Comparative Perspectives on Brand Value of Place Slogans: Analysis of Different Cities, States, and Countries [1]

Professor Heebok Lee[2]
Division of Media & Advertising
Sangji University at Gangwon
83 Sangjidaegil, Wonju, Gangwon 220-702
Republic of Korea

Professor Kuen-Hee Ju-Pak[3]
Department of Communications
California State University at Fullerton
2600 East Nutwood Avenue, CP-400
Fullerton, California 92831
United States of America

Professor Moonki Hong[4]
Department of Media & Communication Arts,
Hansei University at Gyeonggi
30 Hansei-Ro, Gunpo, Gyeonggi 435-742
Republic of Korea

Abstract

This study explores the branding value of place brand slogans by investigating various slogan strategies, which cities and states in South Korea and the U.S. utilize to transform the messages and core functions for their place brands. A total of 162 slogans collected from the homepages of South Korean and American government websites were content-analyzed based on the extensive coding scheme drawn from the previous literature. Results indicate that the two countries were significantly different in various slogan strategies and the brand value they focus on. The present study presents an extensive framework for classifying place slogan strategies, with which place marketers may identify, develop, and monitor their slogan strategies for optimal branding effects.

Keywords: Slogan, Place Brand, City Brand, Brand Slogan, Slogan Strategy, content analysis

1. Introduction

Many leaders and marketers of cities and places acknowledge the importance of the image and reputation of their places in marketing them. In order to publicize their cities as attractive tourist hot spots as well as desirable places to live, study, and invest in, they actively seek appropriate brand communication tools and activities. Likewise, the current trend in place marketing has been to solidify the place personalities and identities, and then monitor them over time (Waeraas, 2010). The overall image of a place, such as region or city, is important from public diplomacy perspectives because it reflects the strategies that regional government authorities use to bolster their identity and validity (Glynn & Abzug, 2002; Aust, 2004; Jung, Park & Jang, 2009; Kwon, 2009; Byun, 2009; Waeraas, 2010; Kim & Oh, 2012). As the exchanges between regions and countries have become vibrant, a place is exposed to intense competition in the global market. In particular, with the Korea–U.S.

---

[2] First Author
[3] Second Author

[4] Corresponding Author (hmoonki@gmail.com)

Free Trade Agreement (FTA) taking effect in March 2012, human and material exchanges, as well as trade across the Pacific Ocean, are expected to grow.

Place slogans are an important strategic tool for place marketing and public diplomacy. The effective use of place brand slogans warrants comparative studies across competing places as well as different countries and cultures, which are seriously lacking in the literature. This study will likely contribute to the current place branding literature by examining the slogan strategies used by city and state brands and comparing the strategies between two different countries. A study of this nature will provide place marketers and authorities with the basis for developing branding slogan strategies to compete effectively in the global marketplace.

2. Theoretical Approach

2.1 City Branding as Place Branding

City branding emerged from the notion that a place could better manage its resources, reputation, and image, and create consistent benefits. Recently, much attention has been directed toward urban, national, and regional marketing (Anholt, 2007; Avraham & Keller, 2008; Govers & Go, 2009; Molianen & Rainisto, 2008). Previous research has applied brand concepts such as brand levels and structure to place branding (Dooley & Bowie, 2005). Places are geographical spaces such as provinces, regions, regional societies, rural communities, towns, cities, villages, and so on, where spatial experiences accumulate (Park, 1985). The spatial experiences form the characteristics of the place, including the meaning and the value of humanity.

Kotler describes a place as a sellable object, and sets it in a city, region, province or a small area within a city. A city is a living creature in and of itself, and is home to modern people who maintain various relationships in many spaces. The concept of cities differs according to the definition of a regional society as a special area where economic activities are controlled. In addition, images of cities are divided into actual images and symbolic images (Lee, 2013). The names of the places and cities elicit various associations with regard to economic, political and social values. These associations are often influenced by the image and reputation the place has. Each place brand is isolated and competes with other place brands. During this process, strategic operations are needed to manage the diverse elements that influence the image of a place as brand in order to boost positive images.

In Korea, the regional governing system was adopted in 1995, which granted the regional governments certain political independence. As a result, the regions compete fiercely with one another just as commercial enterprises do. The cases from the US and Europe are quite different from those of Korean regional governing bodies when it comes to the urban trend of reviving industrial cities that have declined (Hall, 1998). In Korea, place marketing strategies for cities became necessary because of accelerated global resources transfer, intensified competition between cities, and increased need to revive failing cities. Despite the diversity of place marketing efforts, place marketing for cities centers mostly around events and festivals that utilize regional resources (Lee, 2013). Korean place marketing strategies have evolved and transformed according to the country's unique political, economic, and cultural changes. There have been ongoing studies on the brands of major Korean places, mostly in management, contents, and design-related academic disciplines. Logos, colors, logo types, slogans, mascots, and symbols are typical research elements in these studies (Kwon, 2009; Yoon, 2009; Song & Jeon, 2010; Lee, 2010; Jung & Kim, 2011; Kim & Oh, 2012; Yang & Park, 2012). Lim and Han (2003) have introduced several cases among regional brands, while Park Hong-sik (2005) makes comparisons between the brands of 53 cities overseas and 30 cities in Korea. Kim (2004) suggest strategies to enhance the cities' images in his study. Kang (2010) examines the concept, meaning, and strategic process of regional place brands. Jung, Park and Jang (2009) argue that regional brands have appeared rapidly among Korean regional governing bodies ever since Seoul's introduction of its regional brand in 2002.

2.2 Research on the City Brand Slogan

Slogans are phrases that are used to advertise politicians or presidential candidates, or stressed phrases or sentences that companies repeatedly use to urge consumers to purchase their products. Slogans are a key element of a brand's identity, and they contribute to a brand's equity. In today's marketplace, almost all brands employ a slogan. Slogans enhance a brand's image, aid in its recognition and recall, and help create brand differentiation in consumers' minds. Slogans shape a brand's identity in unique and meaningful ways. Brand identity makes associations that will help people acknowledge, remember, and like the brand.

Slogans serve as "hooks" in capturing the meaning of a brand (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005; Keller, 1998). Waeraas (2010) points out that public organizations fail to conduct systematic analyses on core value declaration, vision and mission declaration, as well as slogans as a means to convey identity symbols. Slogans are crucial in shaping brands, and the memorability of a slogan serves as a major parameter to gauge its success. Places such as cities should attend to the importance of slogans as a branding tool and utilize slogans to keep their place brand in peoples' memories in order to build and maintain successful place brands (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013)

Research on city brand slogans began in the area of tourism destination marketing more than two decades ago and has continued in various academic areas, such as positioning, marketing and design, linguistics, and so on. (Richardson & Cohen, 1993; Klenosky & Gitelson, 1997; Hankinson, 2004, 2007, 2009; Pike, 2002, 2004; Supphellen & Nygaardsvik, 2002; Park, 2004; Lee, Cai & O'Leary, 2006; Park, 2005; Lee & Choi, 2007; Lee, 2006, 2010, 2012; Choi, 2007; Choi & Yoon, 2008; Shin & Hwang, 2009; Jung, 2009). Research conducted on Korean city slogans indicates that an effective slogan can build a strong and distinctive image and identity for a city and influence the equity and competitiveness of the city brand. Jung (2012) analyzed the Korean regional governing bodies' pursuit of brand values via regional brand slogans. His study revealed that the regional brands used slogans as a strategic tool to promote their organizational identity and validity. Jung argues that regional brand slogans, with use of rhetoric, images, and symbols, convey the current status and hopes of regional governing bodies. He found that the visual identity taken from logos and slogans greatly influenced the brand image and the brand asset, which is consistent with results from recent research (Govers, 2013). Other research analyzed the case of New Zealand's tourism brand and found that its "100% Pure New Zealand" slogan, along with other effective marketing activities and partnerships, has helped make it a super brand. Many industry observers attribute New Zealand's success in occupying a strong position as an attractive niche tourism market to its use of effective slogans (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2004). Because of their brand building merit, slogans are important for modern tourism brands. For example, destination marketing organizations (DMOs) in 50 states and in major cities in the US have used slogans for their marketing campaigns since the early 1980s. They typically introduce and promote a particular slogan via mass media advertising. The place slogan should be used repeatedly during early stages of branding in order to shape a strong brand image (Kohli et al., 2007).

Cynthia Ord (2010) argues that the best tourism slogans become as much a part of a place's identity as an iconic landmark does, for example, "I ♥ New York," "Virginia is for lovers," "Las Vegas: What happens here stays here." However, Ord and others (e.g., Pike, 2004) point out the difficulty of developing good, sustainable slogans. The research shows that slogans are frequently changed and out of 50 state slogans in the US, only 6 have been sustained for 21 years (Pike, 2004). Richardson & cohen (1993) conducted a content analysis of 46 state slogans in the US and classified them into 8 categories. The purpose of their content analysis was to examine if and how often U.S. states employ a unique selling proposition (USP) slogan, which the authors considered most effective and desired. They found the USP approach to be used in four of 46 state slogans studied. Klenosky and Gitlson (1997) conducted a telephone survey of 260 travel agents in the US to determine their choice of best state slogans.

Morgan et al., (2004) note the importance of image in place branding and the need to align the image with the distinctive characteristics of a place. They also suggest that place marketers acquire a strong reputation to overcome their competitors. Denton (1980) argues that slogans as "social symbols" can unite, divide, and even convert the public. In so doing, slogans become a direct link to social or individual actions. In the past, Korean city policies focused on physical and external development such as economic vitalization, creation of employment, and industrial production. They have shifted their focus toward building favorable place image and emotional attraction via cultural, infrastructure, and human development (Kim, 2004). Given that the needs and diplomatic focus of regions and places are likely to change over time and differ by country, slogan strategies underline the sustainable competitive advantages of the place brand, and their effectiveness and competitiveness should be monitored over time.

While there is general consensus on the importance of the slogan itself, little agreement exists as to what constitutes a successful place slogan. As such, although marketing managers use slogans extensively, they are often at a loss when it comes to creating them. Lack of specific empirical data as a guide leads to ineffective use of place slogans and, ultimately, the poor linkage between a brand and its slogan. The present research aims at producing some of the much needed data and establishing a framework for developing and measuring place slogan strategies.

2.3 Research Questions

To generate the empirical data, our research analyzed a number of branding slogans used for brand building by cities and states or state-equivalent regions in two countries, South Korea and the US. The research asked the following three broad questions:

Research Question 1. What literary forms and expressions are used for place branding slogans in Korea and the US, respectively?

Research Question 2. What content strategies and approaches are used for place branding slogans in Korea and the US, respectively?

Research Question 3. Do the two countries differ in the literary forms or strategic approaches used for place branding slogans? If so, how?

3. Method

3.1 Method and Sample

To analyze the slogan characteristics, this study employed content analysis techniques. Content analysis was used because of its usefulness for cross-cultural studies of literary expression and content. The sample for this study includes a total of 162 place slogans in Korea and in the US, as shown in Table 1. The Korean sample includes 8 Do's, which are equivalent to U.S. states, the eight largest cities, and 76 local markets, totaling 92 places. The American sample consists of the 50 states and the 20 largest cities.

Following the tradition of the previous studies (e.g., Pike, 2004), we collected the slogans from the official websites of each state, city, or local government sampled. For places where multiple slogans existed, the researchers chose the most suitable one for our study based on the criteria of independence, frequent appearance, completeness, and meaning transmission (Lee, 2010). The Korean slogans were translated into English by one of the researchers, and the accuracy of the translation and clarity in meaning was checked and confirmed by another researcher who is proficient in both languages.

Table 1: Sample: Place brands of Korea and the US (Frequency)

	Korea	US	total
Local Markets Governments	76		76
Sates/ 'Do's	8	50	58
Top Cities	8	20	28
Total	92	70	162

3.2 Coding Scheme and Procedure

This study developed a coding framework based on the city branding and place and tourism marketing literature (Table 2). It includes a total of 13 factors such as three linguistic forms and expression measures, targets, nature of key value, presence of place-specific information, brand personality, positioning approach, the CBI (city brand index) criteria, competitive place value/equity, types of appeal, sustainability, and key word.

The coding of the 162 Korean and American place slogans, all in English, was carried out by two Korean American graduate students in the US who are proficient in both languages and cultures and who specialize in advertising communication. The two coders had preliminary coding exercises and multiple meetings with the researcher until they got familiar with the coding scheme. For the final coding, the students coded the slogans independently. The test of inter-coder reliability approached an acceptable level (Cronbach's alpha=.8571). Where the two coders disagreed, two researchers discussed and resolved the issue.

Table 2: Coding Scheme

	Factors	Alternatives
1	Target	1) Domestic population living outside the region 2) Residents of the region 3) Foreigners outside the nation
2	Use of Person shooter	1) Present 2) Absent
3	Linguistic Form/Configuration	1) One word 2) Phrase 3) Passage
4	Use of Rhyme – alliterations, consonances	1) Yes 2) No
5	Nature of Key Value	1) Tangible 2) Intangible
6	Place-Specific Information	1) Ecological, Natural Environment 2) Cultural Environment/ Historic/Heritage, 3) Agricultural, Industrial, Economic Infrastructure or Development 4) Other or No Pace information
7	Brand Personality	1) Sincerity 2) Excitement 3) Competence 4) Sophistication 5) Ruggedness 6) Other
8	Positioning Approach	1) USP 2) Image 3) non-specific USP 4) non-specific 5) None
9	CBI (6 Ps) Criteria	1) Presence (famous, familiar, notable contribution to the world) 2) Place (desirable features and beauty of the palace, in nature, weather, sites) 3) Potential (growth, opportunities for jobs/businesses/education, promising future) 4) Pulse (lively atmosphere, lifestyle, exciting circumstances) 5) People (friendly, kind, open-minded, happy, good citizens or residents) 6) Prerequisites (public facilities and social infrastructure that ensure the satisfactory living, visiting experience) 9) Not applicable
10	Competitive Place Value/ Equity	1) Economic Conditions 2) Culture & Education & Science/Technology 3) Natural Environment & Preservation 4) Leisure/Pleasure/Lifestyle 5) Citizenry (healthy or happy livelihood, educational levels, economic status) 6) Social Infrastructure (desirable social structure/systems/facilities/transportation), 9) None – Last resort
11	Pike's Slogan Appeal	1) Functional Destination Attributes 2) Affection Qualities 3) Travel(er) Motivation Benefits 4) Market Segmentation 5) Symbols of Self Expression 6) Countering Risk 7) Brand Leadership 8) Non-applicable/ none of the above
12	Sustainability over 10 years	1) Significant change 2) Minor change 3) No change 4) Can't be determined (Not Available)
13	Key Word	The most frequently used words

4. Results

This study compared branding slogans of major Korean and American markets in terms of literary forms/expressions and the slogan strategies employed. We conducted cross-tab analysis using SPSS 2.0 in order to address the first and second research questions (RQ 1 & RQ 2) and chi-square analysis to test the difference of the above characteristics between two countries (RQ 3). The results are displayed in Table 3 to Table 15.

4.1 Use of Literary Forms & Expressions

<u>*Use of Personal Shooter*</u>: Regardless of the country, the places examined in this study rarely used person shooter, which may help build personal connections with the target group. While American slogans were more likely than Korean counterparts to use the approach, the chi-square test indicates no significant differences in use of person shooter between Korean and American place slogans (χ^2=2.137, df=1).

Table 3: Use of Person shooter (Frequency/%)

	Present	Absent	Total
Korea	3(3.3)	89(96.7)	92(100)
US	6(8.6)	64(91.4)	70(100)

χ^2=2.137 df=1, p=n.s.

<u>*Linguistic Form/Configuration*</u>: However, there were significant cross-national differences in the linguistic form of place slogans (χ^2=29.198, df=2)'. While more than half of Korean place slogans were in one word, only one in ten (11.4%) American slogans were expressed in one word. Also, the majority (71.4 %) of American slogans took the form of phrases, while slightly more than a third (38%) of Korean counterparts used it. Overall, American place slogans tended to be longer and more descriptive than Korean counterparts.

Table 4: Linguistic Form/Configuration (Frequency/%)

	One Word	Phrase	Passage	Total
Korea	48(52.2)	35(38.0)	9(9.8)	92(100)
US	8(11.4)	50(71.4)	12(17.1)	70(100)

χ^2=29.198, df=2, p<.001

<u>*Use of Rhyme:*</u> In the use of rhyme, consonances, alterations, which previous research regards as enhancing the memorability of slogans, the two countries were significantly different. (χ^2=13.306, df=1).' While only 5 (5.4%) of 92 Korean place slogans use rhyme and alteration, more than one in four (28.6%) American slogans use the technique.

Table 5: Rhyme (Frequency/%)

	Present	Absent	Total
Korea	5(5.4)	87(94.6)	92(100)
US	20(28.6)	50(71.4)	70(100)

χ^2=16.306, df=1, p<.001

4.2 Strategic Characteristics & Approaches

<u>*Apparent Target*</u>: The chi-square test found significant cross-national differences in the target of the slogans (χ^2=18.908, df=2). The target for Korean place slogans was mostly the domestic population living outside their region (75%) or foreigners outside the nation (23.9%). Only one of the 92 Korean place slogans targets their own local residents. On the other hand, one in five (20%) of American place slogans target local residents. With 27.1% and 52.9%, directed at foreigners and domestic populations living outside their region, respectively, American slogans were targeting more diverse targets than their Korean counterparts were.

Table 6: Target (Frequency/%)

	Regional Residents	Outside the Region	Foreigner	Total
Korea	1(1.1)	69(75.0)	22(23.9)	92(100)
US	14(20.0)	37(52.9)	19(27.1)	70(100)

χ^2=18.908, df=2, p<.001

<u>*Nature of Key Value*</u>: The chi-sqaure test revealed no significant cross-national differences in the nature of key value the place slogan presents (χ^2=1.764, df=1). Table 7 shows that the key value promised by slogans was much more likely to be intangible in nature, regardless of country.

Table 7: Nature of Key Value (Frequency/%)

	Tangible	Intangible	Total
Korea	24(26.1)	68(73.9)	92(100)
US	25(35.7)	45(64.3)	70(100)

χ^2=1.764, df=1, p=n.s.

Presence & Type of Place-Specific Information: There were significant differences in the use of place-specific information between Korean and U.S. place slogans (χ^2=16.640, df=3). The vast majority (76.1%) of Korean Place slogans have no place information, while more than half (52.9%) of American slogans directly or indirectly convey the message with regard to their ecological, cultural, or industrial aspects.

Table 8: Presence & Type of Place-Specific Information (Frequency/%)

	Ecological	Cultural	Industrial	Other/None	Total
Korea	11(12.0)	5(5.4)	6(6.5)	70(76.1)	92(100)
US	17(24.3)	10(14.3)	7(10.0)	36(47.1)	70(100)

χ^2=16.640, df=3, p<.005(.002)

Appeal or Tone of Slogan: The place slogans studied employed emotional appeal more often than rational approaches, regardless of country. Although Korean slogans (76.1%) used emotional appeal more often than U.S. slogans did (64.3%), the difference was not significant (χ^2=2.688, df=1).

Table 9: Nature of Appeal (Frequency/%)

	Rational	Emotional	Total
Korea	22(23.9)	70(76.1)	92(100)
US	25(35.7)	45(64.3)	70(100)

χ^2=2.688, df=1, p=n.s.

Positioning Approach: The chi-square analysis found significant differences between Korean and American place slogans in the positioning approach employed (χ^2 =26.947, df=4).' Regardless of country, the most frequently used approach was the non-specific image, that is, the use of image that is applicable to any place. This approach was used by 59.8 percent of Korean place slogans and 44.3% of American slogans. It is notable that American places (25.7%) utilize the USP approach much more than their Korean counterparts do (6.5%).

Table 10: Positioning Approach (Frequencey/%)

	USP	Image	Non-Specific USP	Non-Specific Image	Other	Total
Korea	6(6.5)	7(7.6)	6(6.5)	55(59.8)	18(19.6)	92(100)
US	18(25.7)	10(14.3)	10(14.3)	31(44.3)	1(1.4)	70(100)

χ^2=26.947, df=4, p<.001

Brand Personality: The chi-square test shows no significant cross-national differences in brand personality portrayed between Korean and American slogans (χ^2=9.404, df=6). Competence, excitement, and sincerity were used frequently by both countries, and American place slogans focus on ruggedness just as frequently.

Table 11: Slogan Brand Personality (Frequency/%)

	Sincerity	Excitement	Competence	Sophistication	Ruggedness	Other	Total
Korea	22(23.9)	22(23.9)	27(29.3)	8(8.7)	4(4.3)	9(9.8)	92(100)
US	14(20.0)	15(21.4)	22(31.4)	3(4.3)	12(17.1)	4(5.7)	70(100)

χ^2=9.404, df=6, p=n.s.

CBI Brand Value Criteria: This study examined the place slogans for their use of the six criteria, namely 6 Ps, which the city branding guru, Simon Anholt, uses to measure publics' perceptions of top global cities and develop the CBI (city brand index) for each city. The cross-national comparison by the six criteria indicates significant differences between Korea and the U.S. (χ^2=27.978, df=6).

American place slogans placed primary emphasis on their place (38.6%), presence (27.1%), or pulse (15.7%) value, Korean slogans emphasized pulse (23.9%), place (18.5%), or people (13.0%) value. While over ninety percent of American slogans focused on any one of the six criteria, more than a quarter (28.3 %) of Korean place slogans did not attend to the CBI brand value criteria at all. None of the place slogans utilized 'prerequisites' criteria for their value proposition.

Table 12: CBI (Frequency/%)

	Presence	Place	Potential	Pulse	People	Prerequisites	Other	Total
Korea	7(7.6)	17 (18.5)	8(8.7)	22 (23.9)	12 (13.0)	0	26 (28.3)	92(100)
US	19 (27.1)	27 (38.6)	2(2.9)	11 (15.7)	5(7.1)	0	6(8.6)	70(100)

χ^2=27.978 df=6, p<.001

Competitive Place Value: This research examined if and how places use slogans to differentiate themselves from their competitors. Results indicate that American place slogans focused on the competitive strength in natural environment and leisure activities to differentiate their place from competitors, while Korean slogans keyed into their competitiveness in natural environment, citizenry and leisure activities. While more than three quarters of American slogans suggested some competitive value for their places, only a half of Korean slogans did so. However, none of the cross-national differences was significant according to the chi-square test (χ^2=18.938, df=6).

Table 13: Competitive Place Value (Frequency/%)

	Economic	Culture	Natural	Leisure	Citizenry	Infra	Other/None	Total
Korea	2(2.2)	8(8.7)	15 (16.3)	10 (10.9)	11 (12.0)	0	46 (50.0)	92(100)
US	5(7.1)	7(10.0)	17 (24.3)	20 (28.6)	5(7.1)	0	16 (22.9)	70(100)

χ^2=18.938, df=6, p<.05

Pike's Slogan Appeal: The chi-square test was run on the appeal types proposed by Pike (2004) in the context of tourism branding. Results indicate that there were no significant differences between Korea and the US in these appeal types (χ^2=9.165, df=7). The two types of appeal, affection and functional, were most frequently used by places slogans in both countries.

Table 14: Slogan Appeal (Frequency/%)

	Functional	Affection	Travel	Segment	Self	Risk	Leadership	None	Total
Korea	12 (13.0)	50 (54.3)	1(1.1)	3(3.3)	4(4.3)	0	9(9.8)	13 (14.1)	92 (100)
US	17 (24.3)	28 (40.0)	5(7.1)	2(2.9)	4(5.7)	0	7(10.0)	7(10.0)	70 (100)

χ^2=9.165, df=7, p=n.s.

4.3. Other Slogan Characteristics

Slogan Sustainability: The two countries were significantly different in the sustainability of their place slogans (χ^2=47.314, df=3). As shown in Table 15, while 62 percent of Korean slogans have remained unchanged over ten years from 2003 to 2013, only 20% of American place slogans did not change for the same period. About half (48.6%) of American place slogans went through a major overhaul.

Table 15: Slogan Sustainability (Frequency/%)

	Change	minor	no change	no data	total
Korea	27(29.3)	7(7.6)	57(62.0)	1(1.1)	92(100)
US	34(48.6)	2(2.9)	14(20.0)	20(28.6)	70(100)

χ^2=47.314, df=3, p<.001

Slogan Keyword: The most frequently used key words were different between the two countries. Figure1 indicates Korean place slogans frequently feature key words such as 'Happy,' 'Global,' 'Beautiful,' 'Future', and 'Only.' A total of 37 key words were identified for the 92 Korean place slogans.

On the other hand, 49 keywords were employed by the 70 American place slogans, ranging from 'Adventures' to 'Wonderland.' Except for 'love' and 'grand,' American places rarely used the same key word as others use. The results suggest that American place slogans apply more differentiated approaches than the Korean counterparts.

Figure 1: Slogan Word Cloud of Korea and America

Korean City Slogan Word Cloud	American City Slogan Word Cloud

Retrieved from http://data.yonhapnews.co.kr

5. Discussion

Due to development of information technology and increase of exchange of personal and good, global cities are located in competitive situation with various areas such as tourism and investment. Like many place brands in the world, major cities and states in Korea and the US make arduous efforts with great interests on branding, it is low evaluated. In this respect, city brand is drawing attention in terms of efforts to improve image and value of cities. Especially, slogans is strategically using in various ways to promote a place, form identity and appeal to potential customers. When it strengthen positive image that cities and enhances the status of cities, the pride and satisfaction of their residents can increase. In this respect, concepts of marketing and communication were applied to city branding, especially, slogans. Therefore, this study analyzed on-going slogans for their effective use. They should play a key role in marketing communication activities of Korean cities and reflect branding and brand strategy. Through this analysis, firstly, it explored situations and characteristics of city brand slogans in Korea and the US. Secondly, it compared city brand slogans of Korea with those of the US, thirdly, it proposed strategic data from the comparison of Korea and the US. To conduct these study, the three research questions are put forth: 1) What literary forms and expressions are used for place branding slogans in Korea and the US, respectively? 2) What content strategies and approaches are used for place branding slogans in Korea and the US, respectively? 3) Do the two countries differ in the literary forms or strategic approaches used for place branding slogans? If so, how?

This study collected the slogans of 162 place brands in their homepages and conducted content analysis with coding schemes adopted from the previous studies. 92 places in Korea includes 16 local governments/'Do's and 76 cities. 70 places in the US includes 50 states and 20 metropolitans. To solve the research questions, major coding schemes consisted of target scope, linguistic system, linguistic system, relevance, slogan positioning, brand personality, city brand index, city competitiveness evaluation, place equity, type of slogan, Slogan sustainability and keywords. The result revealed 162 places were using slogans. Cross analysis were conducted to explore the difference in the characters of slogans. In specific, the analysis can be divided two parts: type and strategy of slogans. Firstly, in the type of slogans, targets and personal references of slogans had no difference between nations. Linguistic configuration had differences between nations, Korea (words) and the US (phrases). It found that the US uses more the rhyme of slogans and Korea use more intangible key messages. Place information and appeal had no difference between nations. Secondly, in the strategy of slogans, slogan strategy and brand personality had no difference between them. However, city brand index had differences: place index and competitiveness of the US were higher. Lastly, the type of slogans had no significant differences between them and Slogan sustainability had significant differences. Slogans of the US changed more than those of Korea.

It explored core keywords of place brand slogans in Korea and the US. As a result, 'Happy' was showed tree times and 'Future', 'Global', 'Green', 'Only', 'You' were two times each. 37 keywords range from 'A' to 'Yes' were found one time each. In the slogans of the US, 49 keywords from 'Adventures' to 'Wonderland' were shown once except 'Grand'. More unique keywords can be said to compose slogans of Korea than those of the US. Slogans of cites as a tool of place branding can position the city's own unique point to potential customers. Especially, when cities compete for various area including tourism, investment and potential, slogans become powerful. City brand slogans are useful tool to build, change and improve the image of the city. Further, they can link images of cities and communicate with target scope about vision, development and change of cities. Though trial and error in coding process, however, it found that city brand slogans in Korean should be translated more carefully. It is very difficult to persuade target scope of foreign culture. For development of more clear slogans in English, experts and natives should be involved in their translation. This study explored slogans as core factors of city brand strategy by analyzing slogans of major places in Korea and the US. Positioning is important for successful slogans of city brand in formal and strategic aspects, followed closely by long-term strategy in order to construct identity based on the attributes of the city. For City differentiation, slogans with its own keywords are necessary.

6. Limitations of This Study & Directions for Future Research

Despite the practical and research contributions, this study has a few major limitations. The first is the difference in the sample between two countries. While the American sample represents the largest place brands (50 states and top 20 cities), the Korean sample includes only 16 cities and 'Do's, which are large enough to be comparable to the American counterparts. The Korean sample was skewed greatly toward much smaller markets (76 of the 92), although they are next in population size to the 16 metropolitan markets and 'Do's in Korea. One may argue that the cross-national difference may be due in part to the difference in the two national samples. Future research should include a number of smaller markets in the US and see if the same results occur with the matched sample.

The second limitation of this research concerns the limitation of the content analysis approach used. While content analysis is beneficial to the study of exploratory nature, it only indicates the occurrence of the events of interest, for example, the usage of certain slogan strategies in our research. As such, the present study does not provide direct evidence as to the relative effectiveness of different slogan strategies in building image or value for a place brand. Future research should address these issues by employing experimental methods. The future research may utilize our classification framework for place slogan strategies to specifically test the effectiveness of alternative strategies. More empirical research should be conducted to determine what constitutes an effective slogan in the place branding and marketing context.

References

Anholt, S. (2007). Competitive Identity: The New Brand Management for Nations, Cities, and Regions. Palgrave Mcmillan, London, United Kingdom.

Aust, Phlip Jerold (2004). Communicated Values as Indicators of Organizational Identity: A Method for Organizational Assessment and Is Application in a Case Study. Communication Studies, 55(4), 515-534.

Avraham, E. and Keller, E. (2008). Media Strategies for Marketing Places in Crisis: Improving the Image of Cities

Byun, J. (2009). An Analysis of Korean Cities' Strategy on City Images and City Brand Slogans. Nation Territory Planning, 44(6), 105-121.

Choi, M. W. & Yoon, I. G. (2008). A study on effects of advertising slogans: Focusing on the moderating effects of product involvement. The Korean Journal of Advertising. 19(6), 57-86.

Dahlen, M., & S. Rosengren (2005). "Brands Affect Slogans Affect Brands? Competitive Interference, Brand Equity and the Brand-slogan Link." Journal of Brand Management 12(3), 151–164.

Denton E. Robert Jr. (1980). The Rhetorical Function of Slogans: Classifications and Characteristics. Communication Quarterly. Spring, 28(2), 10-18,

Dooley, G. & Bowie, D. (2005). "Place brand Architecture: Strategic management of brand portfolio. Place Branding", 1(4), 402-419.

Glynn, M. A. & Rikki A. (2002). Institutionalizing Identity: Symbolic Isomorphism and Organizational Names. Academy of Management Journal, 45(1), 267-280.

Govers, R (2013). Why place branding is not about logos and slogans. Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 9(2), 71-75.

Govers, R. and Go, F. M. (2009). Place Branding: Glocal, Virtual and Physical Identities, Constructed, Imagined and Experienced. Palgrave Mamillan, Basingstoke, United Kingdom.

Hall, S. (1998). Urban Geography, Routledge.

Hankinson, G. (2004). The brand images of tourism destinations: A study of the saliency of organic images. Journal of Product and Brand Management, 13(1), 6-14.

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 Advertising Management, 25(1/2), 97-115.

Jung. M. E., Park. N. R., & Jang. Y. S (2009). Isomorphic Change of Local Brand in Korea. The Korea Local Administration Review, 23(4), 251-279.

Jung, K. I. (2009). Linguistically analysis of district slogan. The Society of Woo-ri Korean language and Literature. 33. 65-98.

Jung. M. E., Park. N. R., & Jang. Y. S (2009). Isomorphic Change of Local Brand in Korea. The Korea Local Administration Review, 23(4), 251-279.

Jung. C. H. & Kim. M. S (2011). A Study on Regionality of Local Governments` Symbols. Journal of the Korean Urban Geographical Society, 14(1). 67-87.

Kang, H. (2010). Development and Management of Local Brand. Korea Policy Research, 10(1), 23-50.

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

Kim. J. H. (2004). The task and recognition of Local Identity and Image for Local activity. Korean Public Administration Quarterly. 6(3), 573-604.

Kim. M. S. & Oh. E. S. (2012). City Brand Design Case Study for Value Elevation of City. Journal of Korea Design Knowledge, 22, 1-10.

Kim. Y. K. (2013). Preface in Korean Edition of City Branding: Theory and cases (Keith Dinnie, 2011). Palgrave Macmillan.

Klenosky, David & Gitelson, Richard E. (1997). Research Notes and Reports: Characteristics of Effective Tourism Promotion Slogans. Analysis of Tourism Research. 22(1). 235-251.

Kohli, C., Leuthesser, L., & Suri, R. (2007). Got slogan? Guidelines for creating effective slogans. Business Horizons, 50(5), 415-422.

Kohli, C., Thomas S., L., & Suri, R. (2013). Are you in good hands? Slogan Recall: What really matters. Journal of Advertising Research, 53(1), 31-42.

Kwon, Y. (2009). A Research on Trend of Symbol Marks of Local Self-Governments: Centering around the case study on Chungcheongbukdo. 9(4), 198-206.

Lee, G., Cai, L. A., & O'Leary, J. (2006). www.branding.states.us: an analysis of brand-building elements in the US state tourism websites. Tourism Management, 27(5), 815-828.

Lee. H. B (2006). Analysis of City Brand Slogan; Focus on Rhetorical Expression, The Korean Journal of Speech & Communication, 5, 69-102.

Lee. H. B (2010). Analysis of City Brand Slogan: the comparison between Metropolitan cities and Local cites, Journal of Outdoor Advertising Research, 7(1), 25-50.

Lee. H. B (2012). Brand Personality of City Brand Slogan Focus on 7 Big Metropolitan Cities, The Koran Journal of Advertising & PR, 93, 25-50.

Lee. J. (2013). Place Marketing. Seoul: Daewangsa.

Lee. S. H. & Choi, I. D (2007). A study on personality factor of city-brand: Focused on 6-sphere of regional central city. Journal of the Korean Geographical Society. The Korean Journal of Advertising. 18(5). 57-73.

Lim & Han (2003). Development Strategies of Local Brand for Regional Competitiveness Strength. Journal of the Urban Management Association, 16(3). 95-113.

MATADOR TRIPS (Cynthia Ord 2010. 9. 29). The anatomy of a tourism slogan:
http://matadornetwork.com/trips/the-anatomy-of-a-tourism-slogan/

Moilanen, T. and Rainisto, S. (2008). How to Brand Nations, Cities and Destinations: Planning of Book for Place Branding. Palgrave Mcmillan, London, United Kingdom.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (2004). Destination Branding: Creating the unique destination proposition. Second Edition. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Park. I. (1985). Local Development Policy. Seoul: Jipmundang.

Park. E. S (2004). Making symbols and slogans for the Korea tourism brand. Journal of Tourism Policy, 10(2). 63-83.

Park, H. S. (2005). Brand Slogans in Cities: A Comparison of South Korea and Foreign Countries. The Korean Governance Review, 12(2), 1-25.

Pike, S. (2002). ToMA as a Measure of Competitive Advantage for Short Break Holiday Destinations. The Journal of Tourism Studies. 13(1), 9-19.

Pike, S. (2004). Destination brand Positioning Slogans: Toward the development of a set accountability criteria, Acta Turistica, 16(2), 102-124.

Richardson J. & Cohen J. (1993). State Slogan: The case of missing USP. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing. 2(2/3). 91-109.

Shin, S. C., & Hwang, I. H. (2009). Local Brand Promotion Strategy. Seoul: Korea productivity Center.

Song. C. M., & Jeon. H. Y. (2010). A Study of the Visual Symbols on the Slogans for Korean Regions -Rhetoric and Semiotic Analysis of Pictographic Slogans. The Korean Society of Design Culture. 16, 285-299.

Waeraas, A. (2010). Communicating Identity: The Use of Core Value Statements in Regulative Institutions. Administration & Society, 42(5), 526-549.

Yang. S. & Park, H. (2012). Pun as the Effective Tool for Destination Brand Naming － Focusing on Brand Slogan, Character and Agricultural Co-Brand. 19(1), 119-131.

Yoon. J. K. (2009). Research of the City-Brand Color in Local government -focused in 15 Local governments brand cases. Journal of Visual Communication Design. 31, 120-129.