

COMPARATIVE STUDIES OF SOUTH KOREA'S AND JAPAN'S NATION BRANDING



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The underlying principle of nation branding stems from the concept of branding, a common marketing theory. A brand refers to the visual and verbal symbols, such as name, logo, designs, and other characteristics, that identify the goods or services produced by one firm and serve to differentiate those goods and services from the firm's competitors (Doyle and Stern 2006). The branding process is the series of commercial and creative decisions that leads to the formation of a brand identity and the reception of the brand in the minds of the consumer (Kapferer 2008). So far, branding is a familiar concept from consumer marketing. This raises the question of how the principle of branding applies to nations and what the importance of branding is to nations.

In today's globalized world, nations – like firms – must compete for the attention of tourists, consumers, investors, and others to ensure economic growth (Anholt 2007). Anholt's (2007) concept of the competitive identity of nations brings to light the importance of the national image in creating positive perceptions, trust relationships, and international respect. The national image reflects the character and achievements of the nation and its people, providing an international audience with a perspective on the nation's character and characteristics. The nation branding

process, analogously to the product/service branding process, aims to create a positive view of the national image, and thereby create brand equity.

Brand equity can be understood as either a financial value (the economic value of the firm to its owner) or as a psychological value (the perception of the brand in the mind of its audiences) (Kapferer 2008). Brand equity for a nation brand lies in the psychological value of the brand, or the view of the nation in the minds of stakeholders like investors, tourists, immigrants, and others (Dinnie 2008) Nation branding overlaps with several other concepts, like country image and country of origin image (Fan 2006). It may also overlap with concepts like place marketing, which is commonly used in tourism studies (Van Ham 2008). As a result, there is no single definition of nation branding or nation brand equity. However, it is understood that effective nation branding requires consistent, high-level strategic management of the brand strategy that encompasses a holistic view of the nation's identity (Anholt 2007).

The level of interest in national image and reputation continues to rise, and apparently nowhere faster than in Asia (Dinnie 2008). Countries such as Japan believe in the possibilities of the nation branding concept; the tale of how Japan built its economy and its image after 1945 is frequently cited as one of the most eminent 'branding stories' of Asia (Akutsu 2008). That eminent story is followed by several other countries including South Korea, which have quite deliberately set themselves the task of repeating the Japanese miracle (Anholt 2010). Both Japan and South

Korea acknowledge the achievement in economic development as ‘Asian Tigers’, with high living standards that reflect their rapid economic development and strong nationalist beliefs that reflect through both countries’ main goals in nation branding which are ‘to improve the national image ranking and gain respect from other countries’ (Anholt 2010).

Academic research on public diplomacy in Asia has been limited, and not all Asian countries have active strategies of public diplomacy (Anholt 2008). However, according to Anholt (2008), Japan is one of the main Asian countries to use nation branding as part of its public diplomacy strategy. The establishment of the Japan Brand Working Group in 2004, followed by the establishment of the Intellectual Property Strategic Program in 2006, were first steps in establishing a nation branding program that would “improve the image and reputation of Japan and turn it into a nation that is loved and respected by people throughout the world (Akutsu 2008).” The main focus of this working group was on Japan’s food culture, fashion, and Japanese brands (Dinnie 2008). After the successful in first national brands’ project, Japan launched a new project in 2006 called ‘Japanesque Modern’. This project was designed to attract global attention with new Japanese lifestyle products incorporating technology and unique aesthetic characteristics (Akutsu 2008).

These branding efforts have been highly effective according to national image and national branding indicators. For example, Japan was ranked first in the 2014-2015 Country Brand Index (FutureBrand 2015) and was ranked fourth in a recent

ranking of nation brands (BrandFinance 2017). This represents a dramatic change from the position of Japan in the mid-20th century, when it was viewed as a developing country (Akutsu 2008). However, South Korea has not been as effective at leveraging nation branding to improve its national image on a global scale (Anholt 2008). South Korea has a positive image in Asia, and the “Korean wave” of music, television, and other entertainment has promoted the country to the regional stage of leading entertainment providers, but this image is not replicated in other regions (Anholt 2008).

South Korea has recently begun development of a nation branding initiative, beginning in 2009 with the establishment of the Presidential Council on Nation Branding by President Lee Myung-Bak (Lee 2010). The Presidential Council on Nation Branding had a number of objectives, including promoting the national image of South Korea on a global stage, to support Korean businesses and brands, and to provide information about the country’s people, products and culture. Although the Presidential Council on Nation Branding has since been discontinued, the effects of its branding activities are clear. South Korea is now ranked as the 10th most valuable brand in a comparative study (BrandFinance 2017). Although it still ranks only 49th in the Future Brand Country Index (FutureBrand 2015), this performance has increased from the previous years. However, South Korea has not yet achieved the level of nation brand prominence that Japan has.

Nation branding is a complex issue, with a multi-discipline approach, an emerging theoretical base that is being outstripped by practice, and an increasing focus for national strategies of public diplomacy and international promotion (Dinnie 2008). This research context is the reason for conducting the study. Comparison between South Korea and Japan is appropriate because of their differences in approach, although underlying philosophy is the same. South Korea has adopted nation branding as a tool for developing a competitive national identity. Because South Korea set Japan as one of model in developing its own nation branding process, it is appropriate to compare Japan and South Korea nation branding implementations.

1.2 Scope of study

This thesis examines South Korea and Japan's nation branding implementations and outcomes between 2003 and 2013. This period encompasses South Korea's Presidential Council on Nation Branding, Japan's Brand Working Group and the Japanesque Modern initiatives. Analysis is conducted through evaluation reports, expert and academic literature on nation branding, and other related secondary data such as indicators that both countries were using as self-evaluation. This study was conducted with indicators and documents that came out during the years in which mentioned organizations had been in active.

1.3 Objective

- (1) To study Japanese and South Korean nation branding's process.
- (2) To compare Japanese and South Korean nation branding's process, in order to understand factors that influence each countries' nation branding's process.
- (3) To propose a proper nation branding process for developing country

1.4 Research methodology

This thesis is comparative research which reviews South Korea and Japan's nation branding backgrounds and implementation. It focuses on comparison of implementation framework, achievement and other outcomes. This analysis used annual and final evaluation reports, expert commentary and academic literature on nation branding, and other related secondary data.

1.5 Hypothesis

South Korea and Japan have differences and similarities in their nation branding attempts, which resulted from differences in each country's conditions which resulted in different perspectives about the achievements and phenomena of the nation branding efforts. Bodies including the Presidential Council on Nation Branding, Japan Brand Working Group, and the Committee of Japanesque Modern helped create an institutional basis for nation branding in each country. South Korea's intention was to follow the example of nation branding success that was set

by Japan. South Korea adopted the Japanese nation branding model with adjustments according to South Korea's conditions. To evaluate the achievement of these two countries, good self-evaluation and a true understanding of each country's system and attractive points were required. Additionally, for developing country, it is important to recognize the adjustment of nation branding theoretical models to appropriate and pragmatic methods, as South Korea applied the example of Japan's nation branding with appropriate adjustments.

1.6 Conceptual framework

This thesis applied nation branding theories and empirical evidence from South Korean and Japanese nation branding implementation as a conceptual framework. Nation branding is a relatively new concept, with the earliest research on the topic dating only to the early 2000s (Fan 2006). However, both South Korea and Japan have adopted nation branding as a deliberate strategy to achieve international objectives like encouraging inward foreign direct investment and export activity, increase tourism, and attracted skilled workers and international students. An effective nation branding strategy could provide significant national competitive advantage, enabling the country to attract tourists, investors, and others important for economic performance. The nation branding process, like the consumer branding process, helps to both define the national image and to differentiate the nation from

major competitors (Dinnie 2008). However, there are still significant issues in nation branding (Table 1), which have not been resolved.

Table 1: Key issues in treating nations as brands

Key issues in treating nations as brands	
References	Themes and issues
Aldersey-Williams, H. (1998) Cool Britannia's big chill.	The branding or rebranding of a nation is a controversial and highly politicized activity.
Wolff Olins. (2003) Branding Germany.	Although historically brands are associated with products and corporations, the techniques of branding are applicable to every area of mass communications; political leaders, for example to inspire, need to become brand managers of their parties and preferably of the nation.
O'Shaughnessy and Jackson. (2000). Treating the nation as a brand: Some neglected issues.	The image of a nation is so complex and fluid as to deny the clarity implicit in a term such as brand image; different parts of a nation's identity come into focus on the international stage at different times, affected by current political events and even by the latest movie or news bulletin.
Gilmore. (2002). Branding for success.	The importance of truthfulness when constructing the nation-brand; what is required is amplification of the existing values of the national culture rather than the fabrication of a false promise.
Mihailovich. (2006). Kinship branding: A concept of holism and evolution for the nation brand.	The simplistic strapline approach to nation branding could be counter-productive; altruistic goals such as sustainable long-term employment and prosperity are objectives that may be met through emphasizing all forms of cluster and kinship alliances.
Anholt. (2007). Competitive Identity: The New Brand Management for Nations, Cities and Regions.	The vocabulary of branding can appear cynical and arrogant; therefore, to some extent, politicians need to avoid the explicit use of such terminology.
Dinnie. (2008). Nation Branding	A thoughtful brand positioning gives a country a competitive advantage over other nations and that active repositioning of a country through branding can be done successfully and holds great potential for countries. A further incentive for countries to embrace branding lies in the capacity of branding techniques to create meaningful differentiation.

(Adapted from: Dinnie. (2008). The relevance, scope and evolution of nation branding.)

According to Nandan (2005), brand identity originates from the company characters whereas brand image refers to consumer perceptions, identity and image that are thus distinct but related concepts (Nandan 2005). However, the remaining components are manipulated by brand managers and capable of application to nation branding ways. Furthermore, existing concepts of brand identity may be transferred to the context of nation branding as illustrated as Dinnie (2008) concluded in Table 2;

Table 2: Brand identity components and nation brand manifestation

The context of nation branding	
Brand identity components	Nation brand manifestation
Brand vision	Strategy document agreed upon by the various members of the nation-brand development team. The team should comprise representatives of the government, public and private sectors, and civil society.
Brand scope	Outline of the industry sectors and target markets in which the nation-brand can effectively compete. Will include segmentation strategies for sectors such as tourism, inward investment, education, etc.
Name of the brand	Some countries are known by more than one name. For Instance, Holland/Netherlands, Greece/Hellas, etc. Nations should monitor whether such a duality in naming represents a potential asset or liability.
Codes of expression	National flags, language, icons.
Everyday behavior	Political/military behaviors, diplomatic initiatives, conduct of international relations.
What makes the brand different?	The uniqueness of the nation; embodied in its culture, history, people.
Narrative identity	National myths and heroes, stories of emerging independence.
Advocate an ideology	Human rights, sustainable development, the pursuit of happiness, etc.

(Adapted from: Dinnie. (2008). Nation-brand identity, image and positioning.)

The intention of Japan's nation branding framework was to improve Japan's image and reputation, increasing knowledge and respect on a globalized stage (Anholt 2008). However, evidence from nation branding activities and achievement which was noted in the final report of the Japan Brand Working Group and *Japanesque Modern*, Japan's focus was mainly on cultural and business area; in other words, cultural business that generated income (Akutsu 2008). The program comprised a combination of planned and unplanned activities, most of which were created and controlled by private sector actors. In addition, some of its activities were initiated and sponsored by the Japanese government. These cultural and creative activities have continued even after the two working groups were disbanded. Japan transformed its national image between the 1980s and the early 2000s, moving from a somewhat boring economic power to a global leader in cultural areas like fashion, visual arts, food, and architecture (McGray 2002). The success of these activities was highly dependent on collaboration between public and private sector actors to achieve shared goals and coordinate international activities and strategies (Akutsu 2008). This thesis will review Japanese nation branding implementation through Japan Brand Working Group and *Japanesque Modern*, which will be detailed later in chapter III.

South Korea's nation branding was undertaken for the same reason as Japanese nation branding, a need to improve its image among other nations on the global stage. Furthermore, South Korea felt it had significant misconceptions about its

nation, culture, and other aspects of South Korean life (Lee 2010). South Korea is one of the most rapidly economic developed countries in the world. Its economy soared at an annual average of 10% for over 30 years in a period of rapid transformation called ‘the Miracle on the Han River’, and it is also one of ‘the Four Asian Tigers’ (Koo 2013). South Korea is constantly seeking further development and progress, and nation branding is one of the methods it has given precedence to. This thesis will review South Korean nation branding implementation through its Presidential Council on Nation Branding, which is the most crucial part and the main focus of this thesis. The in-depth information will be detailed in chapter III.

South Korea and Japan are close neighbors, as they are both main allies of the United States in East Asia and active trading partners. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan (2016) notes that although the countries have had historic struggles, they also share economic and strategic interests and cultural and social relationships (Japan 2016). A historic period of 35 years of occupation of South Korea by Japan causes many both conflict and cultural fusion between these neighbors. In the post-war 20th century and 21st century, Japan has attempted to improve relationships and compensate for the historical conflict with South Korea. Thus, relationship of Japan and South Korea is complicated and interesting. Since, both countries have made nation branding a strategic priority, a comparison of Japan and South Korea’s nation branding strategies can provide insight into their national policy, implementation and activities.

1.7 Outline of thesis

Chapter I presents an introduction to the thesis topic, its background, scope of study, objectives, research methodology, hypothesis, conceptual framework. This outline is also a part of this chapter.

Chapter II is where the nation branding theory that applies with this thesis is reviewed. This chapter also reviews the literature related to nation branding of South Korea and Japan.

Chapter III gives details of South Korea's and Japan's nation branding implementation. This chapter focuses on reviewing the implementation of Japan Brands Working Group, Japanesque Modern Committee and South Korea's Presidential Council on Nation Branding, achieving Objective 1.

Chapter IV is where objective 2 is achieved. In this chapter, South Korea's and Japan's nation branding implementation will be compared and differences and similarities identified.

Chapter V is the last chapter, which contains the conclusion of this thesis, and its epilogue, which proposes a nation branding approach for developing countries, achieving Objective 3.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEWS AND RELATED THEORIES

2.1 What is nation branding?

Dinnie (2008) observed that nation branding is still in the process of theoretical development, even though active application of nation branding practices can be observed. Nation branding is also a multidisciplinary area of research and practice, moving beyond marketing theories that dominate consumer branding and into political theories such as public diplomacy (Dinnie 2008). Nation branding can be briefly defined as a process of establishing a unique identity and image of a given country and differentiating it from similar countries. The main difference between nation branding and consumer branding is that nation branding is a process undertaken by a government rather than a company (Dinnie 2008). However, there are also other differences, such as the ethical limitations on how far the branding concept can be stretched to include national image (Christodoulides and De Chernatony 2010). Thus, the brand development concepts used in marketing cannot be used directly for nation branding, but must be adapted appropriately. Another issue is that nation branding needs to account for the perspectives of key stakeholders, such as the population of a country, in its activities (Christodoulides and De Chernatony 2010). This type of consideration is not a concern in consumer branding activities, but the characteristics of a country's population are the

fundamental material of nation branding and must be considered. Stakeholder evaluation, including identifying stakeholders such as governments, businesses, media, and cultural institutions, along with alignment of stakeholder interests and activities, is an important part of the process (Dinnie 2008). Identifying visions and aligning activities of key stakeholders through dialogue and negotiation is therefore an important part of the nation branding process, although there is no single process model (Dinnie 2008).

2.2 Why nation needs to be branded?

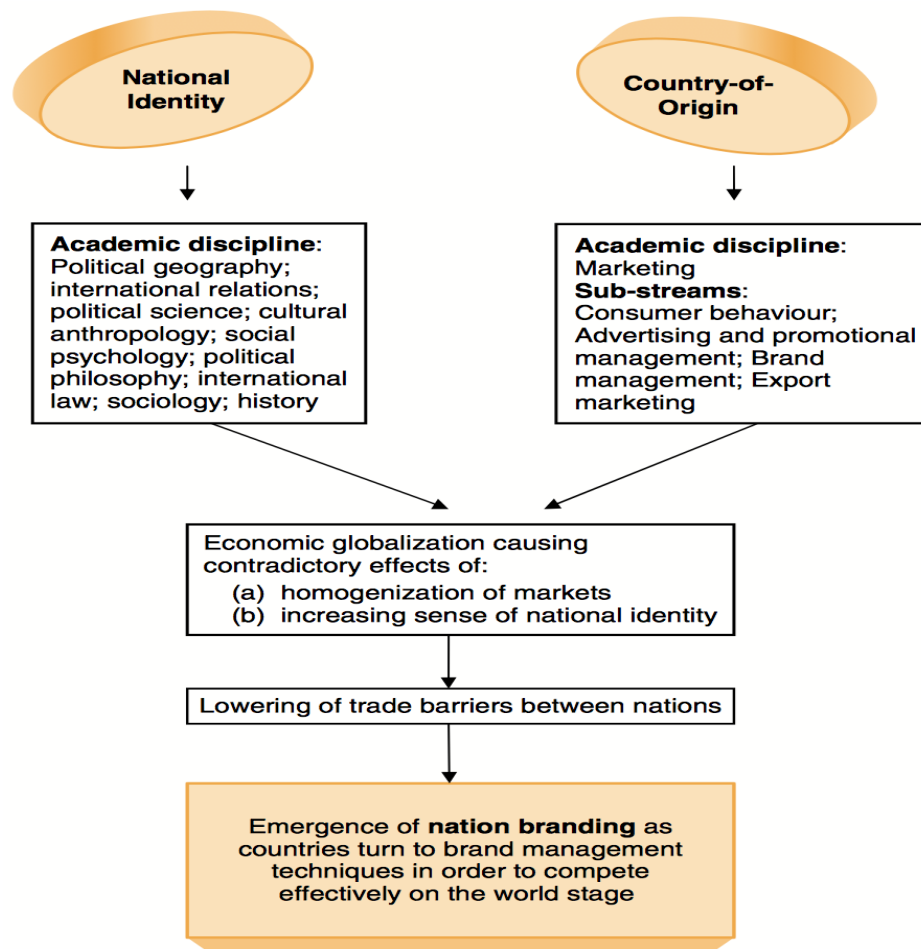
Nation branding can have many different levels, which have different implications. At one level, nation branding is simply product-country image, which incorporates a country name and logo or other visual symbol to bring the country of origin (COO) image to the consumer's mind (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2014). Product-country image models of nation branding serve to support exports and product sales (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2014). This type of nation branding is most consistent with the definition of brand used by the American Marketing Association, which is "a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers (AMA 2016)." However, this definition is inadequate for nation branding because nations are more complex than products and nation brands are used for more purposes than product brands (Fan 2006). For example, the nation brand evokes national identity, heritage and

culture, political relationships and conditions, geography and climate, celebrities, social institutions and many other aspects of life within the country and relationships with those outside (Dinnie 2008). Thus, nation branding must be distinguished from product branding, and instead viewed as a distinct variation on brand theory.

2.3 The nation branding and the country of origin effect

Nation branding emerged from related concepts of national identity and country of origin (COO) effects, according to Dinnie (2008). This evolution is demonstrated in Figure 1. COO refers to the perceived country in which a good is manufactured or where it comes from; as Dinnie (2008), the perceived COO (which may be different from country of manufacture) influences consumer perceptions about product quality and other characteristics, influencing attitudes, beliefs, and consumer preferences. COO perceptions do change over time as the underlying country's interactions in a globalized economy change; for example, a country's shifting economic base may influence COO, as may development of new products or brands and their acceptance on the world stage (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Monitoring COO effects is one way to understand the global image of the country, providing the basis for place branding (Kotler and Gertner 2002). Thus, from the perspective offered by Dinnie (2008), nation branding strategies are used to develop national identity and COO positively.

Figure 1: The evolution of nation branding



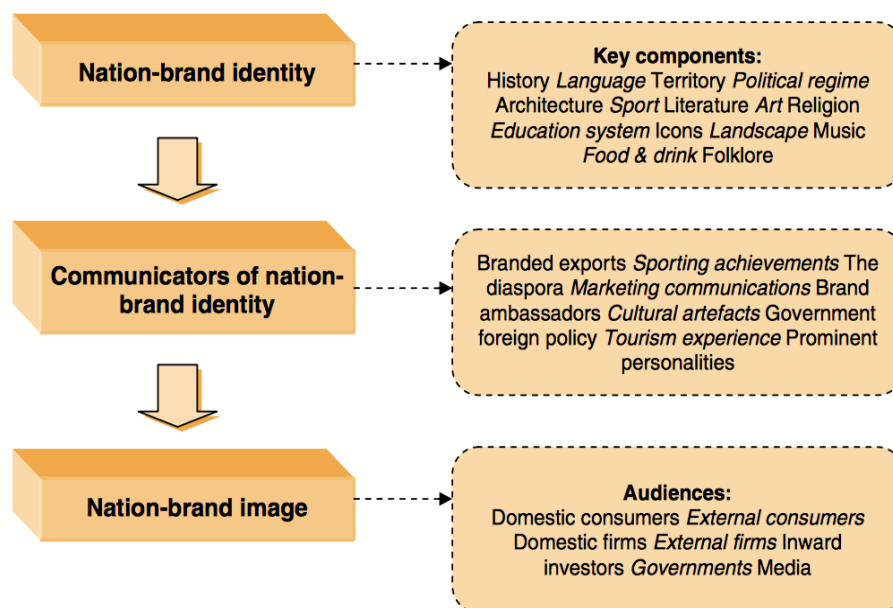
(Source: Dinnie. (2008). The relevance, scope and evolution of nation.)

2.4 National identity vs. country Image

There is a distinction in brand management between the brand identity (or how the brand is defined by the marketer) and brand image (or how the brand is perceived by the public) (Kapferer 2008). This distinction also carries through to nation branding, where there is a distinction drawn between nation-brand identity and nation-brand image (Figure 2) (Dinnie 2008). In this model, the nation-brand

identity refers to characteristics of the country, such as its history, politics, and cultural characteristics. Nation-brand image refers to how domestic and external consumers, firms, governments and media perceive the nation. Nation-brand identity and nation-brand image are connected by communicators of nation-brand identity, which can be misleading or inaccurate. Thus, one of the main goals of the nation branding process is to ensure that the nation-brand identity is perceived accurately by external stakeholders, including correcting misperceptions and communicating little-known information (Dinnie 2008). This eliminates or reduces negative perceptions that could damage the country's image or negatively affect economic development.

Figure 2: Conceptual model of nation-brand identity and image



(Source: Dinnie 2008). Nation-brand identity, image and positioning)

2.5 Nation branding and national identity

Table 3: Dimensions of national identity

Reference	Dimensions of national identity
Smith. (1991). National Identity.	A historic territory, or homeland; common myths and historical memories; a common, mass public culture; common legal rights and duties for all members; a common economy with territorial mobility for members.
Anderson.(1991). Imagined Communities.	The nation as an imagined community, a deep horizontal comradeship.
Kearney. (1991). Four nations or one? National Identities: The Constitution of the United Kingdom.	To speak of a single ‘national past’ or a single ‘national image’ would be to distort the complexity of the history of multinational states such as the UK.
Keane. (1993). Nations, Nationalism, and the European citizen.	National Identity infuses citizens with a sense of purposefulness, confidence and dignity by allowing them to feel at home.
Tolz. (1998). Forging the nation: National identity and nation building in post-communist Russia.	The main problem of nation-building is how to reconcile civic identities based on inclusive citizenship and exclusive ethnic identities based on such common characteristics as culture, religion and language.
Parekh. (2000). Defining British national identity.	Identity is neither fixed and unalterable nor wholly fluid and amenable to unlimited reconstruction. It can be altered, but only within the constraints imposed by inherited constitution and necessarily inadequate self-knowledge.
Thompson. (2001). Nations, national identities and human agency: putting people back into nations.	Contrary to nationalist discourses and commonly held assumptions, the nation is not a unitary entity in which all members think, feel and act as one. Instead, each individual engages in many different ways in making sense of nations and national identities in the course of interactions with others.
Kiely et al. (2001). The markers and rules of Scottish national identity.	‘Markers’ of national identity can include: place of birth, ancestry, place of residence, length of residence, upbringing and education, name, accent, physical appearance, dress, commitment to place.
Bond et al. (2003). National identity and economic development: reiteration, recapture, reinterpretation and repudiation.	Attempt to move beyond assumptions that nationalism is essentially cultural and/or narrowly political, primarily past-oriented and defensive. Examine evidence relating to the creative reconstruction of the nation from a contemporary economic perspective.

(Adapted from: Dinnie. (2002). Implications of national identity. And Dinnie. (2008). Nation Branding and National Identity.)

Dinnie (2002, 2008) has identified a wide range set of possible elements of national identity (Table 3). These elements include cultural factors like language and traditions, architecture and visual arts, food and drink, sport, and entertainment, along with history, nationalism and national identity, politics and the state, international relations, and the economy, among many other possible dimensions (Dinnie 2002, Dinnie 2008). As Dinnie (2008) explained, nation branding does not have the flexibility of product branding, since national identity must reflect the actual national characteristics to avoid misleading external audiences or being off-putting to internal audiences.

2.6 Conceptual model of nation branding

The conceptual model of nation branding incorporates several previous models in order to acknowledge and represent the complexity of nation branding, which is multidisciplinary and multifaceted. The nation brand construct uses Dinnie's (2008) components model, which identifies factors like geography and territory, history, sport and entertainment, culture, icons, and other factors that represent a shared and enduring image of national identity. Both tangible and intangible communicators of national identity are considered as factors that transpose national identity into national image. Communication channels and processes like national brand ambassadors, communication about cultural artifacts, and active marketing communications are considered as potential factors in nation brand building.

Different audiences and their receptiveness to different types of communication about different components of national identity are also considered. This allows, for example, differentiation between tourists and consumers of export products in terms of how they understand the nation brand and what it means to them. The conceptual model also considers the external context of brand building, in which uncontrollable factors can limit the extent to which national identity can be made to match the national image held by audiences.

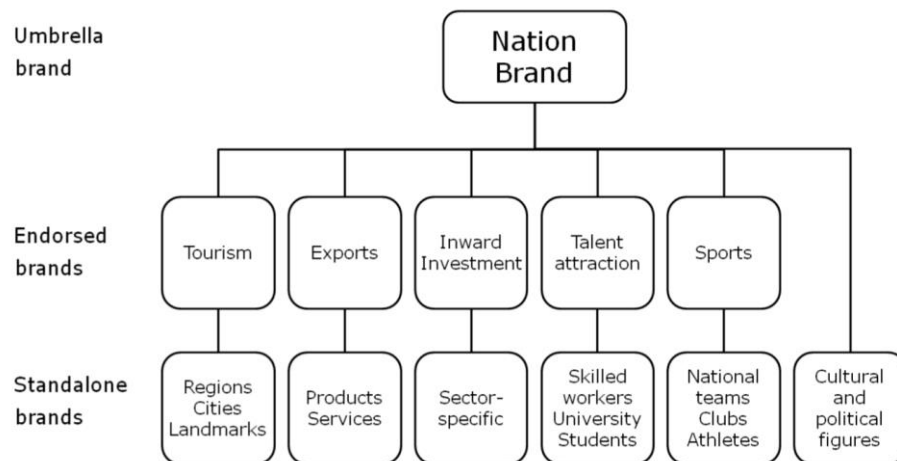
2.6.1 The nation branding architecture model

The first aspect of the conceptual model is derived from the Nation-branding Architecture (NBAR) model, proposed by Dinnie (2008) (Figure 3). This model has been used by other researchers (for example Englund (2012) to model the way in which nation branding acts at different levels and communicates with different audiences. It has also been used in formal strategy planning exercises and evaluations by South Korean brand strategists, as will be explained in Chapter III.

The NBAR model is derived conceptually from the idea of the brand architecture, in which a firm creates multiple related brands that address the needs of different target markets or communicate about different products or services (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2012). Large companies can have multiple brand levels that relate to different products or different audiences (Kapferer, 2008). The NBAR model proposes three brand levels, including an umbrella brand (which contains overarching principles), endorsed brands (which relate to industries like investment,

tourism, and celebrity and sport), and standalone brands (which relate to niche audiences like students or immigrants) (Dinnie, 2008).

Figure 3: The NBAR (nation-brand architecture) model



(Source: Dinnie. (2008). Pragmatic challenges to the nation-branding concept)

The NBAR model shows a number of different applications for nation branding, and makes recommendations for how the nation brand should be developed to meet specific needs (Dinnie 2008, Englund 2012);. This research is mainly concerned with the endorsed brands level. For example, the nation brand can be used as part of tourism and destination promotion efforts, and to support regional tourism marketing strategies and tourism organizations. The nation brand can also be used by national trade councils and export councils to support private companies engaged in export and outbound foreign direct investment (FDI) activities. Trade councils are also often involved in promotion of standalone activities conducted by private firms and non-governmental organizations in industry sectors

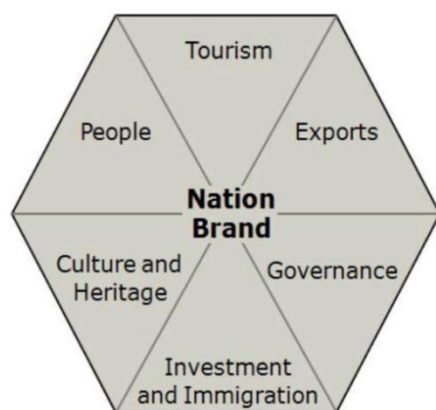
like healthcare, pharmaceutical, energy, manufacturing, and food production. However, Dinnie (2008) argues that these activities are not truly standalone activities; instead, the collaboration between state bodies like trade councils and private organizations means these are so-called 'semi-level' activities. In addition to exports, nation branding can be used to support inward investment by private firms, for example through establishment of special economic zones or other investment incentives, investment consultancy, or so-called matchmaking between international firms and domestic business partners (Hafeez, Foroudi et al. 2016). Such inward investment can encompass multiple industries, like information and computing technology (ICT), natural resources production activities like mining and petroleum production, telecommunications and electricity or other infrastructure, scientific research or retail sector development. Nation branding oriented toward inward investment needs to focus on human capital (skills and knowledge) and markets in order to be successful. The goal of talent attraction is another standalone opportunity for nation branding; in this application, the government attracts and retains human resources such as highly skilled workers by highlighting career opportunities and career successes (Dinnie 2008). The government may also act by providing scholarships, developing the educational system, and pursuing economic partnerships. A related application is sport, which includes promotion and development of national sport activities (Dinnie 2008). Dinnie (2008) argues that sports are relatively rarely used by governments as endorsed brands, but instead

most such activities are undertaken as standalone activities by private firms. Finally, cultural and political figures, such as celebrities and politicians, may be used to support national identity although this is risky because of incomplete control over their images.

2.6.2 The nation brands index and hexagon model primary

The second element of the conceptual model is the Nation Brand Hexagon and the accompanying Nation Brand Index (NBI). The Nation Brand Hexagon (Figure 5) was proposed by Anholt (2006, 2007) to allow for comparison between countries and cities. The NBI uses the six dimensions of the hexagon, measuring relative performance of the nation branding activity in areas of tourism, exports, governance, investment and immigration, culture and heritage and people (Anholt 2006, Anholt 2007). The NBI is measured by research firm GfK based on this model, which currently compares 50 countries (Anholt 2007).

Figure 4: The Nation Brand Hexagon and NBI



(Source: Anholt. (2007). The Nation Brand Hexagon and NBI)

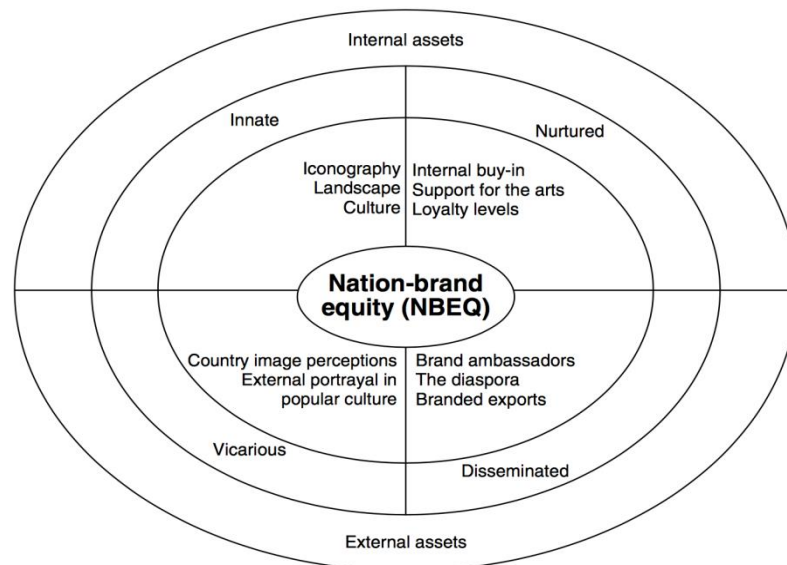
2016 Index overall ranking	Nation	2015 Index overall ranking	Score difference 2016 - 2105
1	United States	1	-1.04
2	Germany	2	-0.96
3	United Kingdom	3	-1.31
4	Canada	5	-0.33
5	France	4	-0.81
6	Italy	7	-0.54
7	Japan	6	-0.88
8	Switzerland	8	-0.64
9	Australia	9	-0.25
10	Sweden	10	-0.64

NBISM score changes: minor +/-0.26-0.50; medium +/-0.51-1.00; large >+/-1.00

The six dimensions of the nation brand hexagon were defined by Anholt (2006) as follows. Exports measures the global public image of products and services originating from the country and the degree to which global consumers avoid or seek out products and services from the country. Governance relates to public perceptions of the government. This dimension measures attitudes and beliefs about fairness, competency, and commitment to global issues like the environment, democracy, and justice. The cultural heritage dimension measures how the global audience views the nation's heritage and modern culture, including aspects like art, entertainment (films and music), sport, and literature. The people dimension measures the global public's perception of the nation's population, including qualities like friendliness, competence, education, and hostility. Tourism addresses the tourist destination image how much interest the global public has in visiting. Finally, investment and immigration measures how attractive the country is to immigrants, foreign students, and foreign investors, including how they view the social, political, and economic environment (Anholt, 2006; Anholt, 2007). While this model does not encompass all possible dimensions of the nation brand as explained by Dinnie (2008), it is comprehensive and addresses all important external dimensions. Unfortunately, The Anholt-GFK NBI full index for South Korean has limited accessibility to the public. Instead, this study uses the SERI-PCNB NBDO, which adopted the framework from this index. The implications of this substitution are reviewed in chapter III (3.2.1 The Presidential Council on Nation Branding).

2.6.3 Sources and dimensions of nation brand equity

Figure 5: Model of asset-based nation brand equity



(Source: Dinnie. (2008). Nation-brand equity.)

The third aspect of the conceptual model is the nation brand equity (NBEQ) model, identified by Dinnie (2008) (figure 5). Nation brand equity can be defined as tangible and intangible external and internal assets of a given nation, which contribute to specific perceptions of the nation in audiences (Dinnie, 2008). This framework is a practical framework intended to develop nation branding strategies and campaign. The NBEQ is an asset-based model, in which both internal and external assets are included. Internal models may be modeled as innate or nurtured, while external assets may be vicarious or disseminated. Innate assets include iconography, landscape, and culture, while nurtured assets include buy-in, government support, and loyalty. Vicarious assets include existing image perceptions and portrayal in

popular culture such as films, while disseminate assets include diasporas, exports, and brand ambassadors (Dinnie, 2008).

2.6.4 A framework of brands direction for evaluating national image

Table 4: Components of nation brand's model pillars

Commercial Nation Sub-Brands			Non-Commercial Nation Sub-Brands		
Investment	Exports	Tourism	Governance	Culture	People
Power supply/ technological advancement	Quality of locally made products:	The peoples' attitudes to visitors	Electoral system in the country	Quality of music/movies	Friendliness and hospitality of the people
Educational system	Durable	Climate/weather condition	Attitude to human right issues	Music/Movies as ambassadors	Quality of the Diaspora
Health care	Value for money (Price)	International image of Tourism	Foreign policies / domestic laws/policies	International sporting performance	Sport stars as brand ambassadors
Telecommunications & Transportation system	Fashionable	Customer service in the Hospitality Industry	Observance of law	Hosting international sports event	Corruption among the people
Cost of doing business	Reliable	International airport's image	Respect for the minorities	Landscape's attractiveness	Inventiveness of the people
Tax incentive for business investors	Workmanship/ craftsmanship	Safe place for tourism	Corruption level in government	Literatures as ambassadors	Industriousness of the people
Availability of raw materials & skilled labour	International position of locally made products	The nation's cultural heritage/landscape	Level of transparency in government	International image of literatures	Level of poverty among the people
Safety/Security	Product uniqueness	Festivals	Judicial system		
Honesty in business practice	Made-in labels; Country-of-Origin effect	The nation's history/arts	Political stability		
Attitudes to work and maintenance culture	Loyalty to locally made products	Advancement in tourism			
Business registration procedures	Product's technological advancement	International perception of the tourism			
Residency criteria (for visa and passport)	Product appearance vs. performance				

Adapted from: Anholt's (2007) Nation Brand Hexagon; Dinnie's (2008) NBEQ and PEST model.

Source: Edith Onowe Odia & Felix Osaiga Isibor. (2013). Stetieic Approach to Nation Branding : A case of

The final component of the conceptual model is shown in Table 4. This component addresses brand direction, which can be used in evaluation models to assess brand image expression and competitiveness. The national brand competitor analysis model was based on research Anholt (2006) and Dinnie (2008) to examine the competitiveness of different countries in terms of national branding (Odia and Isibor 2014). This model can also be used to examine strengths, weaknesses, goals, and current performance.

2.7 Positioning nation brands

One of the concepts that nation branding adopts from consumer marketing is brand positioning. Brand positioning refers to the marketer's placement of the brand at a specific position in the minds of consumers in the target market (Kotler 2012). The mechanism by which brand positioning is achieved is through integrated communication across multiple channels and to multiple audiences or target markets (Kotler 2012). Characteristics such as clarity, consistency, competitiveness, and credibility are required in brand communication to be effective at the positioning goal. Additionally, the brand positioning must be both distinct and relevant for consumers to believe the positioning and accept it. The nation branding model accepts the principle of brand positioning, but there are important differences in how brand positioning occurs in the context of nations (Dinnie 2008). Specifically, nations cannot be repositioned based on the marketers' preference, because they are

derived from characteristics of the national population and other dimensions and tend to be politically and socially important. While political statements about the country can be powerful (for example positioning it as a peaceful and welcoming tourism destination), the country's political environment cannot be repositioned for branding purposes (Dinnie 2008).

2.8 Elements of nation branding strategies

Dinnie (2008) provided a comprehensive framework for developing a nation branding strategy. He argued that: “The basic principles of strategy center upon three questions for the firm, or in our case the nation. First, where are we now? Second, where do we want to be? Third, how do we get there? (Dinnie, 2008, p. 216)”. These questions are used as the basis for elaboration of a nation branding strategy and to direct the internal and external analyses recommended to design and implement the nation branding strategy. Dinnie (2008) argues that the complexity and process of nation branding strategy is similar to a consumer branding strategy, although different objectives will be used.

The first stage of the strategy analysis is internal analysis, which evaluates national characteristics and capabilities on a sectorial basis (Dinnie, 2008). This sectorial analysis identifies existing characteristics and capabilities and considers how these capabilities could be positioned to best represent the sector in the competitive environment. An example of a tool that could be used at this point is

the SWOT analysis, which evaluates the internal strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the sector in the global competitive environment (Kotler 2012).

The second stage of the strategy analysis is external analysis, which evaluates the nation's external environment and conditions to which it must respond (Dinnie, 2008). First, competitor analysis seeks to answer several questions about the competitive environment, which include “who are our competitors? What are their strengths and weaknesses? What are their strategic objectives and thrust? What are their strategies? What are their response patterns? (Dinnie, 2008, p. 219).” Second, environmental analysis seeks to identify conditions in the broader environment that could influence the nation branding implementation (Dinnie, 2008).

2.9 The role of nation brand management and national policy

Anholt (2007) argued that nation brand value could be more effectively explained as the nation's competitive identity. The argument for considering competitive identity stems from the understanding that national identity and the country's economic and political conditions influence the process of nation branding far more than similar conditions influence a corporate branding process (Anholt 2007). The concept of competitive identity aligns the strategic goals of the nation branding process with improving international reputation of the country, rather than specifically attracting investment attention. Anholt (2007) argues that developing and maintaining a strategic identity should be part of a holistic national policy, not just a

branding campaign and associated marketing exercise. This helps overcome barriers such as isolation and miscommunication and conflicts between different messages, and helps ensure the nation's competitive identity is informing competitive decisions (Anholt 2007).

2.10 South Korea nation branding strategies: strengths, weaknesses and future trends

Following development of the theoretical model of nation branding above, empirical evidence was sought out to understand how it was applied in South Korea. A comprehensive analysis of South Korea's nation branding strategy was conducted by Chidchanok Yomjinda (2013), which provides evidence for how South Korea has implemented nation branding and what its outcomes have been. The research was conducted with the objectives of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of nation branding as performed by South Korea, what level of success South Korea has achieved in nation branding, and what future trends are evident in the South Korean nation branding process. As recommended by Dinnie (2008), Yomjinda (2013) focuses on analysis of South Korea's strengths, weaknesses and future trend, by applying asset-based nation brand equity and the SWOT analysis matrix. The TOWS matrix, an inverse SWOT matrix, was also used to relate factors within these two models. Results are summarized in Tables 5 and 6.

Yomjinda (2013) began by evaluating the asset-based brand equity, using Dinnie's (2008) model. The analysis process began with examination of internal assets. Overall, internal assets were evaluated as relatively strong. The South Korean flag, known as the Taegukgi, was identified as the essential iconic representation of South Korea and the characteristics of its people, which Yomjinda (2013) explained would be representative of South Korea on the world stage. The author then went on to explain the landscape and geographic condition of South Korea and reflect on how this position influenced perceptions of the country (Yomjinda 2013). As she explained, South Korea's position in relation to historically powerful neighbors like China and Japan, and its natural resources like coal and iron ore, created conditions in South Korea for early industrial development and trade. More recently, South Korea has used cultural diplomacy to establish an international presence of its culture through the Hallyu ("Korean wave") cultural and entertainment exports (Yomjinda 2013). The Korean government has undertaken a deliberate strategy of supporting cultural exports including films and music, which Yomjinda (2013) argues is the most significant characteristic of the country on the international stage. Yomjinda (2013) points to the relevance of the cultural characteristics of South Korea to explain its nurtured assets, including internal buy-in, support for the arts, and loyalty. As she notes, on the cultural dimensions model, South Korea has one of the lowest levels of individualism in the world – it is a highly collectivist culture (Hofstede and Minkov 2010). This implies that Korean society is heavily

interdependent and decisions are frequently made for the good of the group rather than the individual. It also means that South Koreans are heavily involved in their own culture and there is a significant amount of government support for aspects of culture and the arts like museums and performance venues. The South Korean government was also instrumental in the development of the Korean Wave phenomenon, deliberately supporting an arts export strategy that has been highly successful regionally (although it has seen limited success nationally) (Yomjinda 2013). Thus, there is both strong internal buy-in and support for the arts, which are prerequisites for effective nation branding according to Dinnie (2008). The one area where Yomjinda (2013) could not establish strong evidence for was loyalty to the South Korean national brand, which she noted was because there was insufficient data.

The second stage of the asset-based national brand equity evaluation was evaluation of external assets (Yomjinda 2013). The author noted that there are still some negative country image perceptions for South Korea, particularly related to political issues like conflict with North Korea, political scandals and public protests, along with negative cultural stereotypes. However, there are other aspects of positive performance. For example, the SERI-PCNB Nation Brand Dual Octagon (NBDO) index, which was developed in collaboration of the Samsung Economic Research Institute (SERI) and the Presidential Council on Nation Branding, rated Korea strongly on aspects including celebrities, modern culture, and science and technology, although

people was lowest ranked as of 2012 (Yomjinda 2013). South Korea's image ranking was poorer, with only science and technology and economy highly ranked, indicating that the country does have image perception problems relating to its culture and heritage. This position is not because South Korea has not tried to improve its external position; in fact, Yomjinda (2013) argues that much of the imagery of the Korean wave, which presents South Korea as a prosperous and culturally rich nation with multifaceted modern and historic culture, is aimed at trying to correct these perceptions. The rating of disseminated assets is somewhat stronger (Yomjinda 2013). South Korea does have a number of brand ambassadors, such as sports stars and especially entertainment and media representatives. It also has a global diaspora, which it cultivates through the Korea Foundation to communicate with residents in different countries, and an academic base of scholars and students. Yomjinda (2013) argues that the strongest external asset is actually its branded exports from well-known companies like Samsung and LG, which are internationally known and often leaders in diverse global industries. Thus, South Korea has a mix of strengths and weaknesses in external assets.

Table 5: South Korea Nation Branding Strategies SWOT analysis

	Positive	Negative
	Strengths	Weaknesses
Internal factors	Economic factor: ❖ Entertainment industry as a core.	Political factor: ❖ Lack of integration for government organizations ❖ Tourism Industry's strategies not fully effective
	Technological factor: ❖ - Utilization of wide range of media	Economic factor: ❖ Little impact from successful Korean branded exports
	Political factor: ❖ Effective government organization	Socio-cultural factor: ❖ Strong sense of collectivist society
	Socio-cultural factor: ❖ Strong potential for network of people	❖ Critical social issues in high suicide rate in society ❖ Lack of landmarks

(Continue in next page)

External factors	Positive	Negative
	Opportunities	Threats
	Technological factor: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ The emergence and rapid development of ICT globally 	Political factor: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Political issues and conflicts among neighboring countries in East Asia ❖ North Korea threat
Socio-cultural factor: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Increase of popularity of Korean wave worldwide 	Socio-cultural factor: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Cultural backlash toward Korean wave ❖ High competition in improving nation's image 	
Political factor: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Cooperation with other countries on the international stage 		

(Source: Chidchanok. (2013). South Korea Nation Branding Strategies SWOT matrix analysis)

The next stage of analysis was a SWOT analysis of the nation branding strategy (Yomjinda 2013). A summary of the SWOT analysis conducted by the author is shown in Table 5. This analysis identified key strengths, most of which focused on the Hallyu or Korean wave public diplomacy strategy. Examples of such key strengths included government support for entertainment exports including television, film, and music, along with the use of government organizations and networks and



communication channels to communicate effectively about the country. The Korean wave strategy is viewed as the most effective use of communication channels, as it reaches a global audience, although it is most effective regionally. General use of ICTs to communicate globally is also viewed as a significant strength. The effectiveness of the Presidential Council on Nation Branding in terms of creating foreign government relationships and engaging in public diplomacy were also cited as a strength. This resulted in a network of citizens and groups that supported cultural diplomacy and held positive views of South Korean culture. However, there were also significant weaknesses associated with the strategy. In particular, there was a failure to integrate the nation branding strategy in terms of its goals and processes, which resulted in barriers to effective global implementation. The integration of the tourism industry was also relatively weak. Most tourists who came to South Korea were drawn by an interest in sites featured in Korean wave pop culture, rather than a broader interest in Korean culture and history. There was also limited effectiveness of branded export strategies outside major conglomerates.

There were a number of external factors that influenced performance as well (Yomjinda 2013). Some of the strongest threats came from South Korea's political position, including its ongoing conflict with neighboring North Korea and internal political dissent. These political conflicts and problems meant that the overall image of North Korea could be relatively poor and it could have difficulty engaging in public diplomacy activities. Another external threat was regional economic competition,

particularly from neighbors like Japan and China, since these countries have a stronger economic and industrial base than South Korea in many ways. There are also external threats that specifically relate to tourism development, such as lack of historic or globally important landmarks that would draw a broader set of tourists. However, Yomjinda (2013) argued that these external threats were potential opportunities for development of the nation branding strategy, since they offered opportunities to improve global image perceptions or to integrate resources to overcome limitations in international relationships.



Table 6: South Korea Nation Branding Strategies TOWS matrix analysis

	Internal strengths	Internal weaknesses
Internal factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Entertainment industry as a core - Utilization of wide range of media - Effective government organizations - Strong potential on network of people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of integration for government organizations - Not fully effective Tourism Industry's strategies - Little impact from successful Korean branded exports - Strong sense of collectivist society - Critical social issue: high suicide rate society - Lack of Landmark
External factors		
External opportunities:	SO:	WO:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the emergence and rapid development of ICT globally - Increasing of popularity of Korean wave world wide - Cooperation with other countries in the international stage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nurture promoting of country's identities & other components through online and social media - Strengthen relationship among network of people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provide information about nation branding to both domestic people and foreigners - Integrate government organizations related to nation image - Improve tourism strategies and facilities for various groups of visitor

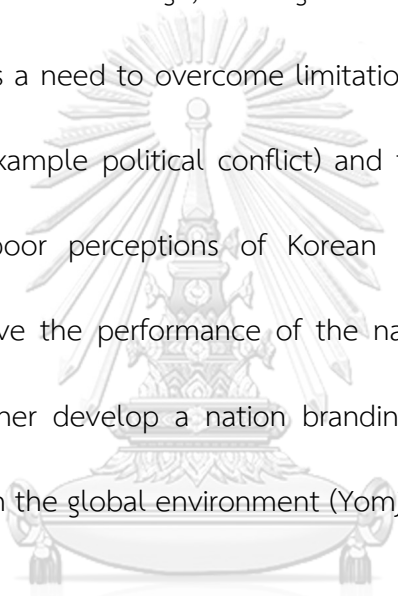
(Continue in next page)

External threats	ST:	WT:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - North Korea threat - Political issues and conflicts among neighboring countries in East Asia - Cultural backlashes toward Korean wave - High competition in improving nation's image 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promote the exchange of cultural elements with just not only one-way communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support research and studies about nation branding or strategies promoting the country's image

(Source: Chidchanok. (2013). South Korea Nation Branding Strategies TOWS matrix analysis)

Finally, Yomjinda (2013) conducted a TOWS matrix analysis (Table 6) to identify opportunities for improvement. The purpose of the TOWS matrix is to correlate the four dimensions of the SWOT analysis. The main SO (strengths-opportunities) strategy was to use social media and ICT and communication through existing networks to promote national identity perceptions and improve perceptions of Korean culture and heritage. The ST (strengths-threats) strategy identified was to encourage exchange of cultural communication, moving away from the existing strategy which mainly focuses on one-way and marketing-driven communications. The WO (weaknesses-opportunities) strategies included improving integration of government organizations, increasing integration of tourism activities into the nation branding strategy, and communicating about the nation branding process. The WT (weaknesses-threats) strategy called for conducting research into effective nation branding.

Yomjinda (2013) presented a comprehensive analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the South Korean nation branding strategy, using Dinnie's (2016) framework of strategy analysis to understand where improvements are needed and where South Korea has seen successes. She concluded that collaboration between government and private sector actors to promote the Hallyu or Korean wave has improved South Korea's nation image, although much of this effect is regional. She also noted that there is a need to overcome limitations, both those associated with national identity (for example political conflict) and those associated with national image (for example poor perceptions of Korean people). There are also still opportunities to improve the performance of the nation branding activities, which could be used to further develop a nation branding strategy and position South Korea more positively in the global environment (Yomjinda 2013).



2.11 The directions and the key elements of branding

Akutsu is a professor at Hitotsubashi University with expertise in international corporate strategy, including marketing and branding strategy. He is a member of the Japan Brands Working Group. His evaluation addressed the current directions of Japan's branding strategy and the key elements that its stakeholders applied to the practice of nation branding.

In the initial explanation of the practice of nation branding author explained that 'The policy headquarters of Japan' functions as a hub of Japan branding efforts

(Akutsu, 2008). This policy headquarters identified key goals and strategies for the nation branding process. It chose to promote Japanese culture, including food culture, fashion and local brands, to establish a design ethos that was clearly associated with modern Japan and its lifestyle. The policy extended to intellectual property, particularly in the entertainment industries, with the goal of promoting Japanese culture and improving perceptions of Japan through positive depictions of Japanese life. This cultural diplomacy strategy was conducted by the policy hub in coordination with private industry, who were responsible for developing and promoting the activities. Akutsu (2008) identified key government policies and activities, beginning with the Content Business Development Policy, which guided the development of entertainment content to promote Japanese culture. The Promotion of Japan Brand Strategy, developed by the Japan Brand Working Group, established further goals for promoting Japanese national culture, including promoting Japanese food culture, local brands, and Japanese fashion through first domestic development and then global integration. Additional goals were also developed, resulting in a total of 12 overall objectives (Akutsu, 2008). (These objectives are discussed more fully in Chapter III, as they were part of the evaluation process.)

As Akutsu (2008) explains, following development of a brand promotion strategy, the implementation was conducted by government agencies and private sector actors including firms and independent cultural development and promotion groups. Key promotional activities included a global tourism promotion campaign

titled 'Visit Japan', the Japan Brands promotional strategy, and design-oriented activities such as the Neo-Japanesque Conference and the establishment of the Japanesque Modern program (Akutsu, 2008). (This program is also discussed more fully in Chapter III as it was a major component of the nation branding strategy.) Other activities undertaken included cultural diplomacy activities and development of a cultural diplomacy norm and export-oriented activities focusing on key products, especially agriculture, forestry and fisheries products, where Japan has not historically had a strong reputation (Akutsu 2008).

Akutsu's (2008) evaluation of the progress of Japan's brand strategy is summarized in Table 8. He concluded that significant progress had been made on Japan's brand strategy goals, but that several issues remained. The most important goal that had been achieved was positioning Japan as a globally significant provider of entertainment content that incorporates Japanese culture and lifestyles. In the final part of this article, the author addressed future directions for Japan's nation branding (Akutsu 2008). He focused on the next intentions of Japan's I. P. S. Headquarters and their future planning activities. By considering of creativity for a new Japan brand, I. P. S. Headquarter not only aims to create high quality products and manufacturing but also aims to focus on intellectual and cultural content creation and distribution. However, he also identified some limitations to the existing nation branding strategy (Akutsu 2008). In particular, he raised the question of whether Japan's brand identity should encompass a broader and more holistic set of

objectives than just the development and distribution of intellectual property and entertainment content. He also noted that there was no comprehensive plan in place to measure or evaluation nation brand equity, which was a significant gap in the planning process and could affect future performance (Akutsu 2008).

Table 7: Japan branding major goals and sub goals in details

Main Goal: (1) Making Japan a world-class content superpower	
Sub-goals	Details
Making Japan a content-user superpower	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of IP multicasting • Adopting protection systems • Efforts to establish content archives
Making Japan a content-creator superpower	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assuring fair returns for creators • Helping creators to exercise their Abilities • Developing human resources in the contents field • Honoring outstanding content
Making Japan a content-business superpower	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening the functions of content producers • Exporting contents • Solving problems related to copyrights • Promoting live entertainment

(Continue in next page)

Main Goal: (2) Implementing the Japan brand strategy based on the Japanese lifestyle	
Sub-goals	Details
Accomplishing the roadmap for reforms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applying appropriately the Law on Promotion of the Creation, Protection, and Exploitation of Content
Fostering a rich food culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spreading Japanese food culture and foodstuff around the globe • Developing diverse human resources in the culinary world (e.g. Established food-related faculties and schools at universities) • Promoting 'Shokuiku' ; 'Promotion of learning on the healthy diet from an early stage, in particular on the choice of foods, so as to secure the healthy living over the course of one's life.
Establishing diverse and reliable local brands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating and spreading attractive local brands • Developing and publicizing standards for local brands
Establishing Japanese fashion as a global brand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making information available worldwide (Fashion Week, Japanese street fashion) • Increasing the international competitiveness of the Japanese Fashion Industry • Discovering and developing fashion-related human resources
Strategically publicizing the attractiveness of Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making information available in collaboration with Cultural Diplomacy and the Tourism Industry • Promoting a new Japan Brand, 'Neo-Japanesque'

(Source: Akutsu. (2008). Japan Brand-Related Goals and Achievements by FY2006.)

2.12 Japan brand strategy: The taming of 'Cool Japan' and the challenges of cultural planning in a postmodern age

Michal DALIOT-BUL is a cultural researcher in the Department of Asian Studies at the University of Haifa, Israel. She is an expert on cultural meaning of play in Japan, and also, the sociology of consumption youth popular cultures.

This article focused on the Intellectual Property Strategy Program (2004-2008), which was responsible for implementing Japan's content creation and distribution strategy (Daliot-Bul 2009). The review took a different approach than Akutsu (2008), focusing mainly on the politicization of popular culture through cultural diplomacy and the use of popular culture as a tool of soft power to enhance Japan's global reputation rather than on the success of the program itself (Daliot-Bul 2009). The article began with a review of the role of the Japanese branding process. As it explained, in 2002 the Japanese government introduced a national policy that centralized intangible intellectual property such as popular media content (anime, manga, and games) as a tool to demonstrate creativity and innovation in Japanese culture. This branding strategy leveraged the existing perceptions of 'cool Japan', which had long been a focus of Western and regional Asian aficionados of the unique Japanese artistic styles of anime and manga and the growing profile of Japanese youth culture. Daliot-Bul (2009) argued that the government strategy served to 'tame' this perception of Japan and through politicizing its content, commercialize it. Thus, while the Intellectual Property Strategic Program did manage to leverage this existing

image of Japan for nation branding purposes, it also resulted in a loss of some of the value and dynamic nature of the underlying reality (Daliot-Bul 2009).

Daliot-Bul (2009) also traced the evolution of the policies implemented by the Intellectual Property Strategic Program over time. In the opening year of the strategy (2004), the main strategic goal was to increase the value of Japanese brands internationally, and secondarily to develop Japanese soft power. Media content was selected as a tool to achieve these goals, since it was identified as an aspect of Japanese culture that many stakeholder groups were already familiar with. By 2005, this focused strategy had developed to a more comprehensive and integrated perception of Japan as a ‘content-based culture’, with unique artistic forms like anime and manga, and had reoriented toward promoting Japanese products and services based on these cultural traditions. The strategy also was more concerned with promoting the history and traditional culture of Japan, moving away from the original ‘cool Japan’ focus on youth culture and modern art forms. In 2006, the focus of the program changed again, this time with the goal of establishing Japan as a ‘world-class content superpower’. A much more organized approach was established, with an active public relations campaign including global exhibitions and conferences, local competitions and prizes, and support for students, artists and designers, and international artists and others to participate in development of contemporary culture. In 2007, the strategic program finally established a long-term plan, with the Japanese Cultural Industry Strategy aiming to develop Japan’s cultural industries out

to 2025. In this year, the strategic focus also shifted again, this time encompassing scientific and technological innovation along with artistic innovation in the promotion of 'cool Japan'. By 2008, the current focus on food, fashion, and Japanese brands had emerged, with coordinated marketing activities and knowledge transfer being used to support new brand development (Daliot-Bul 2009).

In general, Daliot-Bul (2009) stated that the 'Cool Japan' program was an interesting program, challenging existing norms and promoting Japan as a source of innovation, creativity and imagination rather than the staid and rules-bound country it is often promoted as. Another key success was the collaboration between government and private industry to develop and promote content and brands outside Japan. However, she noted that the Japan Brand Strategy was not a comprehensive nation branding strategy; instead, it was focused on only a select aspect of Japanese culture and only incorporated a small proportion of Japan's national identity. This meant that there were still opportunities to improve the program by developing a more comprehensive and consistent approach to nation branding that incorporated a truer image of Japan's culture and national identity.

2.13 Chapter summary

In this chapter, related theories of nation branding were reviewed in order to understand the definition and fundamentals of the branding process and its application with nations. Understanding of its concept and framework creates the

ability to comprehend applications of South Korean and Japanese nation branding and their implementation. Empirical studies of South Korean and Japanese nation branding were also reviewed in depth, to provide a descriptive background of the nation branding processes and outcomes for these countries. These materials are recommended as sources for more in-depth studies of nation branding. In the next chapter, analysis of nation branding in Japan and South Korea is begun.



CHAPTER III

IMPLEMENTATION AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF SOUTH KOREA AND JAPAN'S NATION BRANDING

3.1 Implementation of Nation Branding in Japan

3.1.1 History of nation branding in Japan

Japan has historically prioritized national image development. The earliest program was the International Cultural Council (国際文化振興会 or Kokusai bunka shinkokai), which functioned between the 1930s and the 1970s (pre and post-World War II, or the early to mid Showa period) under Japanese government guidance. During this period, when Japan was seeking expansion in the Asia Pacific, Kokusai bunka shinkokai was tasked with introducing Japanese culture and society and persuading international audiences to perceive Japan as a model nation. In the post-WWII Occupation era of Japan, the council was still active until 1972. At that time, the Japan Foundation (国際交流基金) took its place (Japan Foundation 2016). Because of global public reaction to WWII and Japan's role in it, Japan needed to clarify its reputation as a non-violent nation. Though the Japanese government continually emphasized cultural diplomacy, actively developing cultural exchange projects with a powerful organization, these efforts were not fully controlled by the government. In fact, the private sector had an active role in these cultural exchange programs.

The Japan Foundation remains the pre-eminent Japanese institution for cultural exchange, with a comprehensive series of global international exchange

partnerships (Japan Foundation 2016). The Japan Foundation operates under supervision from Japan's Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Its major focuses include Japanese studies and intellectual exchange through global university systems, arts and cultural exchange programs, and international Japanese language education. Japan Foundation offices, which are located in major global cities, provides program and event support for cultural exchange. The Japan Foundation offices seek to create opportunities for cultural exchange and provide funding for events and programs such as language classes, cultural events and others. Some examples of types of activities and events the Japan Foundation is engaged in globally include: arranging and providing funding and grants for performances and exhibitions for Japanese artists and for international artists in Japan, to facilitate cultural exchange; arranging for demonstrations and classes in aspects of traditional and modern Japanese culture, such as tea ceremonies and ikebana (the Japanese art of flower arranging), manga drawing, and others; encouraging academic exchange by supporting researchers, academics, and cultural figures; supporting academic activities and programs like university exchange programs, academic research and teaching in areas including Japanese language, literature, and culture; and a wide range of Japanese language training activities, including teacher training, development of language teaching materials and reference materials, and administration of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JPLT). More broadly, the Japan Foundation helps to develop networks of people such as scholars and researchers and provides

individuals and groups with support for research and development (Japan Foundation 2016). Thus, the Japan Foundation can be said to have a comprehensive role in cultural interchange between Japan and international audiences, although its activities are mainly focused in three areas (academics, the arts, and language teaching).

The Japan Foundation is active today, and is viewed as remarkably successful. The Foundation has 24 international offices to help maintain its international work (Japan Foundation 2016). The foundation itself promotes the level of success it has achieved in promoting international cooperation. However, the various attempts for national image improvement in Japan, which are explained above, were not developed using theoretical nation branding models by modern scholars like Anholt and Dinnie. By applying the nation branding theory for developing and evaluating nation branding, the Japanese government expected to improve its nation branding performance following economic crisis (Akutsu 2008).

From late 1991 to the early 2000s, Japan suffered a ‘lost decade’ of economic stagnation following an asset price bubble collapse that had significant negative effects on the Japanese economy and on Japanese consumer incomes and other characteristics (Hayashi and Prescott 2002). Analysts have argued that this lost decade was caused by faulty economic fundamentals such as weak corporate governance. In 2002, Japan undertook a major corporate governance reform that addressed some of the weaknesses thought to have caused the asset bubble (Aoki

2006). At the same time, Japan was also revising its international competitiveness strategy, moving toward becoming an intellectual property-based nation (Arai 2005). In 2002, Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi established the Strategic Council of Intellectual Property, which was tasked with coordinating stakeholders including the Prime Minister and Cabinet representatives, other ministers and civil servants, and private experts. In the introductory speech, Prime Minister Koizumi stated, “in order to enhance the international competitiveness of its industries, Japan needs to strategically protect and utilize the intellectual properties that are derived from its research and creative activities (Arai, 2005, p. 5).” Following the establishment of this Council, the Basic Law on Intellectual Property was recommended to address legal concerns relating to intellectual property; this law was passed in 2003. It established the Intellectual Property Strategic Headquarters. The Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters adopted its first strategic program in 2003, which aimed to facilitate creation, protection, and utilization of intellectual property (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006).

The program contained 270 measures initially, with new measures included every year. By the 2005 strategic plan had also established the Task Force on Contents (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006). These measures ranged across the spectrum of intellectual content, from scientific and technological innovation to cultural products like art, design, and entertainment. Intangible intellectual property, including design,

media content, brands, and intangible software, were particularly prevalent in the set of measures.

To address these measures, the Policy Headquarters established the contents expert research committee (コンテンツ専門調査会). Then, the Policy Headquarters entrusted it to organize working groups. The first of these groups, which was called ‘Japan brands working group’ (日本ブランド・ワーキンググループ), focused on developing attractive Japanese brands related to food, fashion and region branding. Two other working groups were the ‘Digital contents working group’ (デジタルコンテンツ・ワーキンググループ), which was tasked with positioning Japan to become a world contents superpower, and the ‘Planning working group (企画ワーキンググループ)’, which focused on modernizing industries and expanding creative markets (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006). While two other working groups had been established by 2007(I. P. S. Headquarters 2006, I. P. S. Headquarters 2007), this thesis does not review these working groups because of lack of substantive data about their operations.

The Contents Expert Research Committee, after its establishment in 2003, was initially concerned mainly with media content like games and animation, music, and movies. In later years, the committee turned its attention to other areas of intangible intellectual property an content, such as food, fashion, and local brands. An auxiliary group, the Japan Brand Working Group, which was established in 2004, also focused on these three areas, and also conducted policy analysis about how to

improve the overall attractiveness of Japan's national brand. This was the first active step in nation branding under modern theories, although it built on the extensive reputation building activities that had come before (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006, I. P. S. Headquarters 2007).

From the operation of the International Cultural Council (国際文化振興会) from the 1930s to the 1970s to the Japan Foundation (国際交流基金) from 1972 to the present, Japan experienced both failures and remarkable achievements. However, those attempts did not directly apply modern theories of national brand building. This thesis' focus is on Japanese organizations that applied theoretical nation branding and were mentioned in the Presidential Council on Nation Branding of South Korea evaluation reports, since these are the organizations that South Korea referenced in its own efforts.

3.1.2 Japan Brands Working Group

In order to achieve the goal of a respected and loved Japan in a globalized world, the Japanese government recognized that it needed to improve and maximize cultural capabilities whilst utilizing the economic power which is Japan's major global competitive advantage. To do so, it was recognized as important to establish and strengthen Japan branding. In order to do so, Prime Minister of Japan and his Cabinet (首相官邸) entrusted the contents expert research committee (コンテンツ専門調査会) for a new project called Japan Brand Working Group (日本ブランド・ワーキンググループ) or JBWG in short (JBWG 2005, I. P. S.

Headquarters 2006). This working group was established on November 24, 2004 as a research and policy making team for Japan's nation branding. On February 25, 2005, it completed its objective via a summary report called 'Japan Brand's promoting strategies - Distributing attractive Japan to the world' (日本ブランド戦略の推進—魅力ある日本を世界に発信—) (JBWG 2005). This summary report's findings are as follows (JBWG 2005).

Among the cultural capabilities of Japan, there are plenty of Japanese lifestyle features that are well known internationally. For example, entertainment content such as movies, music, games, and animation represent a highly positive view of Japanese pop culture. Japanese foods are well known to those concerned with healthy eating. Delicious Japanese fruits and vegetables are popular for gifts. Traditional crafts are also well known for having high quality and craftsmanship, while modern industrial products are known for their high technology. Therefore, a process of nation branding that takes advantage of Japan's attractive lifestyle and consumer goods is also important in terms of national strategies. Lifestyle contents are easy to approach and the Japanese private sector has taken over a global leadership role in this business. This focal area should continue to develop using the power of the private sector in the future. It is important for the government to eliminate barriers that impede free competition in the private sector and to develop and support the environment necessary for further development. As mentioned, collaboration of

government and private sector would play a crucial role; thus, members of JBWG were selected from both sectors.

The 2005 report also identified three key issues in Japanese branding that had to be dealt with (JBWG 2005). These issues can be summarized as follows:

1. Modern Japanese lifestyles and culture appear to abandon the traditional culture of Japan. However, with regard to such lifestyles and the culture behind it, it is hard to say that the people are aware of the traditional Japanese culture and style, and it is rapidly losing ground domestically and internationally. For this reason, it is required that the people themselves re-evaluate and strive for promotion about the Japanese lifestyle and the culture behind it.

2. Cultural business such as food, regional brands and fashion in Japan has been considered mainly from the domestic market. Though there is the potential of overseas expansion, so far, attention in foreign markets has been insignificant. In order to improve that, active overseas development and improvement of the environment for these industry sectors are required.

3. Overseas development of cultural businesses is conducted on a one-off basis, and a Japan brand, which reflected the whole of Japan, is not formed through these transactional development activities. Therefore, in order to build the Japanese brand, development of foods, regional brands and fashion promotion activities must cooperate with each other. In addition, these activities should be coordinate with tourism, content, and media industries. These communications should be

disseminated strategically in overseas development to provide the Japan brand with required establishment and strengthening.

Table 8: List of Japan brands working group members

List of Japan Brands Working Group Members	
Name	Information
Koichiro Akusawa	Managing Director of Traditional Craft Industry Promotion Association
Satoshi Akutsu	Associate Professor from Hitotsubashi University, Graduate School of International Corporate Strategy
Aso Fukuoka	Prefectural governor
Haruhi Ushio	President of Ushio Denki Co., Ltd. (Chairman)
Nobuyuki Ota	President of Issey Miyake Co., Ltd.
Yuki Koyama	Owner of Japanese Restaurant "Aoyagi" / Vocational Principal of Heisei Cookery College
Yoshiki Tsuji	President and Principal of Tsuji Culinary Academy Tsuji Cookery College
Kazumi Dohi	Professor from Hitotsubashi University, Graduate School of International Corporate Strategy
Yasuki Hamano	Professor from The University of Tokyo, Graduate School of Frontier Sciences
Yumiko Hara	Fashion Director
Mikuni Seiso	CEO of Hôtel du Mikuni
Akira Minagawa	Mina Perhonen designer
Toshio Yamada	Managing director of the National Association of Agricultural Cooperatives
Observer	
Name	Information
Nobuhiro Nakayama	Professor from The University of Tokyo, Graduate School of Law (Intellectual Property Strategy Headquarters)

(Source: Contents Expert Research Committee. (2005) Japan Brand Working Group's report)

The Japan Brands Working Group, the Contents Expert Research Committee, and 'the Policy Headquarters of Japan were considered as a whole package, and set goals and adopted measures together (Akutsu 2008). However, these groups did not work alone. Because the JBWG members did not have official power, strategic implementation was actually carried out by private sector organizations and

government agencies, rather than the working group itself. The activities of the JBWG and subsidiary groups had a significant effect on the policy planning and direction of Japanese government agencies and private organizations.

A great deal of progress had been made on implementing the Japan Brand strategy and its related activities by 2005. Key achievements critical to the Japan branding initiatives were inspired by the basic philosophy of Japan branding. These achievements include (JBWG 2005):

1. Free Competition: The entity responsible for the Japanese brand is the private sector. By allowing free competition under fair conditions, Japan encourages revitalization and builds a vibrant Japanese brand.

2. Exercise of Japanese ability and personality: The capital of Japanese brands are human resources. Establish an environment that brings out the capabilities and individuality of the Japanese personality and builds diverse and prosperous Japanese brands.

3. Tradition and creation: A long history and tradition is the property of Japanese brands. At the same time as trying to inherit these traditions, we will also boldly challenge new creation, building a creative and sophisticated Japanese brand.

4. Consumer Perspective: The value of the brand is formed by consumers and its varieties within the consciousness of consumers; we will engage with consumers in order to build a Japanese brand that is valuable in consumer's perspective.

The Contents Expert Research Committee (2005) was tasked with leadership in the branding discussion and general guidance for the nation branding process (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006). The goal of establishing Japan as a global content superpower and the promotion and development of the content business was one of the main recommendations of the committee (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006). The committee also established procedures for meeting the task force's key objectives of JBWG (JBWG 2005). These objectives included:

1. To foster a high-quality food culture;
2. To establish diversified and reliable regional brands; and
3. To create attractive fashion.

Based on these three objectives and product areas, there were twelve recommended activities identified by the committee (JBWG 2005). These recommended activities included:

1. To evaluate and develop quality Japanese food culture, mainly by the private sector
2. To promote food education, safety, security and transparency in order to increase the brand value of Japanese food;
3. To coordinate activities of chef training institutions, the cooking industry, university and others with diversified human resources who are responsible for food;
4. To correct inaccurate knowledge about Japanese food and widely and actively spread Japanese food technology overseas;

5. To strategically tackle regional brand creation through collaboration among producers, tourism agencies, universities and other stakeholder groups;
6. To establish and release standards related to agricultural, forestry and fishery products, in order to improve consumers' trusts in regional brands;
7. To unite local government with production stakeholders and disseminate information effectively;
8. To maintain a protection system for regional brands;
9. To collaborate and provide business opportunities to local designers and develop materials in order to create attractive fashion;
10. To discover talented designers through collaboration of universities and design industries;
11. To focus on domestic and foreign views of Japanese fashion through public relations and business support of overseas diplomatic missions and JETRO; and
12. To revise the Unfair Competition Prevention Law and to strengthen anti-counterfeiting and piracy law.

According to its final evaluation in the Japan Brand Working Group working plan (JBWG 2005), for strategic dissemination about Japan's appeal, the private sectors must compete effectively. This was something that should be worked on assertively, with people utilizing government public relations in addition to encouraging private sectors attendance in government official events. It was

necessary to take the initiative actively. For promoting the appeal of Japan, the government should continuously communicate about Japan to create emotional connections. The strategy succeeded in the development of Japanese culture and introduction to international markets by actively awarding people who had accomplished Japan's cultural appeals and actively supporting those who communicated these ideals to an international audience. Also, the government actively provided support for establishing and strengthening Japanese brands. In the case of individual and private overseas expansion, it contributed to the dissemination of Japanese brands through creative entertainment media. This also highlights the national interests, overseas diplomatic missions and other tools of public diplomacy and political concerns. JBWG thought that they should support the private sector to achieve more national interests through those media, rather than focusing on government public diplomacy.

In summary, to communicate the appeal of Japan, first, planners should be aware about what is attractive about Japan. For this reason, more research about the attractiveness of Japan was necessary to act and disseminate information positively. The image of Japan for international audiences changed over time. Therefore, in order to improve Japan's national brand, planners should be aware of perceptions and current images of Japan and how these have changed, which will allow for improved understanding of how changes could be made. Therefore, the Japan Brand

Working Group concluded that collecting data on Japan's current international image was necessary to develop an effective nation branding strategy.

3.1.3 The committee of Japanesque Modern

In an environment where other Asian countries were rapidly catching up to Japan competitively, it became necessary to establish a committee to address the conditions of market competition accompanying globalization. As globalization progressed, Japan's unique DNA was viewed as increasingly important (RIETI 2006). It could be said that people's interest returns to Japan because of its global environment.

In the background of the establishment of this committee, there was an underlying principle of "from price to quality" (Akutsu 2008). In the past, price competition intensified, with increasingly high value-added products available for sale in 100 yen shops and other discount outlets. Products of Japanese companies are highly rated in terms of quality, but the technology of industrial production in Japan was now flowing out overseas. As a result of restructuring at large Japanese companies, there were cases where excellent engineers moved to companies in South Korea and China. In addition, as Japanese companies introduced US evaluation principles, high-performing workers frequently went abroad in search of higher salaries (RIETI, 2006). Thus, it was expected that South Korea and China would catch up to and potentially surpass Japan's reputation for quality. Thus, Japanese companies needed to sustain their quality reputations. According to the Japanesque

Modern Committee, Japan was aiming to include "goods" in their "goodness" in order to disseminate this to the world(RIETI 2006).

To repurpose Japan's unique cultural qualities and its strong international competitiveness, the Japanesque Modern Committee established several key philosophies(RIETI 2006):

"Takumi no Kokoro" (たくみのこころ) - Honoring the material as natural life, always treating the wisdom and techniques inherited, and always creating new skills and culture;

"Motenashi no Kokoro" (もてなしのこころ) - Respecting different ideas and new things, establishing self, respecting diversity and harmony; and

"Furomai no Kokoro" (ふるまいのこころ) - Honoring one's responsibility of awareness to the whole, seeking a quiet and elegant way of life.

According to the Japanesque Modern Committee (2006), a three-year action plan was presented that incorporated the following six campaigns:

(1) Network making campaign: This campaign established a committee for the promotion organization and created a promotional website. The committee also promoted human resource discovery and database maintenance, providing opportunities for exchange and cooperate closely with Kyoto and local governments in Kanazawa, and related activities;

(2) Specific product, content creation campaign: This campaign undertook the urgent task to create the Japanesque Modern products. The committee supported small and medium enterprises for product content and planned to subsidize small and medium sized enterprises that produced video works and contents utilizing advanced technology.

(3) Brand evaluation campaign: The committee created an evaluation system for brand management by selecting 100 products of the "new style Japan brand" and created a business logo mark (J mark), in order to protect intellectual property rights.

(4) Feel Japan Campaign: This campaign organized festivals and built virtual archives, and enhanced PR activities and media development. The committee planned to conduct image surveys on Japanese design and expression style for overseas Japanese intellectuals. The committee applied the findings to education and research.

(5) Brand Leader Development Campaign: In this campaign, the committee selected 20 "New Brand Leaders" which connected tradition and the cutting edge of design. It also held competitions by students and promoted the opening of lectures at universities and graduate schools.

(6) Overseas promotion campaign: The campaign was planned to promote the use of products and contents at overseas events, by overseas diplomatic missions, in collaboration with the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO) and the International Tourism Promotion Organization (JNTO).

3.1.4 Time line of Japan's nation branding achievements

(Akutsu. (2008). Element of nation branding strategies. A case study of Japan)

(Contents Expert Committee. (2005). "Promotion of Japan's nation branding strategy"

JAPAN BRAND WORKING GROUP's report)

Year 2002

Feb	Policy speech by Prime Minister Koizumi Strategic council on 'Intellectual Property' initiated
Jul	Fifth meeting of strategic council on 'Intellectual Property Intellectual Property Policy' adopted outline
Dec	Formulation of 'Global Tourism Strategy' by the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport.

Year 2003

Mar	Basic Law on Intellectual Property put into force Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters initiated Secretariat of Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters established its cabinet's secretariat
Jul	Fifth meeting of Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters Strategic Program The Creation, Protection and Effective Utilization of Intellectual Property adopted outline

The Task Force on ‘Contents Expert Research Committee’ was established

Year 2004

- Apr Report of the task force on ‘Contents Expert Research Committee’ Development Policy
- May Eighth meeting of Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters Intellectual Property Strategic Program 2004 was adopted
- Jun The Act on Creation, Protection, and Exploitation of Content was put into force
- Sep The Act on Creation, Protection, and Exploitation of Content was put into force (partially)
- Nov First meeting of the Task Force on Contents ‘Japan Brand Working Group’
- Dec The Visual Industry Promotion Organization was established as an organization for the development of content related human resources

Year 2005

- Jan The Copyright Law was revised
- Feb Final report of the ‘Japan Brands Working Group’ compiled Promotion of Japan Brand Strategy

- Apr The National Conference for the Export of Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Products was initiated by Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery
- The Film Production Course at the Tokyo National University of Fine Arts and Music was established in collaboration with the government of Yokohama City
- May An advisory panel to the Brand Promotion Council for a New Japanese Style called 'Japanesque Modern' initiated at the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry
- Jun Eleventh meeting of Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters
Intellectual Property Strategic Program 2005 was adopted
- Jul The Council on the Promotion of Food Culture Study issued a report on the 'Promotion of the Japanese Food Culture'
- The Council on the Promotion of Cultural Diplomacy issued report 'On the Creation of Japan as a Peaceful Nation of Cultural Exchange'
- Oct The Japanese fashion Week in Tokyo was held
- Nov First meeting of the 'Digital Content Working Group'
- Dec Prime Minister Koizumi called for the first meeting of the Council on the Promotion of Cultural Diplomacy

Year 2006

Jan	The Japanesque Modern Committee was established The Neo-Japanesque Conference was initiated
Feb	Report of the Task Force on Contents ‘Digital Contents Working Group’ compiled Strategy for the Development of Digital Contents
Mar	The second Japanese fashion Week in Tokyo was held
Apr	The Trademark Law was revised, with the aim of protecting local brands more appropriately
Jun	Fourteenth meeting of Intellectual Property Policy Headquarters Intellectual Property Strategic Program 2006 was adopted
Sep	First meeting of the Task Force on Contents’ Planning Working Group First Policy speech by Prime Minister Abe
Oct	Japanesque Modern Committee selected items for the inaugural Japanesque Modern Collection.

3.1.5 Summary of Japan’s nation building success

Japan has been conducting various nation branding efforts for a long time, before other developing countries became interested in the nation branding process. While the Japanesque Modern Committee was disbanded in 2009, Japan’s nation branding attempt has not halted. There are always new nation branding campaigns in Japan engaged in maintaining and promoting the attractiveness of Japan in different ways. Unlike South Korea, Japan does not have a customized measure of nation

brand equity or nation brand performance, and standardized measures of nation brand performance such as the Anholt GfK index, only date to approximately 2007, meaning that the earlier period success cannot be evaluated. However, by 2008, the Anholt GfK Index rated Japan as 5th, noting it was the only Asian country in the top 20 nation brands (Roper 2008). The country held this position consistently until 2012, when it dropped to 6th place (Roper 2012). However, this was during a period when many countries fell in evaluation due to sustained economic distress. Thus, during the period of implementation of the JBWG and Japanesque Modern Committee groups, Japan maintained its general position in terms of nation brand image. However, more complete evaluation is not feasible due to the gap between practice and theory, which has been identified as a problem (Dinnie, 2008)

3.2 Implementation of Nation Branding in South Korea

3.2.1 History of nation branding in South Korea

The history of nation branding in South Korea stems from the Japanese occupation period (1910 to 1945). During this period, Japanese rule negatively affected Korean culture, as the Korean language was banned and historical documents were destroyed, property was seized from Korean farmers and redistributed to Japanese owners, and the Japanese military requisitioned other property including homes and businesses (Kim 2012). This period led to a

degradation of Korean culture, which caused a high level of conflict and uncertainty (Kim 2012).

After the defeat of Japan in 1945, Korea recovered its independence. Still, South Korea did not experience an end to conflict; in the aftermath of World War II, Korea struggled with its own internal conflicts caused by an unstable political situation, which eventually caused the split between North and South Korea and the Korean War (Kim 2012). During this period, South Korea's national image was not emphasized much because of more urgent issues. Once the internal political situation was stable, South Korea recognized issues and advantages of its nation image's development and its government attempted different ways to improve the country's global image. In 1991, two main organizations were established for South Korea's cultural diplomacy and international relations. These organizations were called "the Korea Foundation" (한국국제교류재단) ("KLRI" 2009) and "Korea International Cooperation Agency" or KOICA (한국국제협력단) (KOICA 2008).

The Korea Foundation was established in 1991 under the Korea Foundation Act (No. 4414) (Korea Foundation 2002-2013). The purpose of the Korea Foundation was to facilitate academic and cultural exchange and undertake image improvement activities. Although associated with the Korean Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Korea Foundation operates as an independent non-profit organization. Its mission, as established in the Korea Foundation Act, "is to promote better understanding of

Korea within the international community and to increase friendship and goodwill between Korea and the rest of the world through various exchange programs (Korea Foundation 2002-2013).” Some of the Foundations’ key activities include promotion of international exchange through approaches including organization of events and supporting the work of international exchange experts; supporting international academic research on Korea and “promoting knowledge and understanding of Korea within the international community”; coordinating with other international exchange organizations and international Korean organizations; and other activities and programs as required under the Korea Foundation Act (Korea Foundation 2002-2013). The Korea Foundation is still in operation, and is currently led by its president Lee Sihyung (Korea Foundation 2002-2013).

The Korea International Cooperation Agency, aka KOICA, was also established in 1991, but there are some differences between KOICA and the Korea Foundation. KOICA was established as a governmental organization operating under the South Korean Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (KOICA 2008). The reason for establishing KOICA was to act as a development assistance organization, helping to administer grants and technical assistance to developing nations. The establishment of KOICA was a step forward in Korean development policy, moving beyond meeting basic human needs such as food and sanitation to promoting sustainable development through partnerships with governments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the recipient countries (KOICA 2008). Concerns including gender equality, poverty

reduction, and environmental protection were significant factors in KOICA's establishment (KOICA 2008). KOICA (2008) reports a number of key problems, which include:

1. Project Aid Program: tasked with construction project support for key facilities including schools, hospitals, training centers, and other facilities required by recipient countries;
2. Training Program: Engaging with human resource development (HRD) needs and transferring knowledge to reduce knowledge gaps and promote development;
3. World Friends Korea: Supporting overseas development volunteers, this program was modelled on the United States' Peace Corps development program;
4. Civil Society Cooperation: Supporting civil society organizations and NGOs engaged in poverty reduction and welfare activities in developing countries;
5. Multilateral Cooperation Program: engaging with international actors to "set the rules for international conduct" and promotion of values including democracy, justice, and human development;
6. Creative Value Creation Program: supporting technology, scientific and creative innovation and development;
7. Social Investment Partnership Program: Supporting economic and social development and funding business model innovation and development of domestic industry; and

8. Foreign Partnership Program: Promoting private sector cooperation and regional development partnerships in recipient countries.

These two organizations were established for the purpose of promoting South Korea's international relationship development. Their activities have led to an improvement of South Korea's global image, but these organizations were not directly founded for nation branding, which is the focus of this thesis. Still, these organizations are some of the first attempts of South Korea to improve their national image. Consequently, South Korea government reviewed other countries which were successful at improving their national image, such as Germany, New Zealand, Denmark, Italy, United Kingdom, and Japan, using theoretical Nation Branding. Thus, the Presidential Council on Nation Branding (국가브랜드위원회) were established in 2009 (PCNB 2009). The PCNB, which is the first South Korean organization devoted to nation building specifically, is the main focus of this discussion

3.2.2 The Presidential Council on Nation Branding

The Presidential Council on Nation Branding (PCNB) was established in 2009 by President Lee Myung-Bak, with the objective of “upgrading Korea's relatively undervalued nation brand and improve its management effectiveness” (PCNB and Deloitte 2011) states that its function is as follows:

“Korea must raise its global status by making efforts to gain credibility and likeability in the international arena. The Presidential Council on Nation Branding is

an organization that responds to these needs, managing people, products, and the overall image of South Korea by continuing to establish mid-term and long-term goals and strategies.” (PCNB, 2011).

According to the Presidential Council on Nation Branding’s meeting report, evaluations of its tasks in five main focal points are as follow (PCNB, 2011);

- (1) Expansion of contribution to international society
- (2) Globalization of cultural assets
- (3) Global citizen consciousness and inclusion of multiculturalism
- (4) Globalization of advanced technology and advanced science
- (5) Strengthening global communication

The PCNB was mainly intended as a control tower or central task force to coordinate nation branding efforts between different public and private sector groups and develop public-private partnerships and increase public knowledge and interest in the processes of nation branding (PCNB, 2011). The long-term strategic goal was to establish South Korea’s nation brand and raise it to the OECD average, and to place Korea in the top fifteen global nation brands by 2013 (PCNB, 2011). It used several key strategies to accomplish this task, including: coordination of cooperation between different parties to build capacity; developing a nation brand hierarchy and master plan and an accompanying brand index to evaluate brand effectiveness; developing sectorial policies to address different needs; and developing a coordinated response to nation building demands. These strategies were intended to

leverage existing resources, including both public and private resources, to accomplish the nation branding goal (PCNB, 2011).

The structure of the council and its members also a crucial issue, as it allows us understand more about the reviewing system and its operation. The Council was led by two different chairmen. The first was Samuel Koo (2009-2010) (PCNB 2009) and the second was Lee Bae-yong (2010-2013) (PCNB and Deloitte 2011). The council includes 47 official members (34 appointed, 13 ex officio) a 19-member working group for special tasks, and a 34-member international advisory forum. The council is also assisted by the Secretariat, which undertakes administrative support and coordinates private activities. The Head of the Secretariat's role was to plan council strategies and activities. Five teams of members address individual focal areas of international cooperation, the global community corporate and information technology, culture and tourism, and general coordination (PCNB 2009, PCNB and Deloitte 2011). The members of the PCNB and their professional roles are highlighted in Table 9. As this table shows, they were selected from a wide variety of public and private organizations and academic institutions, which served to bring a range of expertise and knowledge to the PCNB and help accomplish the goal of public-private partnership.

Members of the South Korea's Presidential Council on Nation Branding include as follow (PCNB 2009, PCNB 2011);

Table 9: List of Presidential Council on Nation Branding members 1st announcement

Chairperson	
Name	Information
Ms. Lee Bae-yong	Presidential Council on Nation Branding
List of Ex-Officio Members	
Mr. Ahn Byong-man	Minister of Education, Science and Technology
Mr. Cho Hwan-eik	President & CEO of Korea Trade-Investment Promotion Agency
Mr. Choi See-joong	Chairman of Korea Communications Commission
Mr. Chung Jong-hwan	Minister of Land, Transport, and Maritime Affairs
Mr. Kim Kyung-han	Minister of Justice
Mr. Kwon Tae-shin	Minister of the Prime Minister's Office
Mr. Lee Dal-kon	Minister of Public Administration and Security
Mr. Lee Youn-ho	Minister of Knowledge Economy
Mr. Lee Cham	President of the Korea Tourism Organization
Mr. Oh Se-hoon	Mayor of Seoul
Mr. Park Hyung-jun	Senior Officer to the President for Public Relations
Mr. Park Dae-won	President of Korea International Cooperation Agency
Mr. Park Jae-wan	Senior Secretary to the President for State Affairs Planning
Mr. Yoon Jeung-hyun	Minister of Strategy and Finance
Mr. Yu Myung-hwan	Minister of Foreign Affairs and Trade
Mr. Yu In-chon	Minister of Culture, Sports and Tourism

(Continue in next page)

List of Appointed Members	
Name	Information
Mr. Cha Yoon ho	Professor of Joongbu University
Mr. Cheong Young-rok	Professor of Seoul National University
Mr. Cho Byung-lyang	Professor of Hanyang University
Mr. Cho Kuy-ha	President & CEO of CSK Investment Korea
Ms. Choi Jung-hwa	Professor of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies
Mr. Chung Tae-young	President & CEO of Hyundai Capital & Card
Mr. Han Choong-min	Professor of Hanyang University
Mr. Jo Jung-yul	Professor of Sookmyung Women's University
Mr. Kim Mun-cho	Professor of Korea University
Mr. Kim Won-yong	Professor of Ewha Womans University
Mr. Kim You-kyung	Professor of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies
Mr. Kim Jeong-tak	Professor of Sungkyunkwan University
Mr. Kim Hyung-suk	Professor of Woosong University
Mr. Kim Hyung-joon	Professor of Myongji University
Mr. Samuel Koo	President & CEO of Seoul Tourism Marketing
Mr. Lee Soon-dong	President of Samsung Volunteers Corps
Mr. Lee Doo-hee	Professor of Korea University
Mr. Lee Jong-hee	President & CEO of Korean Air
Mr. Myung Seung-soo	Professor of Catholic University of Daegu
Mr. Namgoong Yon	President of Studio FAT
Mr. No Kyu-hyung	President of Research & Research
Mr. Oh Mahn-seug	Professor of the Academy of Korean Studies
Mr. Oh Nam-soo	President of Kumho Asiana Group
Ms. Park Jae-ok	Professor of Hanyang University
Ms. Park Soon-ae	Professor of Seoul National University
Mr. Park Young=ho	President & CEO of SK Holdings
Mr. Ryu Tae-geon	Professor of Bukyung University
Amb. Suh Dae-won	Counselor of Hyundai Rotem
Mr. Suh Koo-won	Professor of Hanyang Cyber University
Mr. Yoon Eun-key	President of Seoul School of Integrated Sciences and Technologies

(Continue in next page)

List of International Advisory Forum Members	
Name	Information
Mr. Ahmed A. Al-Subaey	Representative Director and CEO, [S-OIL]S-OIL Corporation]
Mr. James Bemowski	Vice Chairman and CEO, Doosan Corporation
Mr. Simon Bureau	President and CEO, The Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Korea
Mr. Chun Taeksoo	Secretary General, Korean National Commission for UNESCO
Mr. Kuk-Lok Chung	Vice President and CEO, Arirang TV
Mr. Tom Coyner	Consultant, Soft Landing Consulting
Mr. Roland Davies	Director, the British Council Korea
Mr. Robert Dencher	Country Chairman, Shell Pacific Enterprise
Mr. Ray Frawley	President, McDonald's Korea
Mr. Wei Han	Korea CEO, Bank of China
Mr. Michael Hellback	Managing Director, Deutsche Bank Seoul Brand
Mr. Michael W. Hurt	Digital Media Producer, Turtle Boat Media
Mr. Lucio Izzo	Director, Italian Cultural Institute in Seoul
Ms. Amy Jackson	President, American Chamber of Commerce in Korea
Ms. Laure Coudret Laut	Cultural Counselor of French Embassy, Director of the French Cultural Center
Mr. Joon Ho Lee	President, Traffic Broadcasting System
Mr. Kwon Lee	Attorney, Kim & Chang
Mr. Frank R. Little	President, 3M Korea
Mr. N'Kumu Frey Lungula	Saemaul Undong project Consultant
Ms. Linda Myers	Head of Global Talent Management Office, Vice President of SK Holdings
Ms. Suzanna Samstag Oh	Vice President, Friends of Korea
Ms. Dong Eun Park	Executive Director, Korean Committee for UNICEF
Mr. John Early Petersen	Distinguished Visiting Professor, Yonsei University
Mr. Philip Raskin	President, Burson-Marsteller Korea
Mr. Werner Sasse	Professor, Hanyang University
Mr. Koji Shibata	President and CEO, Marubeni Korea Corporation
Ms. Taeko Takahashi	Minister of Public Information and Cultural Center
Mr. Alan Timblich	Head of the Seoul Global Center

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List of International Advisory Forum Members	
Name	Information
Mr. Peter Walshaw	President and General Manager, Grand Hyatt Seoul
Mr. Raimund Wördmann	Director, the Goethe-Institut Korea
Mr. Sung Joon Yim	President, Korea Foundation

(Source: PCNB, 2009. 국가브랜드위원회 출범. P. 8-9., PCNB, 2011. 국가브랜드위원회 전체회의 개최. P. 5)

As shown by council members' profile, council members were from various fields, from both government and private sectors. The official members included ministers and presidents of government organization. this demonstrates that South Korean government gave a high priority to nation branding implementation. In addition, the government members collaborated with appointed members and international advisors, who were well-known scholars from South Korea's first class universities and veterans from leading companies. All experienced members contributed to the council emphasis on five strategic areas to increase the national brand value, including the goals of encouraging multiculturalism and global citizenship, promotion of South Korean culture and tourism, promotion of South Korean technology and innovations, and broader contributions to the global community. In order to address these five strategic areas, the PCNB promoted ten activities as follows (PCNB, 2011):

1. Shaping the future with Korea: This project's purpose was passing down knowledge and experience of South Korea's development and expanding the Korean wave worldwide. The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism spent over 12 billion

KRW to support the ‘Hallyu’ of Korean popular culture export. This fund planned to support development of South Korea’s performing arts and music academies. In additionally, the Culture Ministry planned prevention of anti-hallyu sentiments in Japan and China, and to encourage the selection of an East Asian culture and arts creative city in 2014. It claimed that this would encourage cultural exchanges among the three countries and planned to spend more 600 million KRW. on this project (PCNB and KLRI 2011, Min-young 2012).

2. Campus World Global Korea Scholarship, Campus Asia: The Campus World Global Scholarship program was a joint effort with KOICA, which had previously established the project. This project supplied scholarships for international students at the university level, to create positive perceptions of Korea in the international academic community. The project also supported regional student exchange programs between Asian countries, with the intention of building international networks of relationships between future society and business leaders (PCNB and Deloitte 2011, PCNB and KLRI 2011).

3. World Friends Korea (Korean volunteer development agency): This project was also a joint effort with KOICA, which facilitated international volunteer activities to both build international support and improve Korea’s capacity to contribute through international volunteering. The project was based on the US’s Peace Corps program. WFK’s vision, “A better world through sharing and learning”, informed its orientations and goals (Committee for International Development Cooperation, 2014).

Objectives included improving understanding between South Korea and volunteer host countries, providing measurable improvements to the lives of people in host countries, and helping individual volunteers develop capacity and potential (Committee for International Development Cooperation, 2014). The project was initially intended to support around 2,000 volunteers, but grew to 3,000 after the involvement of PCNB. The volunteers engaged in areas like environmental clean-up, education, and information technology (IT) support, using existing skills and developing new ones.

4. Global Korean Network: Overseas Korean Foundation: The Overseas Korean Foundation (OKF) had a goal of connecting overseas Koreans in a single network. OKF engages in a variety of works for the mutual benefit and progress of both homeland and overseas Korean communities. This foundation also has an importance role as a venue for Korean with foreign nationality to connect with the Korean government. Using OKF's website, overseas Koreans can file a petition to government of the ROK.(PCNB and Deloitte 2011)

5. Promotion of Korean language and Tae Kwon Do: The PCNB was instrumental in stabling the King Sejong Institute language program, which was intended to expand to 150 international locations by 2015 (PCNB, 2011). Another aspect of cultural promotion was support of South Korea's native martial art, Tae Kwon Do, through development of a training and ranking system for training schools and a global competitive structure (PCNB and KLRI 2011).

6. Global Citizenship: The Global Citizenship project was internally directed, aimed at reducing hostility toward foreigners and creating internal understanding of different cultures (PCNB and KLRI 2011). Other concerns of this project were international etiquette and Internet communications and ethics.

7. Advanced Technology and Design Korea: This project was aimed at creating consumer nation brands, moving 'made in Korea' to 'Premium Korea'. This program was originally established in 1962 and was assigned to PCNB as part of its oversight (PCNB and KLRI 2011). The program marketed Korean luxury products such as Samsung Galaxy smart phones, fashion designer Andre Kim's products, and KAIST's HUBO walking humanoid robot. It also supported events like JYP entertainments audition, the Korean Technology Road Show (a collaboration with KOTRA), and other events.

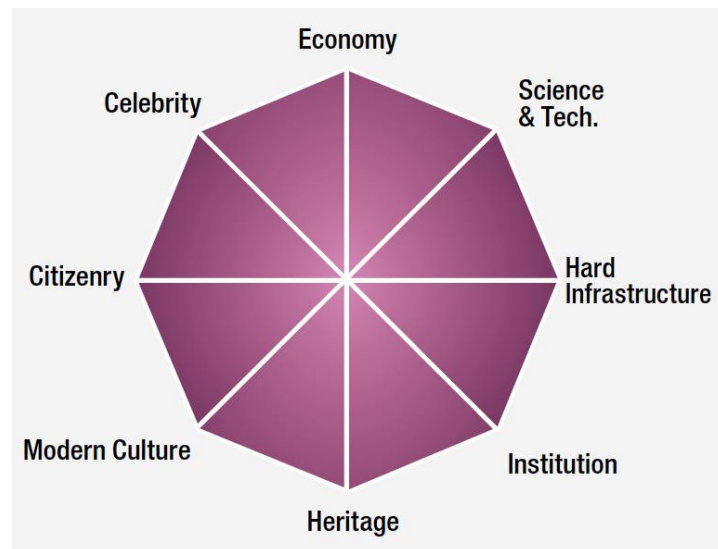
8. Rainbow Korea: The Rainbow Korea project was intended to provide support and infrastructure for integrating multicultural families into Korean society, including economic assistance and support services to meet specific needs. These projects were undertaken with the help of the Immigration office. Some of these services included the Danuri help line call center, the Rainbow Youth Centre (a migrant youth foundation), a counselling center for foreign visitors, and other projects (Danuri 2012).

9. Friendly Digital Korea: The Friendly Digital Korea project had two main aims, including developing Internet and broadcasting technology to enhance

international communication and using content development to communicate with global audiences and improve perception of South Korea and its people through films, television, and music. For example, in 2009 PCNB collaborated with Google and YouTube to create a project called UCC video competition - experience Korea – digital life. Koreans and international foreigners could enter this competition with content in any language. The first prize was valued at 5,000,000 KRW (PCNB and Deloitte 2011, PCNB 2011).

10. Korea Brand Index (SERI PCNB NBDO): One of the other major initiatives of the PCNB was to develop a nation brand index that incorporated different government agencies for use in its performance monitoring and evaluation. The PCNB collaborated with the Samsung Economic Research Institute (SERI) to create the Nation Brand Dual Octagon (NBDO) index, adapting this index from existing tools such as Anholt's (2007) nation brand hexagon to reflect Korean branding goals and values (PCNB, 2011). PCNB and SERI claimed that this survey measured the results of South Korea's Nation Branding using more objective instruments than the Anholt GFK Nation Brand Index. Since this index is the main measure of South Korea's nation branding effectiveness used internally, it is used to evaluate performance.

Figure 6: SERI PCNB Nation Brand Dual Octagon



Source: LEE Dong-Hun. (2010). Nation Branding Korea. SERI Quarterly.

The NBDO index is shown in Figure 6. Its dimensions include Economy, Science and Technology, Infrastructure, Policies and Institutions, Heritage, Modern Culture, Citizenry, and Celebrities, each of which are measured on substance and image. The eight pillars applied the framework from Anholt's (2007) GFK NBI, as mentioned in Chapter II, with some adjustment. The NBDO considers the difference between substance and image rankings to identify gaps and help direct strategy toward improving the fit between the substance and image, making it more of a strategic tool than the Anholt GFK NBI instrument (Lee 2010). Analysis is based on external and internal data and statistics from institutions like the Information Management Division (IMD) World Economic Forum (WEF), UNESCO, and World

Development Indicators provided by the World Bank (WDI), along with analysis from leading researchers (Lee 2010).

To collect data for the NBDO index, 50 nations were surveyed in the categories of substance (125 statistical data points) and image (36 question survey) (Lee 2010). Different rankings of surveyed nations in substance and image could be compared. This annual survey started in 2009 under co-direction of SERI and PCNB. The 2009-2010 image survey, held in October to November 2010, included 13,500 opinion leaders in 26 nations. Statistical data from the same period were applied to evaluate a nation's substance. For the 2011-2012 survey, held in November 2011, the image questionnaire survey was taken by 13,500 participants in 26 countries, and statistics were used to measure national substance (Lee 2011). In 2012-2013 (October to November), SERI surveyed for Image from 13,500 opinion leaders in 26 countries along with statistical data selected as previously (Lee 2013).

The opening SERI PCNB NBDO analysis (2009) showed that South Korea performed better in economy and company measures than in other measures, which reflected the higher development attention paid to these sectors (Lee 2010, Lee 2013) Its infrastructure score was also relatively high, largely driven by industrial infrastructure (IT and services, energy, and transportation and logistics) related to this attention to industrial development. However, other sectors, especially heritage and modern culture, ranked poorly compared to competing countries (Lee, 2010). These findings called for a broader perspective on image development, focusing on quality

of life and culture and heritage communication to improve South Korea's overall reputation. At the same time, these are areas where South Korea would continue to struggle throughout the period of evaluation.

The status of the Korean national brand in 2010 was improved overall compared to 2009 (Lee, 2011). The country improved slightly in both substance (ranked 18th compared to 19th) and image (19th compared to 20th) (Lee, 2011). There were slight improvements for both style and substance factors in most areas, although the economy and corporations substance ranking fell slightly (Lee, 2011). However, this year showed a gap between self-image and external image that identified some needs for development. Self-image in science, technology, economy and corporations significantly increased from 2009. However, self-image towards the economy remained low, as in 2009, and self-perception in policies/institutions and people was also lower than the image held by others. In modern culture and celebrities, the country scored high in substance and self-image. However, its image as viewed by others was low due to poor overseas public relations efforts. In areas of infrastructure and traditional culture/nature, substance and image as viewed by others was low, but its self-esteem in these categories was high. The next goal was to narrow the gap between substance and self-image by developing new content, which was an area of year-on-year improvement according to later annual reports (Lee 2010, Lee 2011, Lee 2013)

In 2011, there was overall improvement in the South Korean people's self-image and overseas assessment of Korea across all eight categories (Lee 2011). However, domestic assessment, or self-image, appeared to be lower than overseas assessment (image viewed from abroad) in such categories as economy/corporations, policies/institutions, and people. This implied that South Koreans needed to change its own perceptions about its home country. The indicator that was critically important to boost self-esteem about economy/corporations, where self-image has been low every year. Self-esteem towards soft power seems to be stronger, since domestic assessment of science/technology, celebrities, modern culture and traditional culture/nature all raised from 2010 levels. In celebrities, modern culture and traditional culture/nature, South Korea's self-image improved year-on-year. (Lee 2011) mentioned that there was a boost during this year from Pyeongchang's winning bid for the 2018 Winter Olympics, the hosting of major international events, and the rise of global celebrities, most notably the re-election of United Nations Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon for a second term, along with K-Pop's overseas popularity. Science/technology, firmly positioned as Korea's representative image, saw gains in both overseas and domestic assessments over the past three years, respectively. In the infrastructure and traditional culture/nature categories, overseas assessment in terms of both substance and image was lower than domestic assessment (Lee 2011).

By 2012 South Korea had achieved the goal of reaching or exceeding OECD average for image and substance measures through public-private partnerships (Lee,

2013). The main issue identified was the need to re-examine the basic framework of national branding strategies from a broader mid to long-term perspective. To this end, the government drafted measures to further enhance economy/corporations and science/technology categories, which had served as the two main pillars of Korea's nation brand during the PCNB activation period. It also developed plans to improve weaknesses in policies, institutions, infrastructure, and heritage and people categories. In addition, as the gap between domestic and overseas views on image remained wide, efforts were needed not only to publicize Korea's nation brand worldwide, but also to promote public trust and pride within the country. Lee (2013) stated that more effort should be invested in increasing Koreans' self-perception of economy and corporations to the level of its international perception.

3.2.3 Time line of South Korea's nation branding achievements

(PCNB, 2013. 위원장 약력 History)

Year 2009

- | | |
|-----|--|
| Jan | Establishment of the Presidential Council on Nation Branding (PCNB)
(Chairman Euh Yoon-Dae) |
| Apr | The 1st PCNB International Forum |
| May | Established Korea overseas volunteer corps, World Friends Korea (WFK)

Asian Campus Summit |

Jul	Specialist Forum on Nation Branding International Student Blogger, World Students in Korea (WSK) Summer Camp
Aug	WSK Cultural Exploration Program
Oct	Korea-Vietnam Week Inauguration of the 1st Korean International Student Forum
Nov	Received Special Award at Korea Advertising Awards 2009
Dec	Youtube UCC Contest Season 1 (Theme: Digital Life)
Year 2010	
Jan	WSK Winter Camp Launched 17koreabrand.pa.go.kr English website India-Korea Night (New Delhi)
Feb	The 5th Meeting of the International Advisory Forum Launched 17koreabrand.pa.go.kr Chinese-Japanese website
Mar	Youtube UCC Contest Season 2 (Theme: My Korean Food Recipe) 2nd WSK Cultural Experience event
May	The 6th Meeting of the International Advisory Forum “Global Citizen” Campaign
Jul	3rd WSK Summer Camp

Sep	Seoul Conference G20's Role in the Post-Crisis World
	Youtube UCC Contest Season 4 (Theme: My G20)
	G20 Summit Citizen Support Message Campaign
Oct	Lee Bae-yong inaugurated as 2nd chairperson of PCNB
	Korea-Indonesia Economy-Culture Festival (Jakarta)
	PCNB Conference "Influence of G20 and North Korea's 3rd Regime Succession on Nation Branding"
Nov	"Korea Brand Quiz" campaign
	Youtube UCC Contest Season 4 Awards Ceremony
	Nation Branding Improvement Competition
Dec	Fair Society and Global Leadership International Conference
	Youtube UCC Contest Season 5 Awards Ceremony
	Distributed I Can Cook Korean Food Well (Korean cookbook) to multicultural families
	4th WSK Camp (Jeonju Hanok Village)

Year 2011

Jan	Post-G20 Joint Briefing Session
	University Student Supporters Winter Workshop
	2nd Koreabrand.net Reporters Workshop

Feb	Diplomat banquet reception WSK Lunar New Year's Ceremony 1st University Student Supporters Ceremony
Mar	Signed "Seventh Wonder of the World" MOU with Jeju The 1st Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Han Seung-soo, Former Prime Minister)
Apr	3rd Koreabrand.net Reporters Workshop The 4th Presidential Briefing Session Inauguration ceremony for Korea Seowon World Cultural Heritage Registration Preparation Committee The 2nd Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Lee Eo-ryeong, Former Minister of Culture and Tourism) Signed MOU with World Friends Korea Signed "New Thinking New Korea" MOU with Hyundai Motor Co.

May	<p>Kazakhstan-Korea Week</p> <p>PCNB Workshop</p> <p>University President Roundtable Discussion (Co-host:Korean Council for University Education)</p> <p>Public Idea contest "Brand Korea!"</p> <p>"Together with World Friends Korea" Event</p> <p>Signed "Scholarship Foundation to Descendants of UN Soldiers in the Korean War "MOU with the Korea War Memorial Foundation</p> <p>The 3rd Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Choi Kwang-shik, Administrator of Cultural Heritage Administration of Korea)</p>
Jun	<p>Signed "Spread Volunteering and Sharing Culture" MOU with the Korea Council of Volunteering</p> <p>"Global Etiquette Expert Campaign" Guerilla Concert</p> <p>Signed "Korea without language barriers" MOU with BBB Korea</p> <p>The 7th Meeting of the International Advisory Forum</p>
Jul	<p>UNESCO World Heritage Youth Keeper kick-off ceremony</p> <p>The 4th Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Kathleen Stevens, U.S. Ambassador to Korea)</p>

Aug	<p>YouTube UCC Contest Season 6 Awards Ceremony</p> <p>5th International Student Blogger Summer Camp</p> <p>New Thinking, New Korea Expedition kick-off ceremony</p> <p>Korea Nation Branding Convention 2011: "Hallyu, into the future with the world"</p>
Sep	<p>Signed MOU with Kukkiwon (World Taekwondo Headquarters)</p> <p>The 8th Meeting of the International Advisory Forum</p>
Oct	<p>Inauguration ceremony for the 3rd Koreabrand.net Reporters</p> <p>Korea Nation Branding Convention 2011 - Essay Contest Awards Ceremony</p> <p>The 5th Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Lee Honggu, Former Prime Minister)</p> <p><Fair Society Emblem and Slogan Contest> Awards Ceremony</p>
Nov	<p>Presidential Council on Nation Branding special session (Global HR Forum) : 'Hallyu and the Education Brand'</p> <p>Diplomatic Missions in Korea Cultural Expedition</p> <p>Foreign correspondents in Korea - meeting</p> <p>Korea Brand 'New Thinking, New Korea' 2011 Annual Report</p> <p>France-Korea Week (Paris, France)</p>

Dec YouTube UCC Contest Season 7 Awards Ceremony

The Seoul Foreign Correspondent's Club 2011 Year-End Charity Event

Co-host workshop "Seowon Cultural Heritages of Korea: Current Status and Future of Preservation" with Cultural Heritage Administration

Year 2012

Jan Signed MOU with Busan International Advertising Festival Organizing Committee

Inauguration ceremony for Nation Brand Advisory Board

Feb The 5th PCNB Briefing Session

1st UNESCO World Heritage Youth Keeper Awards Ceremony

5th World Students in Korea Awards Ceremony

6th World Students Korea kick-off ceremony & New Year's Ceremony

Mar Joseon Royal Court Wedding Reenactment: "Joseon Reawakens"
(National Museum of Korea)

Operated Nation Brand publicity booth, 2012 Nuclear Security Summit

(COEX International Media Center)

- Apr 4th Korea Brand Communicator Orientation
- The 6th Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Kim In Gyu, President of Korea Broadcasting System)
- Korea Seowon World Cultural Heritage Registration Preparation Committee kick-off ceremony
- 4th Korea Brand Communicator Spring Workshop
- May Nation Brand International Symposium "E-government in the Social Media Age and the Future of Nation Brand"
- PCNB Workshop (Jangseong and Damyang, Jeollanamdo Province)
- Signed MOU with COPION (COoperation and Participation In Overseas NGOs)
- Jun World Friends Korea 3-Year Anniversary Event: "2012 World Friends Korea: How far we have come, How far to go"
- The 7th Eminent Persons Lecture Series (Scott Whiteman, British Ambassador to Korea)
- 4th Korea Brand Communicator Culture Expedition (Yeosu Expo)
- 2nd UNESCO World Heritage Youth Keeper kick-off ceremony

3.2.4 Summary of South Korea's nation building success

South Korea's nation branding rose steadily between 2009 and 2012, and saw a significant improvement in image by 2012. By the 2012 evaluation year, it had risen to 13th in substance and 17th in image based on a comparison of the OECD countries (Lee, 2013). Lee (2013) concluded that in order to maintain this trend, continuous efforts and follow-up measures are required. The area where South Korea lagged particularly was the area of heritage, where the country had only achieved a rank of 29th (although this was an improvement from previous years) (Lee, 2013). The other weak area was people, where Korea ranked 35th, compared to 31st in the previous year. Thus, there were some significant areas that required additional improvement compared to other countries.

The initial ten activities established by the PCNB in 2009 had a very wide range, including individual, private organization, and state institution activities. They ranged from the promotion of Korean culture through Korean languages, Tae Kwon Do, and volunteer activities, to academic supports through the Campus Asia and Global Korea Scholarship programs, to the development and promotion of Korean popular culture through the hallyu or Korean wave strategy. The activities also focused on developing Korean culture internally, improving conditions for immigrants and multicultural families and developing programs designed to increase Korean people's acceptance of foreigners and participation in globalized public environments and communities. SERI used its SERI-PCNB NBDO to analyze the

performance of the country year-on-year, demonstrating significant improvement over time (Lee, 2010; Lee, 2011; Lee, 2013). These improvements demonstrated that even though gaps remained, especially on internal perception of Korean technology and the economy, there were significant improvements over time in perception of Korea on an international stage. Therefore, the execution of Korea's nation branding strategy can be said to be successful.

3.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the objective was to review the implementation of South Korea's and Japan's nation branding. Efforts to leverage and improve national image were underway in both countries since long before the nation branding theory has been approach to this world. South Korea and Japan both have acknowledged competitiveness that nation branding could deliver to them. Both governments initiated the nation branding process, applying new theoretical models by Dinnie (2016) and Anholt (2007) to evaluate effectiveness. Both countries had significant success, but still showed weaknesses that were reviewed by their evaluating team. What were the factors that make them succeed and fail? Those will be analyzed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF JAPAN AND SOUTH KOREA'S NATION BRANDING COMPARISON

4.1 Comparison of Japan and South Korea's nation branding

4.1.1 Comparison of nation branding's policies

Dinnie (2008) explained that nation branding was a complex combination of the actions of individual actors and the guidance from national-level policymaking. This means that the national policies chosen for nation branding are significant. Both countries had policy based oriented toward improving image and reputation on a global stage, and achieving higher rankings in global nation brand indices. Both Japan and South Korea established national policies to direct nation branding, but the goals of these activities and therefore their direction was different. For Japan, the goal of nation branding activities was to move beyond the primarily economic and technological perception of Japan on the global stage by introducing modern Japanese culture (Akutsu 2008). For South Korea, significant issues included relatively low recognition and negative perceptions related to various internal and external conflicts (Yomjinda 2013). Thus, the two countries had to establish national policies that addressed different issues and problems effectively. In both cases, policies, such as use of public-private partnership and adaptation or leveraging of existing programs, was prevalent. However, there were some differences in the policy frameworks established.

The two top-level organizations that were examined in Japan, the Japan Brand Working Group and the Japanesque Modern Committee, had policies primarily oriented toward cultural and consumer lifestyle products and services, including food, fashion, local brands and consumer technologies (I. P. S. Headquarters 2006), while existing organizations like the Japan Foundation maintained control of public diplomacy activities and language training. In contrast, the PCNB had a broader remit, focusing both on consumer goods and content promotion and on developing wider links through public diplomacy (often in collaboration with existing organizations like KOICA). Thus, one of the differences between the two countries is that while Japan was primarily focused on consumer perceptions, South Korea's policies were more oriented toward improving overall knowledge and reputation.

A significant similarity is the focus on content as a communication channel inherent in policies. It was one of the global leaders in developing global public diplomacy activities, as well as developing new strategies for nation branding (Dinnie 2008). As a result, it was one of the first countries to focus on intangible intellectual property like content to improve its global image (Akutsu 2008). South Korea adopted this strategy with its focus on entertainment content through its hallyu strategy (Lee, 2010; Yomjinda, 2013).

4.1.2 Comparison of nation branding concept

The South Korean nation branding concept was developed in part through reference to the nation branding activities of the Japanese government as its inspiration, and as a result there are only some similarities in the nation branding concepts used. For example, nation branding under both governments was viewed as a way to promote and enhance international reputation. (JBWG 2005); (PCNB 2009, PCNB and Deloitte 2011). However, there are more in key differences.

One of these key differences was what was involved in nation branding. The Contents Expert Research Committee (2005) focused mainly on promoting Japanese lifestyle components such as food, fashion, and other lifestyle components. In contrast, the PCNB took a much broader approach to nation branding, incorporating more of what would be termed standalone brands along with the endorsed brands of Dinnie's (2016) NBAR model, such as academic engagement and language training. In part, this is probably because these activities were already well established under different policy areas in Japan, for example as part of the Japan Foundation's remit. However, it may also be because South Korea was still struggling to establish and differentiate a presence in the world.

In both countries, there was a relatively limited development of the concept of nation branding compared to modern theories. For example, the number of endorsed and standalone brands identified by Dinnie's (2016) NBAR model is far

broader compared to the number of areas addressed by either Japan or South Korea. It is also notable that neither country directly used the Nation Brand Hexagon (Anholt, 2006, 2007) or the Anholt GfK index. However, South Korea did develop the NBDO model, which is an elaboration of the Anholt GfK index. Thus, even though both countries did engage with the concept of nation branding relatively early, in neither case was there a direct development of the model.

4.1.3 Comparison of nation branding's organizations structure

The organizational structures of the three reviewed organizations are shown in Figures 6 (JBWG), 7 (Japanesque Modern Committee), and 8 (PCNB). These organizational structures show broad similarities. All three organizations were initiated and established by government of the two countries. (For Japan's content expert research committee, it was established by Prime minister and his cabinet of Japan through I. P. S. headquarter, then entrusted content expert research committee a JBWG project. For Japanesque modern, it was initiated through METI of Japan. And for PCNB, it was established directly from President of South Korea.) All three organizations also relied on public-private a partnership, which is essential due to the multifaceted and complex nature of the nation branding project, which incorporates many different sources of perception about a given country (Fan 2006, Dinnie 2008). However, the internal structure and activities of the organization did differ somewhat. For example, the Contents Expert Research Committee in Japan did not act directly,

but provided recommendations to different agencies like the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry and worked in coordination with auxiliary groups. In contrast, the Japanesque Modern Committee established working relationships with different private organizations directly to design and market the goods branded under the program. The structure of the PCNB was also distinct, because in addition to its ex officio and appointed members from Korean public and private organizations, it also included an international advisory panel. This panel brought academic and institutional expertise and assisted in knowledge transfer, building the PCNB's capacity and creating international networks. This creation of connections between people is one of the critical elements of nation branding, since it creates channels for communication (Anholt 2007). This difference may be due to reasons like lack of existing capacity in South Korea for nation building or a desire to transfer more academic knowledge, but the stated purpose was to build these communication channels. Thus, the structure of the PCNB and its inclusion of external viewpoints is one of the positive evolutions of South Korea's nation branding compared to Japan's earlier efforts.

Figure 7: The framework of Japan Brands Working Group

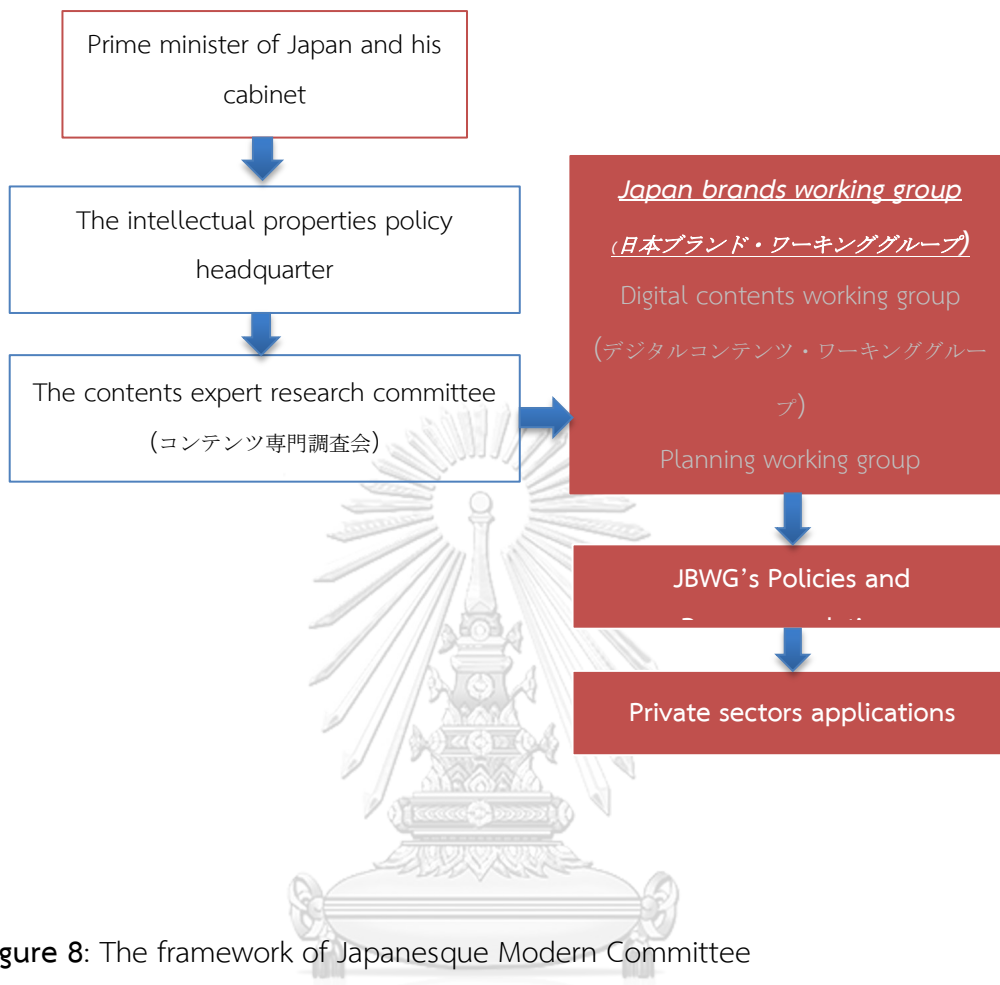


Figure 8: The framework of Japanesque Modern Committee

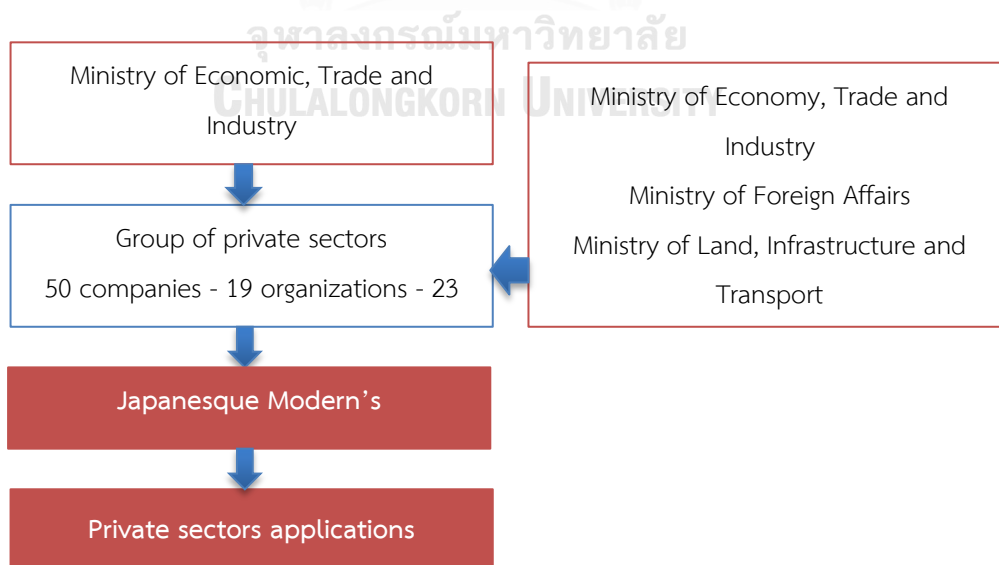
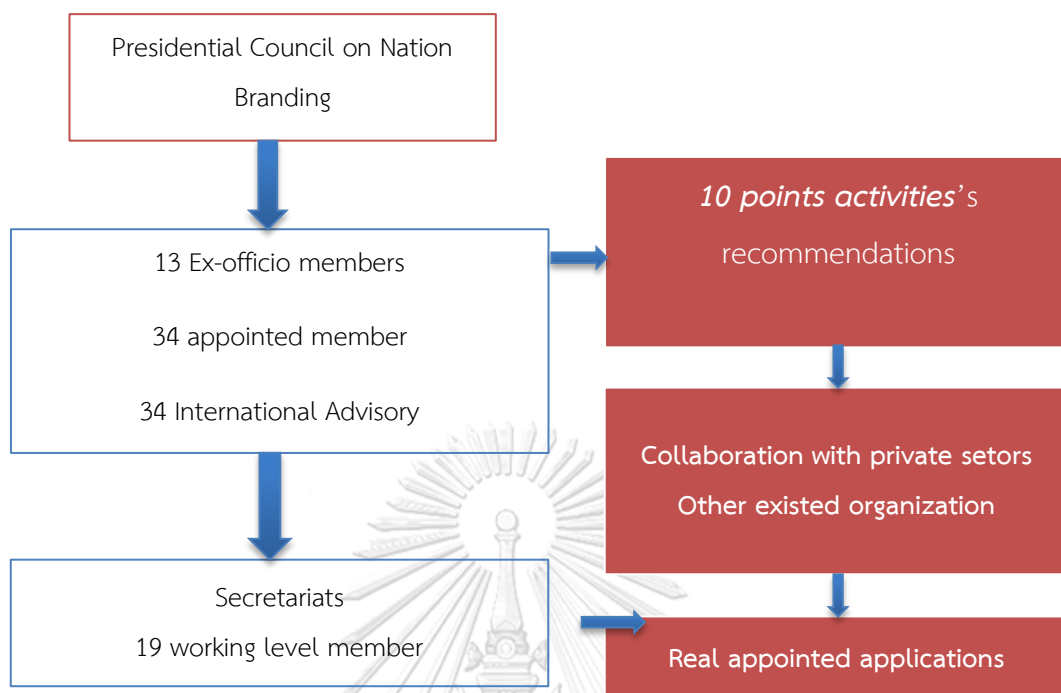


Figure 9: The Framework of Presidential Council on Nation Branding



4.1.4 Comparison of nation brand's scope of activities

Academic definitions and models of nation branding allow for a very wide scope of activities that could be included. For example, the NBAR model offers both the traditional areas like tourism and exports as endorsed brands and a broader perspective such as products and services offered as standalone brands (Dinnie 2008).

The NBI model also focuses on a broad scope of activities, although slightly fewer areas are included (Anholt 2007). When comparing the scope of Japanese and South Korean nation branding activities, South Korea took a broader scope than Japan did.

The Japanese nation branding activities under the JBWG and Japanesque Modern Committee were mainly focused on consumer lifestyle goods and content, along with some focus on tourism and elements of culture and heritage (particularly food).

In part, this could be explained because other areas of the potential scope of nation branding were either already undertaken by other groups like the Japan Foundation or were already perceived as strong (for example technology and investment). In contrast, the PCNB took a much broader scope of nation branding, incorporating even more areas than the NBI hexagon model in its PCNB SERI NBDO index. This difference could be explained because while Japan already had a relatively strong (though potentially limited) nation brand established internationally and was seeking to expand it, South Korea was in the initial stages of developing a unique positive brand image (Daliot-Bul, 2009; Yomjinda, 2013; Lee, 2010). However, even Japan undertook some out of scope activities, such as focus on its agriculture, forestry, and fisheries industry (JBWG 2005, I. P. S. Headquarters 2006). These differences in scope demonstrate that nation branding is not a one-size fits all exercise. Instead, the scope of nation branding can be adapted to the needs of the country and its current position.

4.2 Chapter summary

This chapter has compared the implementation of nation branding policies between Japan and South Korea, demonstrating that while the countries did have similar approaches, differences in their goals and current nation brand image needs meant that there were differences in implementation, which were summary in TABLE 10 as following;

Table 10: Summary of South Korea and Japan's nation branding comparison

Comparative Issues	Similar Features	Different Features	
		South Korea	Japan
Nation Branding's Main goal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To promote and enhance international reputation - To gain more positive recognition and credits - To enhance economy with creative economic strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To correct negative perception on global stage - To appoint and develop policies oriented toward culture and content promotion, and public diplomacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -To move beyond the primarily economic and technological perception on the global stage, by introducing modern Japanese culture - To establish and develop policies primarily oriented toward cultural and consumer lifestyle products and services
Nation Branding's Concept	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nation branding under both governments was viewed as a way to promote and enhance international reputation, and a way to enhance economy with creative economic strategy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South Korea focused on a much broader approach. The focus was on improving overall image of South Korea with emphasis on content promotion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -- JBWG were mainly focused on consumer lifestyle goods and content, along with some focus on tourism and elements of culture and heritage. - Japanesque modern focused on Japan DNA, Modern and Unique products development that represent modern Japanese lifestyle.

(Continue in next page)

Comparative Issues	Similar Features	Different Features	
		South Korea	Japan
Nation Branding's Organization Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - All three main organizations that were examined in this study (JBWG), (Japanesque Modern Committee), and (PCNB), were initiated and established through government's actions to promote nation branding. - All three organizations also relied on public-private a partnership. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - PCNB was established directly from President of South Korea. Also it was rearranged its members by President. - Members of PCNB entrusted 19 working level member, which were the existing organization such as KOICA and KF. - Recommendations and Policies of South Korea's nation branding were appointed by PCNB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - JBWG was a speacial task force project working group of content expert research committee, which was established by Prime minister and his cabinet of Japan through I. P. S. headquarter. - Japanesque Modern was initiated through METI. And METI only appoint recomendation. - Both organization of Japan did not act directly.
Nation Branding's Scope Of Activity		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South Korea took a broader scope of its nation branding activities. - PCNB appointed policies and recommendation, then directly entrusted existing organization (19 working level member) to carry on with nation branding's policies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Japan focused only specific content and that affect to scope of activite remit. - JBWG appointed recommendation to promote modern Japanese lifestlye only on food, fasion and region promotion. - Japanesque modern appointed recommendation about development of Japan DNA modern and unique lifestyle products.

The most noticeable difference in implementation was in scope, where South Korea took on a much wider scope of nation branding activities than Japan did. However, organizational structure and the use of tools like public-private partnership and engagement with international partners and academics was similar but internal

structure was also found more different features. Another noticeable difference is that South Korea made more extensive use of modern theories of nation branding than Japan did, for example adapting the PCNB SERI NBDO model from Anholt's (2007) NBI model. These differences could be due to changes in the theoretical landscape of nation branding between the period of Japanese implementation in 2004 and the South Korean implementation in 2009. However, they could also be due to South Korea's more extensive needs for nation branding compared to Japan. In the next chapter, these findings are used to conclude the research and answer the final research objective.

The lessons learned in Japanese policy could be implied that it was a significant inspiration for South Korea's policymaking. Still, this thesis cannot provide a clear evidence that South Korea adopted Japanese nation branding scheme through the establishment of the Presidential Council of Nation Branding. However, since Japanese offices for nation branding began in the year 2002, while Korean PCNB was established in 2009. Japanese reputation as the first Asian countries who conduct cultural diplomacy was well known. It is inevitably an inspiration for South Korea to put its effort in nation branding.

Yet, Japan's cultural diplomacy, and nation branding was only a part of this process, was begun much earlier with well-established structure of responsible organizations. Korea needed to develop its own objectives and resources.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Conclusion

This research undertook a comparative study of nation branding as implemented by Japan and South Korea in the first decade of the 21st century. These two countries were some of the first to use nation branding theories that had been developed from existing models of consumer branding, with South Korea's nation branding strategy inspired by but not completely mirroring the strategy chosen by Japan. The objectives included: studying the Japanese and South Korean nation branding processes (objective 1); comparing Japanese and South Korean nation branding processes to understand the factors that influence the nation branding process (objective 2); and proposing a nation branding process for newly developed models (objective 3). These objectives were accomplished through qualitative analysis of key nation branding programs undertaken between 2004 and 2012. Programs examined in Japan included Japan Brand Working Group (JBWG) and the associated Japanesque Modern Committee. South Korea's nation branding exercise was mainly directed by the Presidential Committee on Nation Branding. Theoretical frameworks of nation branding provided by Anholt (2007) and Dinnie (2016) were used to evaluate the nation branding process.

Objective 1 was accomplished in Chapter 3, which provided a comprehensive overview of the nation branding programs conducted by the case organizations. This chapter explained the history and activities of the organizations between 2002 and 2013. The analysis of history showed that while Japan has been engaged in public diplomacy activities since the 1930s, public diplomacy in South Korea is a much more recent concern. Japan began to establish nation branding as a policy priority in the early 2000s, while South Korea followed in the late 2000s. The analysis showed that Japan's nation branding strategy through the JBWG and Japanesque Modern Committee focused on communication about Japanese lifestyles and products to a consumer audience. The goal of this strategy was to promote an image of 'cool Japan' that differentiated it from the existing image of Japan as a staid industrial country. The PCNB, South Korea's premier agency for nation branding, used a series of holistic strategies to address multiple reputation needs. Both countries experienced an increase in their nation brand visibility during this period, demonstrating the effectiveness of the policies.

Objective 2 was accomplished in Chapter 4. The comparison showed that even though the countries used similar approaches, still, more different features in the way of implementation were significant. For similar approaches, their nation branding implementation initiated through top-level government guidance and arranged through public-private partnerships. However, there were more in key differences that can be attributed to both changes in academic understanding of

nation branding and differences in the existing nation brand status and needs of the two countries. Japan, as an earlier user of the nation branding concept with a more established nation brand at the time of its start, used a more flexible nation branding approach designed to promote its culture and lifestyle. South Korea, implementing a nation branding strategy later after the concept was more developed, had access to stronger theoretical models and frameworks of nation branding such as the Anholt GfK NBI, which formed the basis of its internal comparison. South Korea, as a less high-profile nation on the global stage, was also required to implement a comprehensive scope of its nation branding strategy. The overall study and comparison of South Korea and Japan implementation showed that the hypothesis of this study is false argument, as mention that South Korea's nation branding was an attempt followed Japan's nation branding model with adjustment, due to lack of reliable evident, such as legitimate or official document and implication from comparison to confirm that. However, the result of this study explained that with some objectives, Japan and Korea designed different methods in promoting their nation branding process. These differences could be good examples for other countries.

In conclusion, this analysis has shown that nation branding is a valuable tool for improving the image of developed countries on a global stage, which is not only Japan is the good model to study but South Korea lesson is also significant to give precedence. However, it is a complex and multidimensional process that demands

adaptation to a nation's specific circumstances. The analysis of Japan's and South Korea's experience in nation branding allows for identification of a set of best practices for developing countries (Objective 3), which are presented in the following section.

5.2 Best Practices for Nation Branding in Developing Countries

The experience of Japan and South Korea in nation branding, as well as the academic theories of nation branding such as those developed by Anholt (2007) and Dinnie (2016) provide recommendations for best practice in developing countries. These best practices are as follows:

1. Public-private partnerships:
2. Academic and researcher activity: and
3. Identifying key focal areas through image research.

The theoretical principles of nation branding are clear that the nation brand is not fully under the control of government agencies tasked with developing it; instead, private activities in industry, research, and the arts influences the national image in the mind of external viewers (Dinnie 2008). Thus, to direct the nation brand, the government must engage with private stakeholders in different areas. The successful implementation of nation branding by both Japanese and South Korean organizations was dependent on public-private partnerships between government, firms, research organizations, and other civil society organizations domestically and

abroad to be effective. Thus, the first best practice is that nation branding should be conducted through public-private partnerships to incorporate multiple stakeholder groups.

A second best practice relates to the involvement of academics and researchers in the coalition. The organizations profiled here worked best when incorporating academic knowledge and understanding of nation branding. The advantage of academic partnerships is demonstrated by the development of the PCNB SERI NBDO index, which was customized from Anholt's (2007) NBI to meet the specific needs and goals of South Korea's nation branding policies. Academics and researchers also served various purposes such as improving networks of human capital in international arenas and undertaking research that promotes the country positively. Thus, including the viewpoints of academics and researchers, and not just government organizations and firms, provides advantages to the developing country. Following South Korea's example, international participants should be recruited to build capacity and transfer knowledge as well as improving performance.

The final recommendation is to adapt the nation branding strategy by conducting preliminary research to understand the current position of the national brand image. This type of research was conducted by South Korea to understand the current external image of South Korea. The benefit of this type of research is that it identifies specific areas where the national brand image requires improvement, which supports policy and strategy development to address specific needs. This approach

allows for adaptation of standard models, for example development of a custom brand image index, to ensure the strategic approach is appropriate for the needs of the country.



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APPENDIX



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
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