Developing Destination Brand Identity: Towards Sustainability Of Tourism Destination From The Perspective Of Stakeholders And Theory Of Social Identity

Norfardilawati Musa[*1]**, Shuhaida Md Noor**[2] **and Wardah Mohamad**[3]

[1]Faculty Of Applied Social Sciences, Open University Malaysia, MALAYSIA
[2]School of Communication, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, MALAYSIA
[3]Faculty Of Business And Management, Open University Malaysia, MALAYSIA

This is a conceptual paper on the concept of destination brand identity from the perspective of stakeholders. In planning and strategising for sustainable tourism destination, destination branding is a critical issue that needs to be explored. The nature of a destination domain is one where there exists an "open-system" of interdependent, multidimensional and multiple stakeholders where the actions of one stakeholder will impact the rest of the actors in the destination, thus making the process of developing destination identity very complex. The difficulties in dealing with different interests amongst the stakeholders make the process of developing destination identity more complicated, resulting in difficulties in achieving unity and understanding about the "shared image" for a destination brand. Moreover, to produce a sustainable tourism destination, the supports offered by stakeholders to the planning and development process is a key element for the successful operation, management and sustainibility of the destination. The destination branding literature shows consistency in the consideration of the power of stakeholders for branding destination. Therefore, based on the theory of stakeholders and the theory of social identity that underlies this paper, the study will identify the relationship between the stakeholders and brand development for a destination domain. This paper introduces a framework designed to study the implications of stakeholders towards the destination brand.

Key words: destination branding, brand identity, stakeholders, theory of stakeholders, theory of social identity

Introduction

Tourism destinations have long been identified as an industry that helps generate money for a country. Nowadays, any tourism destination will face keen competition from all other tourism destinations in the world. Thus, at this current stage, place marketing and the development of destination brands have become strategic tools for

---

[*]Email: dillamusa@yahoo.com

tourism businesses all over the world due to growing competition among destinations. This scenario becomes normal when the number of destinations that adopt the concept of destination-brand-building continuously keeps growing. All this can be seen in destinations or places like Serbia, New Zealand, Australia, Spain, Colombia and Brazil which apply the place branding strategy in order to market their destinations among the international and local tourists.

The positive impact of developing brand strategy for destinations and places from the economical perspective can be seen when Colombia in 2004, tried to change the image of its country by launching the new campaign namely, "Colombia is passion!". The new image launched by Colombia doubled its volume of foreign tourism in 2006 (Garcia, Gomez and Molina, 2012). Following this, many destinations, for example, Australia pursued an intense branding campaign with a new image launched in May 2004 and which since has been recognised as the world's number one nation brand (Global Market Insite Inc., 2005). Gold Coast, for example, began a new branding effort worth A$2.3 million in November 2004. Stiff competition among the tourism destinations show the urgency for tourism destinations to get the attention, respect and trust of potential consumers, investors, tourists, media and governments of other nations, especially in this era of globalisation. This action is necessary to develop a positive and strong destination branding.

However, developing successful branding for a destination is intricate, mainly because of the destinations' features and the stakeholders' roles in determining or influencing the future of tourism destinations. The existing brand development models and frameworks that have been used for developing brand identity for other normal products and services are not applicable for tourism destination because of the reasons mentioned. Moreover, the conceptual models and the practical applications of place branding are developing at different speeds so far. A more general theoretical approach underpinning place branding have been developed by researchers such as Kotler and Gertner (2002) and Hankinson (2004, 2007, 2009). They attempted to establish relationships between literature on place marketing and branding with classical branding theory and new marketing paradigms. Nevertheless, most empirical studies are exploratory (Freire, 2009; Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003; Risitano, 2006) or based on case studies.(Pike, 2009)

Due to the lack of empirical research in developing destination branding and because most researches have been only focused on destination image (Boo, Busser & Baloglu, 2009), the development of a framework which lto study the concept of destination brand identity from the perspectives of stakeholders and theory of social identity becomes imperative.

Destination Branding

To what extent is branding important for a destination? The process of destination branding is necessary in the current destination management practice, as the widening of tourist opportunities and travel locations have resulted in many choices for tourists although there is little differentiation amongst a few of the destinations (Pike, 2005). Although destination branding is relatively a new development, it needs to be implemented immediately especially to new destinations or those places that need to be rebranded for particular reasons. Besides, an effective destination branding provides positive impacts to the destinations itself. For example, it gives visitors an assurance of quality experiences, reduces visitor search costs, and offers a way for a destination to establish a unique selling proposition (Blain et. al., 2005). Furthermore,

developing strong destination brands also have positive differential marketing effects because (i) it attracts more favourable attributes and benefits perceptions and overall preferences; (ii) it can also attract greater price premiums; and (iii) it can result in consumers paying greater attention to communications, retaining more information from them and reacting in a more positive way (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003).

Basically, destination is a combination of tourism facilities and services produced in isolation (such as accommodation, transport, catering and entertainment) as well as a variety of general merchandise (ranging from landscapes, scenery, sea, lake, socio-cultural environment, the atmosphere and so on) (Buhalis, 1999). Each destination has privileges that can be combined and applied to generate a unique identity and a strong personality to attract tourists. According to Morrison and Anderson (2002), destination branding is the process used to develop a unique identity and personality that is different from all competitive destinations. Destination branding has also been considered synonymous with (re)positioning (Gilmore, 2002), image-building (Curtis, 2001; Cai, 2002), and image-reconstruction (Hall, 2002) of a destination. The expansion of the tourism industry all over the world has contributed to the crucial part for developing destination branding. Parallel to any product and service offered by organisations, it is important for destinations to differentiate themselves with other destinations that are in the same category or have similar characteristics or features. Since tourism destination could generate profits and economic growth for a country, the development of destination branding is necessary in order to attract tourists' attention towards their destination.

However, the diversification of features possessed by a destination or place makes the process of developing destination brand intricate. Moreover,he process to develop destination brand should not be treated using similar concepts, models or frameworks for other common products or services. In establishing destination brand, the concept of the visitor experience needs to be incorporated into the process of branding. A place branding strategy's success is only possible when public organisations manage to coordinate every stakeholder, including those mainly responsible for formulating the policies, and all of them are joined through the brand's effective long-term management (Anholt, 2006).

Nevertheless, the hardest task in the process of place branding is bringing all the stakeholders together and getting them to work as a group (Van Gelder, 2008). Winning over a destination's stakeholders is not only a crucial platform for successful destination branding, but is also an indicator of a sustainable approach in toursim development. A successful development of destination branding involves the commitment and collaboration of all the stakeholders involved, which, in itself is a highly complex and dynamic process (Morgan et al, 2003; pp 2869).

Destination-Brand Identity

Brand identity is a component that is associated with the formation of a brand's core. The creation of a brand identity is also the most important phase in the process of image formation which includes the establishment and preservation of a unique set of correlations displayed through the brand elements (Rainisto, 2003; Keller, 1998; Aaker, 1996; Grundey, 2002). The American Marketing Association (AMA) (2004) defines brand as a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of all of which is intended to identify the products or services offered by a person or group of sellers and differentiate themselves with competitors. Two key elements that should be possessed by a brand are, (i) have an element of identification, and (ii) the brand

should have the factors that differentiate them from competitors. Generally, brand is considered as the main tool to create differences in product or service for the based-profit sectors. In addition, brand also represents marketers' promise of the value that can be granted by the product or service Upadhyaya, 2012). Brand is also able to evoke emotions and prompt behavior among the target audience, because the brand is said to have social and emotional value to the consumer.

In the process of brand formation, the structure of brand identity can be divided into two parts namely, the core identity and extended identity (Aaker, 1996). The two forms of identity can be combined in an effort to create a brand identity for a product or service. According to Kapferer's model (1992: 1998), there are six aspects of identity suggested in his 'prism of brand identity' that need to be identified in order to develop brand identity for a product or service. The aspects are made up of physical, personality, relationships, culture and self-image.

Destination brands, compared to products brands, are more complex as they are "consumed" by various stakeholder groups in different ways and for different purposes-including employment, investment and for the creation of identities (Balmer & Greyser, 2006). Identity comprises the ways that a destination or tourism provider hopes to identify or position itself or its products. An effective brand identity promotes the destination's character and value proposition, conveys the character in a unique way, and delivers emotional strengthand not just a mental image (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993). Identity is the source of the desired image, and control of it would mainly lie in the hands of the destination stakeholders.

Brand identity also relates to how brand owners want the destination to be perceived, covering the features and beneficial attributes, aas well as the symbolic, experiential, social and emotional values of the place which are embedded in the brand (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). In view of the fact that destinations are multidimensional brands (Morgan et. al., 2004), with multidisciplinary roots, there is thus a need to address a complex composite of stakeholders, landscapes and social processes, all of which might or might not coexist cohesively (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). The challenge associated with studying and understanding these factors in applications of branding to destinations are acknowledged in the literature where the mix of tourism stakeholders and range of tangible and intangible attributes associated with most destinations make the task of establishing a distinctive and coherent brand identity especially difficult (Anisimova, 2006; Morgan, Protchard & Piggott, 2003; Ooi, 2004).

Hence, to create destination brand identity, a special theoretical framework is developed from the perspective of stakeholder and social identity theory for identification of a destination brand identity.

Destination Stakeholder and the Theory of Stakeholders

Basically, destination branding is a process to build a unique identity and personality (Morrison & Anderson, 2002). However, the challenge to develop a destination as a brand is more complex than consumer products and other types of services. Why? Because there is a need for uniformity in terms of views and opinions among destination stakeholders about the identity of the place (Morgan et al , 2003).
According to Freeman (1984):

> "*Stakeholder is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation objective*", (pp. 6).

Based on the definition, stakeholders consist of customers, employees, residents, suppliers and distributors, shareholders, the media, the public in general, business partners, the future generation, the last generation (founder of the organisation), academics, competitors, NGOs or activists (which is considered as an individual, stakeholder representatives), financiers (debt holders, bond, creditor), the government, regulators and policy makers. Wheeler & Sillanpaa (1997) categorise the stakeholders into primary, secondary, social and non-social as follows:

Primer Social Stakeholders	**Secondary Social Stakeholders**
• Shareholders and investors • Employees and managers • Customers • Local communities • Suppliers & other business partners	• Government and regulation • Civic institution • Social pressure groups • Media and academic commentators • Trade bodies • Competitors
Primer Nonsocial Stakeholders	**Secondary Nonsocial Stakeholders**
• The natural environment • Future generations • Nonhuman species	• Environmental interest groups • Animal welfare organisations

In developing a destination brand identity, participation and collaboration with the stakeholders should start at the early stage in the identification of core values and the development of a destination's brand. The process of brand development between destination and other products and services is different in terms of the owner. Unlike other products and services available in the market, a tourist destination has no single owner or authority to determine the destination brand. For a destination, every stakeholder has the possibility to influence the future of a destination brand. The reason is the destination stakeholders are the provider of the main structure of tourism and products that will be offered, and are involved directly with the destination activities (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2003; Morgan et al, 2003; Bornhorst et al, 2009).

The failure and success of developing destination branding depends a lot on the destination stakeholders. In fact, stakeholder theory has been widely used in the tourism research as it has clearly been identified as an important component of tourism destinations (Carroll, 1993; Freeman, 1984; Langtry, 1994; Mitroff, 1983; Starik, 1994). Stakeholder involvement is not only for the purpose of profit, but it also provides competitive advantage in terms of efficiency or improved profitability, as well as capable of stopping or preventing undesirable or damaging behavior (Campbell, 1997; Hutton, 2002). Among the studies that have proven the power of stakeholder to the future of destination is the study that was done by Sheehan & Ritchie (2003) on stakeholders. The main problems that often involved stakeholders which resulted in the failure in tourism destination marketing are: (i) poor cooperation and communication; (ii) the financing problem; (iii) disagreement on the promotion method implemented by the marketing organisation; and (iv) lack of understanding.

Identification of stakeholdersis the first step in developing sustainable tourism development. Once the stakeholders are identified, they should be included in the tourism development process. As Donaldson and Preston (1995) suggested, all stakeholders do not need to be involved equally in the decision making process, but all interests should be identified and understood. Thus, in order for a branding campaign to be successful, the tourism development plans should not ignore the legitimate needs of residents . It is necessary to make sure that the utilisation of

resources favour the locals or at least increase their ability to access it (Walle, 1998, p. 118). The rights of locals should not be neglected as this will affects their attitude towards the destination. These locals help to shape the perceptions of a city based on the relationships formed with the city's unique nature, urban environment, and social structure and can therefore assist destination managers with valuable input regarding the quality of its functional benefits. In fact, locals can "contribute to the alignment of cognitive or emotional destination characteristics by giving the exact words, colors, smells, and images that express the identity of a destination" (ibid.).

Destination branding can be successful when hosts, policy objectives, and tourists' demands are aligned. The existence of multiple stakeholders and little or no management control in destination branding poses additional challenges (Morgan& Pritchard, 2005). Thus an increasing number of tourism scholars and destination managers have suggested that locals' input is necessary and should be taken into account in the development of destination brand (Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003). The complex situation which surrounds the development of destination branding was described by Jamal and Getz (1995):

> "the destination domain is thus characterised by an 'open system' of interdependent, multiple stakeholders, where the actions of one stakeholder impact on the rest of the actors in the community. Furthermore, no single organisation or individual can exert direct control over the destination's development process" (pg. 193).

Based on the theory of stakeholder, power is one of the attributes which is considered critical for understanding 'who and what really counts' (Mitchell, Agle & Wood 1997). In the study conducted by Marzano and Scott (2006), the existence of different opinions among the stakeholders on destination branding resulted in the concepts of collaborative and power in order to produce a successful destination tourism plan. Power is defined as "the affect" and manifested in social relations based on four forms namely coercion, manipulation, persuasion and authority (Lukes, 1978; Wrong, 1979). The unity and cooperation among the stakeholders on destination branding is critical in achieving uniformity or consistency of destination brand values through a set of shared meaning (Morgan et al., 2003). In the context of tourism destinations, a tourism plan that ignores the needs of stakeholders will simply be a futile effort (Laws, 1995). The stakeholders such as local residents or communities act as little ambassadors who are directly involved with the experience offered to the tourists. Any refusal or failure by the marketers to engage them in destination branding will only create conflict or tension, and result in the inability to fulfill the promised and publicised experiences to tourists.

The residents or locals could also actas a contributor of unofficial information through word of mouth. Although this type of communication is informal, it can still be considered as an effective source of information (Baker, 2007; Mazzarol, Sweeney & Soutar, 2007). Based on previous studies, there are three personal motives that show why community and tourists are engaged in this type of communication: (1) the responsibility to share information with the community; (2) the enjoyment derived from information sharing; and (3) the desire to help others for not getting the same experience which not meeting their expectations (Baker, 2007; Walsh, Gwinner & Swanson, 2004). Hence, this is a reminder that should be taken into account by marketers when developing brand identity for a tourist destination. In the context of destination, brand is not what is required by the marketers, but it depends on experience, opinion and agreement of the stakeholders as to how they see the

destination. According to Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005), a successful brand must reflect the exact image of experiences offered by the said destination.

Theory of Social Identity

The theory of social identity refers to how people perceive and categorise themselves. Self is said as reflexive because it can take itself as an object and can categorise, classify or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classification, which is also known as self-categorisation (Stets & Burke, 2000). According to this theory, individuals form self-conceptions based on two elements, namely: (i) personal or self identity; and (ii) collective identity. Personal or self identity refers to our unique, personal qualities such as our beliefs, our abilities and skills, etc. The collective self includes all the qualities that arise from being part of a society, culture, family, groups, clubs, etc. For example, you may identify yourself as a Malaysian, Kelantanese, psychologist or tourist.

Based on social identity theory, a person has not one "personal self", but several selves that correspond to the widening of circles of group membership. Different social contexts may trigger an individual to think, feel and act on basis of his personal, family or national "level of self" (Turner et al, 1987). Apart from the "level of self", an individual has multiple "social identities". Social identity is the individual's self-concept derived from perceived membership of social groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). In other words, it is an individual-based perception of what defines the "us" associated with any internalised group membership. This can be differentiated from the concept of personal identity which refers to self-knowledge which is derived from the individual's own unique attributes or personality. By internalisation of the social categorisation which defines a particular group's memberships, they achieve specific social identities which ma y eitherhave a positive or negative value. Members of stronger and higher-status groups gain a positive social identity and high self-esteem from group membership; members of the lower- status or subordinate groups have a less positive social identity and lower self-esteem(ibid).

Social identity theory introduced two groups based on social comparison process. There are (i) in-groups which refer to the persons who are similar to the categorised self; and (ii) out-groups, the people who differ from the categorised self. This theory emphasises that group membership creates in-group or self-categorisation and enhancement in ways that favor the in-group at the expense of the out-group. Turner and Tajfel (1986)for example, showed that the simple act of individuals categorising themselves as group members was sufficient to lead them to display in-group favouritism, which in turn, creates positive self-esteem by positively differentiating their in-group from a comparison out-group on some chosen valueddimension. This reflects a positive distinctiveness where people's sense of who they are is defined in terms of 'we' rather than 'I'. Tajfel and Turner (1979) also identified three variables which contributed to the emergence of in-group favouritism- (i) the extent to which individuals identify with an in-group to internalise that group membership as an aspect of their self-concept; (ii) the extent to which the prevailing context provides ground for comparison between groups; and (iii) the perceived relevance of the comparison group, which itself will be shaped by the relative and absolute status of the in-group. Individuals are likely to display favoritism when an in-group is important to their self-definition.

Having a particular social identity means being identified or synchronised with a certain group, being like others in the group, and seeing things from the group's perspective. The basis of social identity is in the uniformity of perception and action among group members. In group-based identities, the uniformity of perceptions reveals itself in several ways (Hogg and Abramn, 1988; Oakes, Haslam and Turner, 1994). These may be categorised along cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral lines. Conceptually, social identity theory is the basis to transform the understanding of identity in psychology. It focuses on the sociality of the construct in at least three ways. The firslooks at, social identity is a relational term that is- defining who we are as a function of our similarities and differences with others. Secondly, social identity is shared with others and provides a basis for shared social action. Thirdly, the meanings attributed with any social identity are basically a result of history and the presentday. Social identity is therefore something that links us to the social world. It is the link between the individual and society.

Thus, based on the theory of stakeholders and theory of social identity discussed above, the proposed model to identify the identity of a destination and developing a successful brand for a destination are as follows:
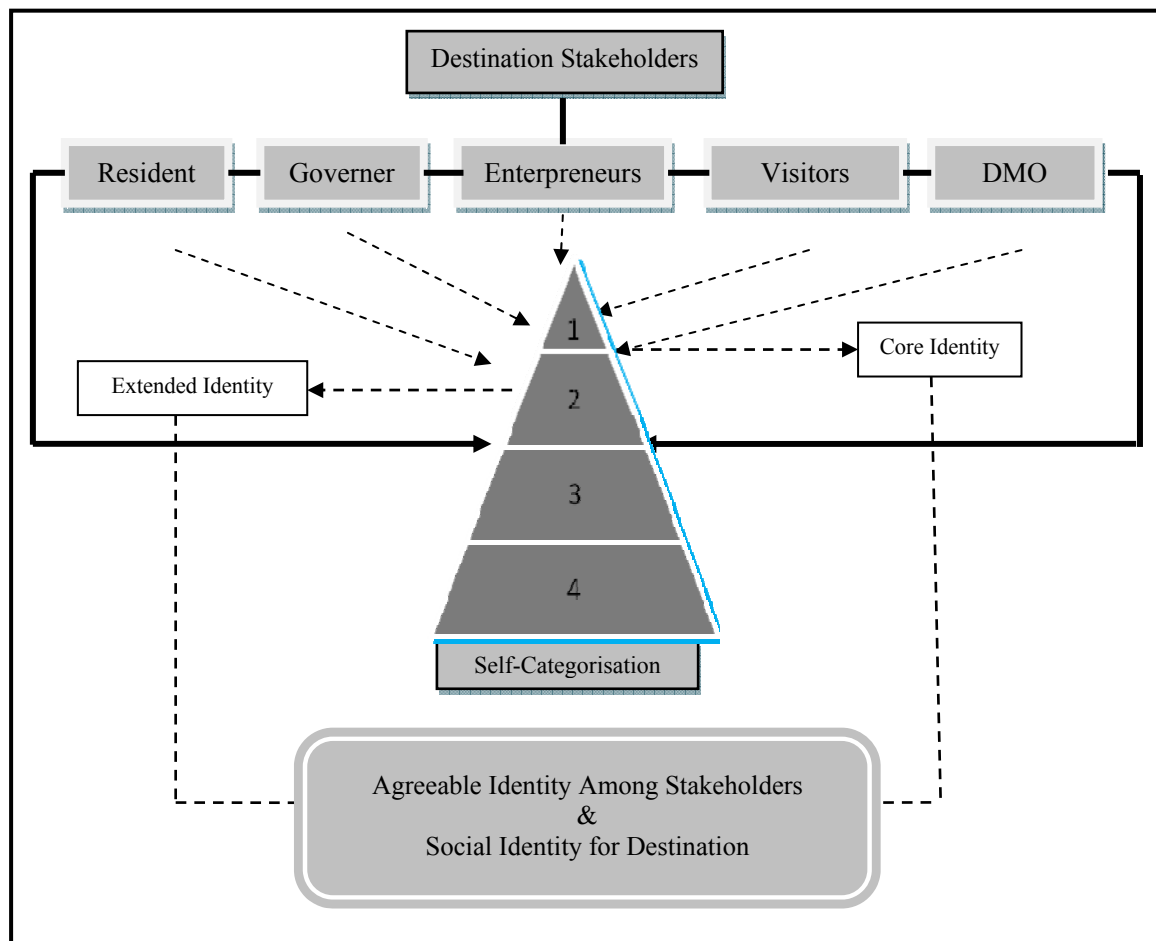
The framework is mostly centred on stakeholders and their agreeability on the social identity of the selected destination. Stakeholders consist of local residents, the governor, entrepreneurs, visitors and DMO. TO develop a scuccessful destination brand, these shareholders should work together to develop the different types of identities for the destination including core identity and extended identity.

First, the perception of stakeholders on the identity of a destination should be initially understood before any decision on destination branding can be developed. Through the identification of stakeholders' perception on how they see or perceive the destination, the identities mentioned will be categorised in the pyramid to measure which of the identity is most salient amongst them.

Once the identity is identified accordingly, the stakeholders' consent is needed in identifying which identity is agreeable as the salient identity (core identity) and extended identity. Once there is agreement amongst the stakeholders, then the social identity for the destination is developed and used to promote the destination.

Conclusion

As the stakeholders' perception and voice is very crucial in developing a successfull brand for a destination, this framework will be tested its application in developing brand identity for a destination. Especially for those destinations that are in the process of developing its identity. And in future research, we will analyse how this framework is succeed in helping DMO builds 'glorious' brand for a destination.

References

Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building Strong Brands.* New York: Free Press.

American Marketing Association (AMA). (2004). *Marketing Definitions: A Glossary of Marketing Terms.* Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.

Anholt, S. (2006). Public diplomacy and place branding: where's the link? *Place Branding, 2*(4), 271-275.

Anisimova, T. (2006). *Corporate Branding: A case study analysis utilising stakeholder perspective.* Melbourne: Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Monash University.

Baker, B. (2007). *Destination Branding for Small Cities: The Essentials for Successful Place Branding. .* Portland, OH: Creative Leap Books.

Balmer, J., & Greyser, S. (2006). Corporate marketing: Integrating corporate identity, corporate branding, corporate communication, corporate image and corporate reputation. *European Journal of Marketing Management, 40*(7-8), 730-741.

Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2005). Destination branding: insights and practices from destination management organisations. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(4), 328-338.

Boo, S., Busser, J., & Baloglu, S. (2009). A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations. *Tourism Management, 30*(2), 219-231.

Bornhorst, et. al. (2009). Natural resource endowments and the domestic revenue effort. *European Journal of Political Economy, 25*, 439-446.

Buhalis, D. (1999). Tourism on the Greek islands: Issues of Peripherality, Competitiveness and Development. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 1* , 341 – 358.

Cai, L. (2002). Cooperative Branding for Rural Destinations. . *Annals of Tourism Research., 29*(3), 720 – 742.

Campbell, A. (1997). Stakeholders: The Case in Favour. *Long Range Planning, 30*, 446 – 449.

Curtis, J. (2001). Branding a state: The evolution of brand Oregon. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 7*, 75-81.

Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach. .* Boston: Pitman.

Freire, J. R. (2009). 'Local people' a critical dimension for place brands. *Journal of Brand Management, 16*(7), 420-438.

Gilmore, F. (2002). *Branding for success. in N. Morgan, A. Pritchard & R. Pride (Eds.), Destination branding: creating a unique destination proposition (pp. 57-65).* Oxford, UK: Butterworth Heinemann.

Global Market Insite Inc. (2005). *It's official: Australians are on top of the world.* http://www.gmi-mr.com/gmipoll/nbi_q2-australia-press-release.phtml. Retrieved Nov 2, 2012, from http://www.gmi-mr.com/gmipoll/nbi_q2-australia-press-release.phtml

Hankinson, G. (2004). Relational network brands: towards a conceptual model of place brands. *Journal of Vacation Marketing., 10*(2), 109-121.

Hankinson, G. (2007). The management of destination brands: five guiding principles based on recent developments in corporate branding theory. *Journal of Brand Management, 14*(3), 240-254.

Hankinson, G. (2009). Managing destination brands: establishing a theoretical foundation. *Journal of Marketing Management, 25*(1-2), 97-115.

Hoeffler, S. & Keller, K. L. (2003). The marketing advantage of strong brands. *Journal of Brand Management, 10*(6), 421-445.

Hogg, M.A. & Vaughan, G.M. (2002). *Social Psychology (3rd ed.).* London: Prentice Hall.

Hogg, M. A. & Abrams, D. (1988). *Social identifications: A social psychology of intergroup relations and group processes.* London: Routledge.

Jamal, T., & Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research, 22*(1), 186-204.

Juan A. Garcia, Mar Gomez, Arturo Molina. (2012). A destination-branding model: An empirical analysis based on stakeholders. *Tourism Management 33*, 646-661.

Kapferer, J. (1992). *Strategic Brand Management: New Approaches to Creating and Evaluating Brand Equity.* London: Kogan Page.

Kapferer, J. (1998). *Strategic Brand Management.* London: Kogan Page.

Kavaratzis, M. & Ashworth, G. (2005). City branding: An effective assertion of identity or a transitory marketing trick? *Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie, 96*(5), 506-514.

Keller, K. L. (1998). *Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring and Managing Brand Equity.* Upper Saddle River, N. J: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P. & Gertner, D. (2002). Country as brand, product, and beyond: a place marketing and brand management perspective. *Journal of Brand Management., 9*(4-5), 249-261.

Kotler, P., Haider, D., & Rein, I. (1993). *Maketing places: Attracting investment, industry and tourism to cities, states and nations.* New York: Free Press.

Langtry, B. (1994). Stakeholders and the moral responsibilities of business. *Business Ethics Quarterly (BEQ), 4*, 431-443.

Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist Destination Management: Issues, Analysis and Policies.* London: Routledge.

Lukes, S. (1978). *Power and Authority. In T. B. Bottomore & R. A. Nisbet. A history of sociological analysis. .* New York: Basic Books.

Marzano, G. & Scott, N. (2006). Destination branding: Conceptualization of collaboration within a problem domain. . *Paper presented to ATLAS Asia Pacific Conference 'Tourism After Oil'. .* Dunedin, New Zealand.

Mazzarol, J., Sweeney, J. & Soutar, G. (2007). Conceptualising Word-of-Mouth Activity, Triggers and Conditions: An Exploratory Study. *European Journal of Marketing, 41*(11-12), 1475 – 1494.

Mitroff, I. I. (1983). *Stakeholders of the organisational mind.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Morgan, N. J., Pritchard, A. & Piggott, R. (2003). Destination branding and the role of stakeholders: the case of New Zealand. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 9*(3), 285-299.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (2004). *Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition (2nd. ed.)..* Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Morrison, A. M. & Anderson, D. J. (2002). Destination Branding. . *Paper presented at the Missouri Association of Convention & Visitors Bureaus Annual Meeting.* Missouri .

Oakes, P. J., Haslam S. A. & Turner, J. C. (1994). *Streotypes and social reality.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Ooi, C. (2004). Poetics and politics of destination branding: Denmark. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 4*(2), 107-128.

Pike, S. (2005). Tourism destination branding complexity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14*(4), 258-259.

Pike, S. (2009). Destination brand positions of a competitive set of near-home destinations. *Tourism Management, 30*(6), 857-866.

Rainisto, S. (2003). *Success Factors of Place Marketing: A Study of Place Marketing Practices in Northern Europe and the United States. .* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Helsinki University of Technology, Institute of Strategy and International Business.

Risitano, M. (3 May 2006). The role of destination branding in the tourism stakeholders system. The Campi Flegrei case. *IV International doctoral tourism and leisure colloquium.* Barcelona.

Sheehan, L. R. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2005). Destination Stakeholders, Exploring Identity and Salience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(3), 711-734.

Starik, M. (1994). The Toronto Conference: Reflections on Stakeholder Theory. *Business and Society, 33*, 89-95.

Stets, E. J. & Burke, P. J. (2000). Identity theory and social identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 63*(3), 224-237.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. C. (1979). *An integrative theory of intergroup conflict.*

Tajfel, H. and Turner, J. C. (1986). *The social identity theory of inter-group behavior. In S. Worchel and L. W. Austin (eds.), Psychology of Intergroup Relations. .* Chigago: Nelson-Hall.

Turner, John. C., Hogg A., Oakes P. J., Reicher S. D. & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorisation theory.* New York: Basil Blackwell.

Upadhyaya, M. (2012). Influence of Destination Image and Destination Personality: An Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Marketing & Communication, 7*(1), 40 – 47.

Van Gelder, S. (2008). *How to improve the chances pf successfully developing and implementing a place brand strategy.* Placebrands. Retrieved Nov 2, 2011, from http://www.placebrands.net/_files/Successful_Place_Branding.pdf

Walsh, G., Gwinner, K. & Swanson, S. (2004). What Makes Market Maven Stick? Exploring the Motives of Market Mavens' Initiation of Information Diffusion. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 21*(2-3), 109-122.

Wheeler, D. & Sillappaa, M. (1997). *in Carroll, B. A., & Buchholtz, K. A. (2006). Business & Society: Ethics and stakeholders management (6th. edi.).* United States of America: South-Western.

Wrong, D. H. (1979). *Power: Its Forms, Bases and Uses.* New York: Harper and Row.