Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into six broad sections: Communication Effectiveness; Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC); Advertising Effectiveness; Brand Communication; Destination Branding; and briefly about ‘Incredible India’ campaign. In this chapter, first we will elaborate on communication effectiveness and then on Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC). Convergence of communication in case of a brand has now emerged into a new field of ‘Integrated Marketing Communication’ (IMC). Effectiveness measures of Integrated Marketing Communication are under discussion and debate among researchers. Measuring potential of communication put through advertising campaign has been a thrust area of marketing and communication scholars for a long time. Evaluation techniques for advertising campaign are discussed in the ‘Advertising Effectiveness’ section. Destination Branding is a more specific field of evaluation and directly related to this study. Practices in Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs), and Destination Branding techniques are discussed in a separate section. Background and insights of ‘Incredible India’ campaign and ‘Atithi Devo Bhavah’ campaign are discussed in another section.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Communication is effective when the intentional or unintentional sharing of information achieve its desired outcome. It is required to serve the purpose for which it was planned or designed. Communication is there in the universe since the beginning of every being’s life and emergence of civilization but the word communication was defined later. Some kinds of effects of communication are there but still we are unable to measure how much and what types of effects are caused by communication. It is well summarized by Berelson, 1948:

Some kinds of communication on some kinds of issues have brought to the attention of some kinds of people under some kinds of conditions have some kinds of effects.

Elihu Katz (2001) put it directly in postulating simply that communication research ‘is about effect. It could have been otherwise—consider the study of art, for example but it is not’.
After World War-I, researchers considered media very powerful. The use of media by advertisers and by First World War propagandists appeared to confirm what people were already inclined to believe – that the media could be immensely powerful. Lazarfeld et al. (1944) initiated a long tradition of investigating the effectiveness of democratic election campaigns. People had doubts about the messages communicated through various newspapers, radio stations and other publicity material. Then slowly researches came about the influence of cinema and television on children and young people. The results confirmed many ideas about the effects on the emotions, attitudes and behavior of audiences. Many separate studies were carried out into the effects of different types of content and media, of particular films or programs and of entire campaigns (McQuail, 1983).

Communication plays an important role in various walks of life. It is associated with multiple disciplines like psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science and marketing etc. Use of communication for propaganda, publicity and marketing are outcome oriented and consider some sort of change through it. Political scientist and communication theorist Harold Dwight Lasswell described in his communication model:

*Who (Communicating organizations, their nature and function), Says What (The nature of the content: Informative, entertaining, educative), In What Channel (Print media, audiovisual media, automatic data processing), To whom (the nature and receptivity of the audience), With What Effect (The nature and effect or response of the audience; the way in which it affects the communicator).*

Communication in different forms and levels, conveys different meaning to different people. Be it verbal or non-verbal, intentional or unintentional, interpersonal or mass media communication, it creates some reaction or response through its content. It may cause change in behavior, attitude or belief. Perceptual dimension adds another perspective to communication studies. Perceptual dimension of relationship between communicating agent and world of events was proposed by a noted Cultivation theorist George Gerbner. In his model he emphasized the dynamic nature of human communication:


Researches into media effects became much more sophisticated in the post-war era. More account was taken of the intervening effects of social and demographic variables, such as age,
education and gender, and also of social psychological factors, such as predispositions and prior attitudes, personality type, persuadability, degree of interest and motivation, trust in the source etc. The influence of social contacts was also included in the range of potential variables as well as of the different motives for attending to media in the first place (McQuail, 2010).

Media researcher, Joseph Klapper, in 1960 concluded that ‘mass communication does not ordinarily serve as a necessary or sufficient cause of audience effects, but rather functions through a nexus of mediating factors.

Effects of advertised message are explained by four response hierarchy models of advertising. AIDA model developed in 1920s by E. K. Strong suggests that an advertisement is considered effective if it attracts attention, gain interest, stimulate desire and precipitate action (purchase). Hierarchy of effects model developed by Lavidge and Steiner suggests that advertising produces its effects by moving the consumer through a series of steps in a sequence from initial awareness to ultimate purchase of product or service. This model also imply that effects may not take place immediately rather may be over a period of time. Innovation – adoption model by Everett M Rogers evolved from their work on diffusion of innovation. This model depicts that a consumers moves through various sequential steps and stages in adapting a new product or service. Information processing model by William McGuire assumes that the advertising audiences are information processors and problem solvers. This model elaborates that the presentation, attention and comprehension moves the consumers to retention of information and then precipitate action not immediately but by retention of information. All models depict that in each case starting stage is cognitive, leading to affective stage and finally to conative or behavioral stage. Cognitive dimension includes variables like attention, exposure, awareness, recognition, comprehension and recall; then affective dimension includes attitude change, liking/disliking, involvement; conative dimension focuses on key variables like intention to buy and purchase behavior (Wimmer and Dominick, 2008).

Factors of selective exposure, selective retention and selective perception also play an important role in people’s tendency towards a message. People expose themselves to or attend to media message that they feel are in accord with their already held attitudes and interests and the parallel tendency to avoid those that might create dissonance. Selective retention is the process by which people tend to remember best and longest information that is consistent with their preexisting attitudes and interests. Selective perception is the mental
or psychological recasting of a message so that its meaning is in line with a person’s beliefs and attitudes (Baran and Davis, 2009).

1.2 COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS: CONCEPT, THEORIES AND MODELS

Communication effects or media effects are characterized into three stages by Neuman & Guggenheim (2011). Starting with theory of strong effects followed by some kind of rejection or critical examination of earlier work and then new model of minimal effects again by rediscovery of effects. Effect theories evolve from a starting point of a simple model of persuasion and transmission (persuasion theories) and has added in turn analytic constructs of audience motivation and disposition (active audience theories), the socially situated context of the mass communication process (social context theories), the character of the technical channel of communication and the political and institutional context of communication (societal and media theories), and the impact of media messages on the salience and cognitive organization of opinions and beliefs (interpretive effects theories) (Neuman & Guggenheim, 2011).

Psychological factors of audience, the societal and cultural context of message reception and belief system of audience members are important areas for investigation in communication process research. Klapper (1960) never used the phrase ‘minimal effects’ in his book and concluded that the greatest danger in a summary of research is the tendency to go overboard in blindly minimizing the effects and potentialities of mass communication. Emmers-Sommer and Allen (1999) in their overview of the field of communication and media research concluded: ‘Taken together, these findings can be used to lend insight for future research directions. Overall, we can conclude that the media do, indeed, have effects’.

On theories of communication, Robert Craig (1999) discussed about theoretical convergence and potential progress: ‘Communication theory as an identifiable field of study does not yet exist. Rather than addressing a field of theory, we appear to be operating primarily in separate domains. Books and articles on communication theory seldom mention other work on communication theory except within narrow specialties and schools of thought. Except within these little groups, communication theorists apparently neither agree nor disagree about much of anything. There is no canon of general theory to which they all refer. There are no common goals that unite them, no contentious issues that divide them. For the most part, they simply ignore each other.’

Researchers like Schramm & Roberts, 1971; Noelle-Neumann, 1973; Katz, 1980, 1987; Chaffee & Hochheimer, 1982; Berger & Chaffee, 1987; DeFleur &; Delia, 1987; Ball-
In the beginning of communication theory development (around 1930s to 1950s), there were ‘magic bullet theory’ or ‘hypodermic effects theory’ which suggested that the message reached its target ‘effects’ typically persuasive effects, would be immediate and evident. The same notion was used by Harold D. Lasswell (1930, 1935), whose work on propaganda and psychopathology proposed an all-powerful government propagandist manipulating passive audience members who lacked independent sources of information. This theory is also associated with a notion of a mechanical transmission model of direct effects linked to early theorists of information engineering such as Shannon & Weaver (1949). Later on, scholars traced the origins of the bullet and needle concepts and revealed that they were not used by those to whom they were attributed and do not accurately characterize the theorizing about media effects of the early researchers which was actually much more sophisticated (Bineham, 1988 & Sproule, 1989). The narrative of ‘minimal-effects school’ is still in use because it introduced the second stage of research in the 1950s and 1960s.

Paul Lazarsfeld ‘opened a new era of thinking’ by rejecting ‘the old hypothesis that the media have great power’ (De Fleur & Dennis, 1981). Joseph Klapper’s book, *The Effects of Mass Communication* (1960) came from the review and summarization of research till that time. Its findings suggested that only a tiny fraction of voters actually changed their vote intentions during an election campaign, that audience motivations and prior beliefs influenced the interpretation of persuasive messages, and that messages were often discussed among opinion leaders and friends, leading to mediation via two-step flow, reinforced this minimal-effects conclusion.

In the third and current stage of theoretical development, the new generation of scholars is trying to justify the discipline itself and to demonstrate significant effects through new theories, better measurement tools, and improved methodological designs. Researchers demonstrated various ‘not so minimal effects’ (Iyengar at al. 1982) or demonstrated that if the media could not tell you what to think they were ‘stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about’ (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). The antithesis between minimal effects and big effects continues as a central thematic or more often as a back drop for various empirical and theoretical inquiries (Neuman *et al.*, 2011).
1.3 INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION (IMC) EFFECTIVENESS: CONCEPT AND MEASURES

According to the well-known formula proposed by Harold D. Lasswell (1948) – ‘Who says what to whom in which channel with what effect?’ – Communications, and likewise brand perception, is composed of two dimensions. First, the channel aspect defines on which medium (at which specific brand touch point) the brand is perceived. Second, the content dimension defines what information the (prospective) customer receives or internally constructs through brand communications. This fundamental distinction is being regarded as vital by modern communication theories (McQuail, 2005). This can be found in practice by distinguishing between creative and media strategy in marketing communications. Both aspects add value to Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) and need to be considered accordingly when measuring such (Reinold & Tropp, 2012).

1.3.1 Concept of Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC)

The concept of integration of all type of communication, advertising and marketing has come later. In 1930s, the need for integration in marketing was recognized by Converse (in Spotts et al., 1998), who urged greater cooperation between the sales team and advertising to optimize results (Kerr et al., 2008). Integrated marketing communication was first introduced in 1980s. It is collaboration of disciplines like psychology, marketing and mass communication. Several scholars have worked to construct a definition of IMC. A widely acknowledged definition is given by Don E. Scultz in 1991.

**IMC is the process of managing all sources of information about a product/service to which a customer or prospect is exposed which behaviorally moves the consumer towards a sale and maintains customer loyalty.** (Schultz 1991, cited by Duncun and Caywood 1996).

Author Kliatchko also proposed a definition of IMC:

**IMC is an audience-driven business process of strategically managing stakeholders, content, channels and results of brand communication process.** (Kliatchko, 2008).

Here are some important definitions which demonstrate an evolution of the concept of IMC.

**IMC is the concept under which a company carefully integrates and coordinates its many communications channels to deliver a clear, consistent and compelling message about the organization and its products** (Kotler et al., 1999).
Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) is a strategic business process used to plan, develop, execute and evaluate coordinated, measurable, persuasive brand communication programs over time with consumers, customers, prospects, and other targeted, relevant external and internal audiences (Schultz & Schultz, 2004).

IMC is the concept and process of strategically managing audience-focused, channel-centred and results-driven brand communication programs over time (Kliatchko, 2005).

Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) and integrated brand marketing are not just about tactical deployment of media in a campaign. It involves a strategic business infrastructure that can provide clients with long term knowledge about customers and their communication and media needs and that demonstrates accountability for their spending. This includes an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of different metrics and their underlying collection rationale. (Mark Balnaves, 2010).

Concept of IMC is being defined as consisting of four pillars. Stakeholders: Taking a stakeholder-centered, outside-in perspective, with special focus on consumers/customers; Content: Adapting unique, relevant and consistent content via IT-based technology to the recipient; Channels: Using connected strategic management to integrate all possible brand touch points that stakeholders come into contact with; Results: IMC’s ultimate goal is to produce measurable results for a company (Kotlar et al., 2009).

In other words, marketer should design and implement any one marketing activity with all other activities in mind. Using an integrated communication strategy means choosing communication options that reinforce and complement each other. A marketer might selectively employ television, radio, and print advertising, public relations and events and PR and website communications, so that each contributes on its own as well as improving the effectiveness of each other. Each communication must also deliver a consistent brand image to customers at every brand contact. Applying an integrated channel strategy ensure that direct and indirect channels, such as online and retail sales, work together to maximize sales and brand equity (Kotlar et al., 2009).

1.3.2 Effectiveness Measures of Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC)

Measurement Tools for Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) are designed from different perspective to find the degree of communications integration within company via checklist (Integration Index; Kirchner 2001); finding and measuring factors of a company’s Integrated Marketing Communication (EFQM-Audit of Integrated Marketing
Communications; Stumpf 2005); Measuring the quality of an organization’s different areas of communication (balanced scorecard for communication quality; Vos and Achoemaker 2004); Adding communications measures to the existing Balance Scorecard approach (Communication Scorecard; Hering, Schuppener & Sommerhalder 2004); Measuring relevance of different communication channels to a company in order to optimize touch-point mix (360° –touch point analysis; Accelerom); Integration of single communication channels and measurement of their impact (Communication information system; BrandControl); Identifying and evaluating value drivers of internal communication, investor- and customer-communications, public relations return on communications (Sjoberg and Hamrefors 1996).

Reinold & Tropp (2011) conceptualized a model of evaluating integrated marketing communication in three steps: Survey, Calculation of metrics and Analysis. The following factors are calculated in this model: brand touch point effectiveness, brand touch point involvement factor, brand touch point recall, brand content effectiveness, brand content uniqueness, brand content recall. Analysis answered three IMC questions: degree of IMC effectiveness, influencing effectiveness factors, means to increase IMC effectiveness. This model delivered the status of IMC with effectiveness figures that can be compared to competing brands. This model took the channel and content dimension of brand contact into account.

On measurement tools of IMC, Schultz and Kitchen (2000) emphasize that marketing and communication managers of twenty-first century must recognize that there are multiple markets, multiple marketplaces, multiple customers, multiple channels, and multiple media. Multiple measurements can doubtless be added to the list of measurements.

1.4 ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS: MODELS AND THEORIES

Advertising effectiveness refers to the measurement of the results of an advertising campaign or of a particular advertisement, which must in turn be defined in terms of the achievement of the advertising objectives which the advertiser set for his campaign/advertisement. Aim of advertising is communication rather than sales objectives and attempt to express the impact which the advertiser wishes to achieve with his message, something which does not necessarily coincide with an increase in sales (Lautman et al., 1978; Berkman and Gilson, 1987; Politz, 1975).

For several reasons, assessing message effectiveness by directly measuring changes in the attitude, belief, or behavior of the target audience is impractical. Persuasive campaigns often
encourage the audience to give up certain behavior, rather than engage in a new behavior (Dillard et al., 2007). People who are able to recall advertisements are known to have processed an advertisement more deeply than people who can only recognize an advertisement (Stapel 1998; Wilson et al., 2008). Advertising likeability has been the strongest factor linked to persuasion and sales (ARF, Leo Burnett; Smith et al., 2006; Bamfo, 2011).

In spite of the progress made in communication theory, advertising theory seems not to have incorporated any meaningful notions which can be used operationally to measure the communication content of advertising in a quantitative way (Lipstein, 1980). Although researchers have tried to explain the phenomenon by constructing several models. First generation models of advertising are the AIDA formula, Colley’s DAGMAR approach, The Lavidge and Steiner model (1961), Rogers’ Adoption model (1962), Ehrenberg’s ATR model (1974), Berkman and Gilson’s ICB model (1987), and Bovee and Aren’s model (1992). These models, which are relatively simple and static, contemplate a multi-stage advertising response process with an underlying sequence of cognitive, affective and conative stages. The main problem with these models in real life is that they tend to oversimplify the complex phenomenon of consumer behavior, they do not consider how communication takes place, how learning is achieved, how needs and desires are stimulated, how consumer purchasing actually occurs etc. They also fail to take into explain the dynamics of changing consumer tastes and preferences, the nature of different product types with varying life cycles, competitor behavior, and the fact that individuals are continually joining and leaving the advertising response process at different stages due to any number of internal and external stimuli other than advertising. Two different factors aid advertising in the achieving of its goals-the one ‘Familiarity Principle’ and the other the ‘Persuasive Principle’. The former poses no mystery; it is an elementary concept which tells that people tend toward what is known to them rather than to that which is unknown. Thus, a familiar brand name has the power to generate greater confidence in the quality of a product than an unknown brand name. This holds true even though no experience may exist to provide a basis for objective judgment of the product. A piece of advertising which does nothing else but to help familiarize consumers with the brand name will create a certain minimum amount of confidence in the product, and can thereby be counted on to contribute to sales. The other factor, ‘Persuasive Principle’, is often referred to as ‘copy’, what, defined in the most general of terms, is a systematic attempt to influence consumers by words, pictures, sounds, or
motion. It is this factor which is valued highly. It was also found desirable to measure its effect before placing message into media; that is, before the greatest portion of advertising expenses occur (Politz, 1975).

Evaluation of advertising according to media planning has been interesting for researchers. The involvement theory (MacInnis and Jaworski 1989; MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991) used the antecedents of message processing—motivation, opportunity, and ability as determinants for the amount of message processing that leads to a measure of advertising effectiveness. Motivation is defined as the desire to process information in the advertisement and is often referred to by other authors as the broad conceptualization of involvement (Batra and Ray, 1986). Moderating the motivation relationship between ad exposure and the processing of brand information are ability and opportunity. These two factors can stimulate or hinder a consumer’s motivation to process brand information. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) defined ability as the proficiency in interpreting brand information. Specifically related to advertising, ability refers to limited intelligence/education, limited product knowledge, and message difficulty. Opportunity is defined as situational factors that either impede or enhance brand processing. These factors include distractions, time compression of the message, and the inability of the consumer to control the pace to which the message is delivered. Essentially, factors relating to opportunity often distract the consumer from the primary task (brand processing) and toward the secondary task (e.g. reading, talking etc.).

The message response involvement theory implies that varying amounts of motivation, opportunity, and ability affect the amount of attention and cognitive capacity that is allocated to brand processing. For example, as motivation to process the advertisement increases, the amount of attention paid to the advertisement increases (primary task) and less attention is paid to the secondary task (e.g. conversation, daydreaming etc.). With increasing amount of attention paid to the advertisement, a greater amount of working memory (cognitive capacity) is allocated to processing the advertisement and brand information. Deeper processing of brand information leads to more encoding of brand information into memory (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984). At low levels of processing, cognitive responses are unrelated to the advertisement and memory effects are limited to recognition of salient ad features, and recognition of the ad is fostered by recognition of these advertisement cues. With further processing, consumers attempt to understand the meaning of the ad using existing schematic knowledge (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989). At this level, brand processing remains relatively
superficial, and only recognition of the ad and the brand is likely. Finally, at higher levels of processing, greater levels of elaboration and self-relating occurs. At this level of processing, brand information in memory is the most durable, and thus higher unaided recall scores are more likely (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Wilson & Till, 2008).

1.4.1 Studies of Media Evaluation in Advertising

Media evaluation models in advertising research are divided into six stages: Distribution of the media advertising vehicle; Audience exposure to the vehicle; Audience exposure to a specific advertisement in the vehicle; Audience perception of the advertisement; Communication of the advertising message to the audience; Eventual decision regarding whether to purchase the advertised item (ARF, Leo Burnett).

Criteria with respect to assessment of advertisements are based on the three stages: cognitive, affective and conative techniques. Cognitive techniques attempt to measure an advertisement’s ability to attract the attention, be remembered and communicate the desired message and also to analyze the levels of knowledge and understanding which an individual possesses about the advertisements, and are thus useful when the aim is to make the individual aware of the existence of a product or brand and of the benefits which it provides (Politz, 1975).

In many cognitive techniques, awareness measurements and memory tests are most widely used. Awareness measurements assess the simplest level of cognitive response—an individual’s awareness of the existence of a product, brand or company. Memory tests measure the intensity of the impact of a message through the capacity of the individual to recall and/or recognize it. Two major tests of this type are used in advertising as both pretests and post tests. Recall tests—unaided recall, aided recall and verified recall- used mainly in the audio visual media and based on a belief that the effectiveness of an advertisement increases in direct proportion to how memorable it is (Wells, Burnett and Moriarty 1992). Verbal and visual recognition tests which are widely used in the printed media and which can determine the ability of an advertisement to attract attention. In contrast with recall measurement, the main criticism of this type of test is that their score tend to be excessively high and that they do not decline significantly over long time periods (Singh and Churchill, 1987; Singh, Rothchild and Churchill, 1988). In the opinion of these authors such limitations can be countered by using (a) a large amount of ‘distracters’ similar to the advertising stimuli to be
tested, (b) a scale enabling the degree of certainty felt by the individual while making his/her response to be measured, and (c) a forced choice recognition test, rather than the most commonly used yes/no recognition test.

Affective techniques measure the attitude which an advertisement is able to generate in the individual, or a change of attitude or a reinforcement of an already existing attitude. The most commonly used affective tests are liking, attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards the brand and persuasion. The most pleasing advertisements which are most seen, the most memorable, and have a positive transfer effect on the brand and can activate a grateful response, leading the individual to identify with the brand which in turn can stimulate the purchase. As regarding attitude towards an advertisement, the aim is to detect the immediate spontaneous reaction of the individual towards an advertisement (Gelb and Pickett, 1983; Edell and Burke, 1987; Madden, Allen and Twible, 1988; Aaker, Batra and Myers, 1992). All these consider the attitude of the individual towards an advertisement to be a dichotomous variable made up of two completely separate components; the affective or emotional component, reflecting the feeling which individuals experience when exposed to an advertisement; and the cognitive or evaluative component which expresses the individual’s opinion about the quality of the advertisement, the amount of information which it provides and its usefulness. Persuasion tests determine the ability of an advertisement to provoke a change in the individual’s attitude towards the advertised brand (Nylen, 1986). Furthermore, it has been found that this type of test tends to be valid only where the advertisement is communicating something new or interesting (Wells, Burnett and Moriarty, 1992).

According to Schultz, Martin and Brown (1984), advertising objectives can be set in one of three ways: sales; Behavioral effects, when the objectives are linked to some type of behavioral activity by consumers; and communication effect, when it is necessary to define such objectives in cognitive, affective and/or conative terms. There is no single universally acceptable model, but a number of different models which deals with the same process from different perspectives and which take into account the influence of a large number of variables in the process. However, a clear sequence of all the models can be identified, such as –the result of the combination of three component of attitude: learning, feeling and doing – which a consumer must experience when making a purchase decision. According to Burnett (1984) these stages are related to the three principal functions of advertising: to inform, to create attitudes towards the object which is being advertised, and to induce action on the part of individual.
1.5 BRAND COMMUNICATION AND COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

In case of a brand, communication can be defined as a series of processes through which groups share and generate information in order to promote common interests (Rogers, 1981). The less confusion, the more effective the communication is considered to be. What counts as effective communication may vary with the immediate goal of the interlocutors (Wu & Keysar, 2007). Communication Effectiveness, which represents the achievement of an intended outcome of communication, is an important factor. Communication behaviors associated with the sharing and exchange of information improves organizational effectiveness. Massey and Kyriazis (2007) measured three underlying dimensions of communication effectiveness: communication frequency, bi-directional communication, and communication quality. Communication frequency referred to the number of communication events per unit time; bi-directional communication represented the degree to which a two-way communication process occurred between source and receiver; and communication quality was defined as the extent to which appropriate and useful information was provided through communication. Each dimension plays its own role in making effective communication. As communication frequency increases within an organization, more extensive sharing of ideas occurs between the stakeholders. Bi-directional communication allows information to be shared on a mutual, give-and-take basis during joint problem-solving or decision-making, and it thus has a positive impact on communication effectiveness. And making communication effective depends on the communication quality – how properly a message has been delivered – rather than the communication behavior itself. Since communication does not take place simply because one party thinks he/she has communicated; rather, it only occurs when the listener has understood the speaker’s intended message (Fisher and Maltz, 1997). Timely interaction may help the clients perceive good quality of service delivery. The more communication occurs, the more information can be shared. With this shared information, brands can recognize clients’ expectation of the service output and provide better technical quality. Bi-directional communication promotes collaboration and feedback during the problem solving process. Collaborative work and feedback may help more clients’ participation and better perceived functional quality. Communication quality is a measure of how reliable, understandable, appropriate, and useful the information provided through communication is judged to be (Park et al., 2013).

Shelby (1998) proposed that communication quality is composed of three quality attributes, correctness (technical quality), audience adaptation (functional quality), norm-based
preferences (aesthetic quality). From this perspective, audience adaptable communication
and aesthetic communication can improve functional service quality because the two
attributes relate to how communication was made in an audience-friendly way. Park et al.
(2012) proposed that communication quality of service provider has stronger impact on
functional quality than technical quality because clients would benefit greatly from the
information and knowledge exchanged during the service process itself. From the Shelby’s
(1998) perspective, correctness of communication can have a positive impact on service
outcome by helping appropriate information be transferred to clients.

In case of a brand, researchers have been trying to understand relationship between Actual
Effectiveness (AE) and Perceived Effectiveness (PE) to comprehend the knowledge on
effectiveness. There are also sufficient theoretical consequences to understanding the
relationship between actual and perceived effectiveness. Many theoretical perspectives
conclude that perceived effectiveness can causally influence Actual Effectiveness (AE). On
this view, persuasion can result from judging a message as effective, convincing, compelling,
and so on. On the other hand, there are theories and data showing that attitudes can shape
beliefs and related attitudes. This suggests that reality is best captured by the reverse causal
sequence in which Actual Effectiveness causes Perceived Effectiveness. The notion that
individuals would judge messages with which they agree as more effective than those with
which they disagree has considerable intuitive appeal. In fact, there are scientific reasons to
believe that, in this instance, intuition aligns with empirical reality (Dillard et al., 2007). A
conceptual definition of perceived effectiveness as an estimate of the degree to which a
persuasive message will be favorably evaluated is in terms of its persuasive potential by
recipients of that message. This definition implies that the message is taken to be the unit of
analysis. Hence, investigations of the effectiveness of message components exist at a more
microscopic level of analysis (Dillard et al., 2007).

On brand message evaluation, Heider (1958) asserted that individuals prefer that their
evaluative relationships exist in harmony with one another. If such relationships become
imbalanced, there is a tendency to restore the structure to a balanced state. Dinauer and Fink
(2005) also provided strong evidence that evaluations can influence one another. Thus, when
asked to evaluate the effectiveness of a message, individuals may be motivated to bring that
judgment into line with their preexisting attitude. According to social judgment theory (Sherif
et al., 1965), attitudes serve as the anchor against which to judge stimuli. Where a message
advocacy falls relative to one’s own attitude determines whether it will be subject to
perceptual distortion. Messages that advocate positions within the receiver’s latitude of acceptance will be viewed as more subjectively similar to the receiver’s position. This effect is predicted to produce more persuasion than would be expected from a realistic assessment of the message’s position. The reverse or contrast effect holds when the message position falls into the receivers’ latitude of rejection. This complementary perceptual bias is thought to bring about relatively less attitude change (or a boomerang) than would be expected from an objective evaluation of the discrepancy.

1.6 TOURISM BRAND COMMUNICATION: USE OF ICT AND INTERNET

Tourism and technology have been interacting with each other for many years (Buhalis and Law, 2008). From the establishment of the Computer Reservation Systems in the 1970s to the development of the internet in the late 1990s, Information & Communication Technologies (ICTs) have transformed tourism industry worldwide. Since tourism industry is information-intensive and fragmented, the information-structure created by the ICTs can integrate all aspects of the industry (Buhalis, 2003). Moreover, the ICTs provide effective and efficient tools for tourism suppliers to develop and distribute their products globally. As a result, the ICTs have increased the efficiency of tourism industry and enhanced competitiveness of tourism organizations and destinations (Buhalis, 1998). The ICT helps obtaining information and make reservation at lower time and monetary costs. It also shares traveling experience, express views and make a relationship with people from different destinations (Buhalis and Law, 2008). The interactive ability of the internet has made it an important marketing tool to communicate with consumers in tourism industry (Buhalis, 2003; Wang, 2008). However, the implementation of ICTs doesn’t guarantee improvement of its operation. Due to different capacities of organizations in understanding and leveraging the capabilities of the ICTs, not all organizations are able to effectively integrate the internet into their strategic marketing objectives. Without an in-depth understanding of both machine and human elements subsumed in e-commerce systems, some companies simply chose to duplicate successful sites (Hausman and Siekpe, 2009). As a result, browsing, searching and purchasing online become a time-consuming and frustrating experience. Since today’s consumers become highly educated and have more marketing literacy, tourism organizations face the marketing challenge of how to impact consumers through effective messages (Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie, 2006). In addition, developing and maintaining a website can be a costly effort for tourism organizations (Park and Gretzel, 2007). Website evaluation can help organizations track the performance of their websites over a period of time, and thereby facilitate
continuous improvements through comparisons of site performance against competitors and industry peers (Morrison et al., 2004). Research into destination website evaluation is limited (Wang and Russo, 2007), and no widely-accepted evaluation standard has been proposed or developed (Law and Bai, 2006).

1.7 DESTINATION BRANDING

Aaker’s definition of branding (1991) is one of the most widely used. He emphasized that the primary role of a brand is to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors (Blain et al., 2005).

Destination branding has been defined as a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience (Ritchie et al. 1998; Blain et al., 2005). Another conceptual framework is given by Hankinson (2004). His brand networks concept suggested that brand performs four main functions: (1) brands as communicators, a means of product differentiation in legally protected names, logos, and trademarks; (2) brands as perceptual entities, which appeal to the consumer’s emotions; (3) brands as value enhancers, which leads brand equity; (4) brands as relationships, brand having a personality which enables it to form a relationship with the consumer (Blain et al., 2005).

Researchers have revealed that visitors purchase individual tourism services and the entire visitor experience is what is effectively being bought (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). Traditional marketing view consumers as rational decision-makers focused on the functional features of products while experiential marketing views consumers as emotional beings, focused on achieving pleasurable experiences (Williams, 2006; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). Williams (2006) demonstrated that experiential marketing will become the dominant tool of the future.

A brand’s personality has both a head and a heart: its ‘head’ is its logical features, whereas its ‘heart’ is its emotional benefits and associations (Morgan et al., 2003; Hudson et al., 2009). Hudson & Ritchie (2009) also agreed that brand advertising is largely affected by the development of the integrated marketing communication approach; the practice of unifying all marketing communication tools so they send a consistent, persuasive message promoting the brand.
Measuring the effectiveness of a destination brand has a critical role in the brand development process. Continuous monitoring and evaluation of the communications is very important here. Nowadays, destinations tend to retool their messages more frequently than in the past (Hudson & Ritchie 2009). Visual communication can be seen as ever-present and powerful in contemporary society. Strategic communication incorporates visual images designed to capture attention, build brand names, create mindshare, produce attractive products and services, and persuade consumers. Tourism destination marketing campaigns also present images of destinations that are directed toward target markets through specific marketing channels and are designed to manufacture attitudes toward the destination (Gartner and Shen, 1992; Kerrigan et al., 2012). The importance of the Internet in the tourism industry has increased because of its ability to provide economical global accessibility, information service, customization capabilities and capacity to communicate with consumers (Baloglu and Pekcan, 2006; Wang and Fesenmaier, 2006).

These days, creating a website for tourism is no longer an option but a necessity for destination marketing organizations (DMOs). DMOs’ websites have become an information gateway to their destinations (Li & Wang, 2010). Research on the use of the Internet by DMOs in general are very few and mostly confined to United States, leaving a huge void in research for the East Asia region, which has estimated as the second largest region in international tourism by 2020 (Li & Wang, 2010).

WTO (World Tourism Organization) guidebook on indicators for tourism development concisely puts it, ‘The management of tourism affects the conditions of destinations and host communities, and more broadly, the future of ecosystems, regions and nations. Informed decisions at all scale are needed so that tourism can be a positive contributor to sustainable development in keeping with its role as a significant source of both benefits and potential stress (Kant, 2009).

1.8 ‘INCREDIBLE INDIA’ CAMPAIGN

The ‘Incredible India’, international marketing campaign of India was launched in 2002 to promote brand India as a tourist destination. ‘Incredible India’ is the mother brand of the states having own brand entities and emerged as sub-brands. The vision statement of Incredible India campaign has following objectives:

- Put India on the world tourism map and develop it as a premier holiday destination for high-yielding tourists;
- Indian should be global brand, with worldwide brand recognition and strong brand equity, especially in the trade and among the target audience.
Kant (2009) emphasized that rich tapestry that India is cannot be captured in a single word or expression but ‘Incredible’ comes close enough. At times overwhelming, but always ‘Incredible’. Distinct image for India was created using the logo ‘Incredible India’, where the exclamation mark forming the ‘I’ of India was used innovatively.

1.8.1 Key Marketing Challenges of Incredible India Campaign

- Markets
  - Move from a low-volume, low-value marketing strategy to a high-value marketing strategy;
  - Defend and enhance India’s share in traditional long-haul markets;
  - Develop strong short-haul markets;
  - Penetrate the key source market in Asia;

- Consumers
  - Target the age group of forty to sixty-five years belonging to affluent, well-educated, married, white-collar segments for a value-based strategy;
  - Convert business travel to business-cum-leisure travel;
  - Target Persons of Indian Origin (PIOs) in the US and Canadian markets;

- Position and differentiate strongly vis-à-vis key competitors in the region – China, Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia.

- Ensure active management of goodwill and the country’s image.

- Build strong sub-brands as key components of a risk minimization strategy.

- Develop spending avenues to capture higher value from each tourist (Kant, 2009)

1.8.2 Communication Strategies of ‘Incredible India’ Campaign

Every year a new creative campaign was unleashed in the global markets. The objective was always to create an impact on the consumers in a focused, targeted manner, using print backed by electronic media advertising, reinforced by online publicity and further enhanced by outdoor media (Kant, 2009). Many different themes were designed for the campaign and innovations such as online contests were used to increase user interaction. The website of Incredible India has been receiving large number of visits since its launch (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). Campaign used communication media such as print (Newspapers, Magazines), electronic (TV, Radio) and the internet, Other publicity material (Posters, Customer Information services), Public events (Consumer fairs and Exhibitions, Trade events, Festivals, Hallmark events) and also public relations, outdoor hoardings and billboards, in-
flight television advertising. For Incredible India campaign, Ministry of Tourism empanelled 15 creative agencies for the global Incredible India campaign. (Report: Evaluation Study in Selected Overseas Markets, Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India).

The brand-building process comprised personal relationships with international tour operators and journalists, partnerships, promotions, contests, use of interactive media and an aggressive communication strategy. Tourism ministry officials played role of brand managers orchestrating the future progress of the brand, motivating the private players, and constantly trying to ensure that the tourist to India got the best possible experience (Kant, 2009).

Elements of Indian culture were also used while promoting and marketing India. Musical performances by Indian artists were performed at promotional event of the brand in ITB, Berlin; WTM, London; and New York. Public relations offered a highly cost-effective and credible method to raise awareness of India as a tourist destination. The Indian tourism ministry invited leading writers, editors, tour operators and opinion-makers as its guests and pampered them from their arrival to the point of their departure. This led to India being extensively featured in almost all leading journals in key source markets, but the PR exercise that had an immense impact in the British market was the Jade Goody letter campaign in the UK (Kant, 2009).

1.8.3 Target Groups of ‘Incredible India’ Campaign

The campaign focused on markets in three distinct phases:

Phase 1: India-aware, Western and short-haul markets- the US, UK, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Singapore, Malaysia and UAE.

Phase 2: India-aware culturally linked markets- China, Japan and South Korea.

Phase 3: India-unaware, high international traveler market- Russia (Kant, 2009).

In 2005–2006, ‘Incredible India’ campaign was targeted at more affluent tourists who saw the country as a destination for interests such as yoga, ayurveda, spirituality and wildlife. The focus was on creating an unapologetic, confident and growing India. Thus it combined spectacular images of India with self-assured tone (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009).

1.8.4 Tourism Scenario in India: Achievements and Challenges

Tourism has an immense multiplier effect and if India’s growth story has to be accompanied by employment creation, tourism provides the answer. The World Tourism
Organization (WTO) Tourism 2020 vision had projected that India’s total arrivals by 2010 would be 5.08 million and by 2020 reach 8.9 million. However, India has achieved the 2010 target in 2007 itself (Kant, 2009).

Building blocks of the ‘Incredible India’ brand strategy are mentioned by Amitabh Kant (2009) in his book ‘Branding India: An Incredible Story’. These were: the campaign established what India stood for and differentiated its value proposition; a consistent transmission of communication helped in sending a simple, consistent message, thereby creating a long-standing impact on the target audience; based on inputs from travelers, foreign offices and the trade, a new campaign was launched on annual basis using web marketing, outdoor publicity and other news sites; the overall impact in terms of increased traffic flows and enhanced earnings has been impressive which helped in increasing outlay for this campaign for both infrastructure improvement and for promotion & publicity of India as a tourist destination; Regularly responding to mails, spending time with tour operators & writers and interacting with editors of leading international journals at WTM and ITB helped building image of Brand India; Constantly responding to queries and interacting with tour operators provided a radical shift towards understanding the requirements of the traveler (Kant, 2009).

The challenge of Indian tourism lies in maintaining the momentum of growth which is dependent on five critical Cs: civil aviation, civic governance, capacity building of service providers, communication strategy and convergence of tourism with other sectors of the Indian economy. On destination branding trends, Creenagh Lodge, chairperson of Corporate Edge, points out, ‘for countries as for commercial organizations, the final element in a successful brand is its ability to inspire. That inspiration is the first step for growing self-esteem. And the confidence thereby produced is the first step the power which drives the brands success. In the long-term, India’s branding exercise will succeed dramatically if the economy achieves constant levels of growth, its infrastructure radically improves, the gains of health and education systems are made widespread and poverty levels decrease. There can be no substitute for growth. Only growth will bridge the gap between the image and reality (Kant, 2009).

Monitoring tourism arrivals is one way of measuring effectiveness. But perhaps the most effective way of measuring a destination brand’s performance is to track the performance of the brand rather than individual campaigns (Wells et al., 2006, Hudson & Ritchie, 2009).
1.8.5 ‘Aitithi Devo Bhavah’ Campaign

‘Aitithi Devo Bhavah’ or ‘Guest is God’ campaign was designed to complement the Incredible India campaign. The objective of the campaign was awareness leading to a behavioral shift, sensitizing people to the need to behave responsibly towards tourists, national monuments and country’s rich heritage and culture. Its long term objective is to re-instill and re-enforce the confidence of foreign tourists towards India as a preferred holiday destination. Also, qualitatively improve the services provided by the taxi drivers, guides, immigration and custom officials.

Ministry along with advertising agency planned dynamic programs using website and other communication media to aware masses about this issue. Pan India campaign was launched to engage masses to participate online. Orkut, YouTube, Gmail and other online social networking sites were used to aware masses about the issue of tourism concern (Case Study, afaqs).

The campaign, earlier showing Bollywood celebrity actor- Shah Rukh Khan and then Aamir Khan- has broadened, focusing on aspects such as garbage collection and stopping defacement of monuments. The entire program consisted of three components: (a) Training and certification of the stakeholders such as taxi drivers, porters, baggage handlers, tour guides, restaurant owner, staff of small hotels, shop owners and staff, custom and immigration officials, airlines staff, tour operators and training them in terms of changing their attitude and behavior towards tourists, (b) PR (Public Relations), contact programs and road shows were undertaken to explain the concept of tourist trade. These contact programs were conducted in seven cities: Delhi, Mumbai, Agra, Jaipur, Goa, Hyderabad and Aurangabad, and (c) Mass media communication to create awareness and bring about an attitudinal change in the behavior of the target audience towards foreign tourists, to explain to stakeholders how it is in their own interest that more foreign should come to India, which would only be possible if they get good service and have happy experience in India, and to explain the concept of ‘Aitithi Devo Bhavah’.

The first phase of the ‘Aitithi Devo Bhavah’ campaign ran during the period January 2005 to March 2005, when 26,000 stakeholders were trained in seven cities. The mass media campaign created awareness and interest among stakeholders and general public about the need to improve the behavior towards foreign tourists. The second phase ran from November 2005 to March 2006. In this phase, a total of 52,000 stakeholders were trained (Kant, 2009). This campaign is still going on with same objective using different communication strategies.