2007 21:37
Seaside Resorts with Strong Images	11	11	07/10/2006 01:03	23/09/2007 12:11
The role of BIC	2	4	10/10/2006 21:40	31/01/2007 20:37
The role of the Hotels	3	5	10/10/2006 20:48	12/09/2007 21:40
Tourism Image Promotion	5	18	15/10/2006 22:56	29/01/2007 21:56
Tourism Image Promotion of BIC	2	3	17/10/2006 21:42	31/01/2007 20:37
Visitor's perception for the tourism images of Bournemouth	5	5	15/10/2006 23:10	29/01/2007 21:45

25 Items

APPENDIX VIII

TREE NODES LIST WITHIN NVIVO PROJECT

Bournemouth Interviews - NVivo

File Edit View Go Project Tools Window Help

Nodes

Free Nodes  
Tree Nodes  
Cases  
Relationships  
Matrices  
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All Nodes

Sources

Nodes  
Sets  
Queries  
Models  
Links  
Classifications  
Folders

Look for: Search In: Tree Nodes Find Now: Clear Options

Name	Sources	References	Created	Modified
Visitor Segments of Bournemouth	6	12	22/10/2006 21:20	23/09/2007 11:28
UK Seaside Resorts with Strong Images	8	12	20/10/2006 23:35	23/09/2007 12:14
UK Domestic Markets Segments	7	17	07/02/2007 21:15	23/09/2007 11:32
Tourism Organisations of Bournemouth	10	10	22/10/2006 14:49	23/09/2007 12:11
Promotional Tools of Bournemouth	6	23	12/02/2007 22:01	23/09/2007 12:06
Promotion of Bournemouth as a Tourism Destination	9	16	15/10/2006 23:48	23/09/2007 11:06
Present Tourism Image	8	40	12/10/2006 22:45	12/09/2007 22:59
Commercial	2	2	16/01/2007 22:56	12/09/2007 22:59
Conventions	5	15	12/10/2006 23:07	12/09/2007 22:59
Cosmopolitan	7	13	12/10/2006 23:01	12/09/2007 22:45
Creative	2	2	31/01/2007 21:04	12/09/2007 22:44
Cultural & His	1	2	12/09/2007 22:49	12/09/2007 22:50
Educational	5	20	12/10/2006 23:10	12/09/2007 22:59
Entertainment	4	8	12/10/2006 23:06	31/01/2007 20:37
Family Resort	1	1	16/01/2007 22:48	16/01/2007 22:49
Funny	3	3	12/10/2006 23:18	13/01/2007 00:26
Healthy Reso	1	1	16/01/2007 22:50	16/01/2007 22:51
Leisure Desti	1	1	12/09/2007 22:58	12/09/2007 22:59
Lively	1	1	29/01/2007 22:17	29/01/2007 22:19
Modern	6	22	12/10/2006 23:08	12/09/2007 22:44
Multidimensio	4	17	12/10/2006 23:12	12/09/2007 22:57
Safe	7	14	12/10/2006 23:16	31/01/2007 20:55
Seaside Imag	6	21	12/10/2006 23:05	31/01/2007 20:37
Urban Area	3	3	13/01/2007 00:25	12/09/2007 22:51
Vibrant	6	9	12/10/2006 23:14	31/01/2007 20:37
Youthful	4	7	12/10/2006 23:04	31/01/2007 20:37
Past Tourism Image	10	15	12/10/2006 00:01	12/09/2007 22:43
Elderly Peopl	6	9	12/10/2006 00:10	29/01/2007 22:13
Healthy Reso	1	1	16/01/2007 22:44	16/01/2007 22:45
Nostalgic	5	5	12/10/2006 00:14	12/09/2007 22:43
Old Fashion	1	2	12/10/2006 00:08	16/01/2006 23:55
Peaceful	3	3	12/10/2006 00:16	16/01/2007 22:52
Quiet Holiday	2	3	12/10/2006 00:22	29/01/2007 22:13
Refined	0	0	29/01/2007 22:14	29/01/2007 22:14
Related Peopl	3	4	12/10/2006 00:12	16/01/2007 22:43
Romantic	1	1	29/01/2007 22:12	29/01/2007 22:12
Serene	2	2	12/10/2006 00:17	16/01/2007 22:42
Traditional	5	18	12/10/2006 00:24	12/09/2007 22:43
Overseas Markets Segments	7	12	07/02/2007 21:15	23/09/2007 11:34

176 Items

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