

A COMPARISON OF NATIONAL CULTURE AND GOOD COUNTRY INDEX AS PREDICTORS OF OUTCOMES OF EFFECTIVE TOURISM MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

The current research bridges the theoretical underpinnings of reputation management, nation branding, public relations and public diplomacy. Each area of research brings unique perspectives that either directly or indirectly contribute to a tourism economy's return on investment. A positive country brand may positively affect travelers' choices of where to visit and, while visiting, their amount of spending. The purpose of this particular study is to determine how a country's culture influences its tourism expenditures and tourism visitation. The research was designed to determine if the culture of a country can predict/influence the effectiveness of tourism marketing efforts? To operationalize culture, the following two sets of scores were used: Geert Hofstede's Model of National Culture and Simon Anholt's Good Country Index. The dimensions of Hofstede's Model of National Culture are not significant predictors of a nation's ability to attract visitors and visitor spending. However, among the Good Country Index dimensions, four in particular stand out for being significantly correlated with the measures of tourism marketing: Culture; Prosperity and Equality; Planet and Climate; and Health and Wellbeing.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism, more so than most any other industry, is very complex and diversified. It offers both depth and breath for scholars who study in this field. Tourism can be viewed as locational (via city, state, region, country), as industries it represents (e.g., transportation such as air, train, and rental car to cruise lines, meetings, campgrounds, restaurants, lodging, recreation, amusement and entertainment), and as functional (leisure vs. business). Further, it can be viewed as "adjectival," which represents tourism types that have an adjective in front of them (e.g., adventure, agritourism, cultural tourism, culinary tourism, ecotourism, extreme tourism, geotourism, heritage tourism, medical tourism, nautical tourism, poverty tourism). The two broadest forms of adjective tourism are as follows: *niche tourism* (also known as specialty tourism), which focuses on the special interests of particular publics and *conceptual tourism* and includes both the tourism and travel experience and tourism landscapes and economies. The latter focuses more on theoretical and academic concepts of tourism experiences and landscapes

(e.g., domestic vs. global, active vs. passive, inbound vs. outbound, experiential, modern/postmodern, behavioral).

Further, the robustness of the travel/tourism industry can be represented numerically. In 2004, Fall and Lubbers correlated the amount spent by U.S. states and the return on investment recouped by those states from the travel and tourism sector. Recent statistics demonstrate the impact of tourism revenue across the globe and in the United States. According to the United World Tourism Organization, international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) increased by 4.3% in 2014, reaching a total 1133 million after topping the 1 billion mark in 2012. International tourism receipts reached \$1245 billion worldwide in 2014, up from \$1197 billion in 2013 (<http://alew.hubpages.com/hub/Adjectival-Tourism>), corresponding to an increase of 3.7% in real terms (taking into account exchange rate fluctuations and inflation). Forecasts prepared by UNWTO in January 2015 point to a 3% to 4% growth in international tourist arrivals in 2015. International tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) hit a record 1133 million worldwide in 2014, up from 1087 million in 2013. With 46 million, more tourists travelling the world (+4.3%), 2014 marks the fifth consecutive year of robust growth above the long-term average (+3.3% a year) since the financial crisis of 2009. World tourism accounts for 9% of the GDP (direct, indirect and induced impact), \$1.5 trillion in exports, 6% of the world's exports, 1 in 11 jobs, and 1.8 billion international tourists forecasted for 2030.

According to United States Travel Association (USTA), direct spending on leisure travel by domestic and international travelers totaled \$621.4 billion in 2013. A total of \$2.1 trillion was generated in economic output by domestic and international visitors, which includes \$887.9 billion in direct travel expenditures that spurred an additional \$1.2 trillion in other industries. A total of \$133.9 billion in tax revenue was generated by travel spending for federal, state and local governments while 2.7% percent of the nation's gross domestic product (GDP) can be attributed to travel and tourism. In 2013, U.S. travel exports (travel and passenger fare receipts) totaled \$180.7 billion and U.S. travel imports (travel and passenger fare payments) totaled \$123.6 billion, creating a trade surplus of \$57.1 billion in favor of the U.S. The U.S. received 69.8 million international arrivals in 2013, to include 31.9 million from overseas markets. Direct spending by resident and international travelers in the U.S. averaged \$2.4 billion a day, \$101.4 million an hour, \$1.7 million a minute and \$28,154 a second.

This diversified and lucrative industry is very exciting for destination marketing scholars who seek to study "pockets of people" whose behavior affects, and is affected, by the travel/tourism industry. The goal of this research is to illustrate a unique way to examine the locational perspective of travel and tourism and the possible influence of a nation's culture. Thus, the purpose of this particular study is determine how a country's culture influences its tourism marketing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nation/Place Branding

Recently, Fullerton and Kendrick (2015) have developed *The Model of Country Concept*. Borrowing heavily on research by Anholt (2007a) and Golan (2013), this model incorporates numerous disciplines, including place branding, mass media, public relations, public policy, political science and diplomacy and attempts to incorporate competing ideas about how nation branding and public diplomacy influence public opinion about nations. In this model, public diplomacy is viewed as both *mediated* and *relational*. Further, it illustrates that a country's image and reputation contribute to both country concept and nation branding. The model can also be viewed via contributions from various "agents," such as a global marketing manager, policy maker, etc. Additionally, drawing from Anholt and Hildreth's "Place Branding Hexagon" (2010) where they identified six points through which countries have contact with those in other nations, the model incorporates the following "integrants": people, brand exports, governance/policy, investment/immigration, tourism/tourism promotion and culture.

The Model of Country Concept (Fullerton & Kendrick, 2015) is built upon a foundation of research from an array of disciplines. However, Golan suggests that mediated public diplomacy is just one element in a broader perspective that he calls "integrated public diplomacy" (2013, p. 1252). The integrated approach encompasses three levels of public diplomacy: the short- to medium-termed mediated public diplomacy, the medium- to long-termed nation branding and country reputation, and the long-termed relational public diplomacy that is based on soft power programs. Golan posits that it is only through the integration of all three of these elements that governments are likely to produce positive long-term engagement outcomes.

Regarding nation branding, Golan, Yang, and Kinsey (2014, p. 421) warn that ineffective nation-branding campaigns may discredit the international standing of a nation - even waste its financial resources. However, effective nation-branding campaigns provide a strong foundation to the third level of the integrated public diplomacy model (relational diplomacy). He explains that many public relations theoretical perspectives guide this third level, ranging from excellence theory (Grunig, 1992), contingency theory (Cancel, Cameron, Sallot, & Mitrook, 1997), to relationship management theory (Ledingham, 2003) and situational theory of publics (Grunig, 1997).

Kaneva (2011) calls for an agenda of communication research that focuses on nation branding. She conducted a literature review of 186 scholarly articles published between 1997 and 2000 that focus on nation branding. Borrowing from Bell (1976), she coded them into three categories: technical-economic, political, and cultural approaches. A technical approach focuses on economic growth, capital accumulation, and efficiency – to include tourism, marketing and management studies. A political approach includes studies that examine the impact of national images on a nation's contribution to international communication and the global system – to include international relations, international communication and public relations. The cultural approach includes media and cultural studies that focus on nation branding within the context of

national and cultural identities. Kaneva acknowledges that her review is heuristic as opposed to a strict classification; therefore, inner coder reliability was not calculated. A total of 106 of the studies were characterized as technical, suggesting that during this time frame, marketing studies seemed most prevalent. Another 66 publications represented a political approach. Here she coded for public diplomacy studies, to include studies on nation branding and its comparisons and contrasts. The cultural approach only warranted 14 studies. She noted that the majority of these studies appear in communication journals and focus on critical/cultural research to include methods of ethnographic observations, political and historical, critical textual and discourse analyses.

Kaneva (2011) concludes that nation branding can also be analyzed as an ideological project, and she also suggests that future research should extend beyond ideological claims to further examine the political economy. Kaneva also posits that nation branding has moved from the realm of merely ideas to actually influencing national policies. Finally, she stresses the importance of conducting more cultural research and points out that national communities are far from homogenous. Their subnational and transnational identities play a dominant role in nation branding. The current research is designed, in part, to answer Kaneva's call for research that looks at the economic aspects of nation branding.

Country Reputation/Place Branding/Culture

In support of public diplomacy is the understanding of the importance of a country's reputation. This is also a progressive stream of research among a variety of scholars (e.g., Anholt, 2002a, 2002b, 2007a, 2007b; Fombrun, 1996; Kruckeberg & Vujnovic, 2005; Nye, 2004; Passow, Fehlmann, & Grahlow, 2005; Taylor & Kent, 2006). As these researchers suggest, a country's reputation influences the image of a country as a viable travel destination (Anholt, 2007a; Fan, 2010; Szondi, 2010). Anholt (2007a) and Anholt and Hildreth (2010) devised a model that maps out six areas of activity that countries usually undertake to build their place image through: tourism promotion activity, exported products and services, government policy decisions, business audiences, people in the country themselves, and cultural exchange and activities.

As many public relations and communication scholars have indicated (e.g., Fullerton & Kendrick, 2015; Kaneva, 2011; L'Etang et. al, 2007), culture is an important element to developing a country's reputation and strengthening its brand. Travel/tourism scholars agree. Anholt (2007a) refers to "competitive identity" and explains that when people, brands, policy, investment, tourism and culture all work together to coordinate efforts to build and maintain their national identity, then competitive identity can be achieved (p. 26). Said another way, when all these constituents work collaboratively to strategically develop their country's reputation, at home and abroad as well as internally and externally, then competitive identity is feasible.

Anholt (2008) also explains that three conditions must be met for competitive identity to succeed: strategy, substance, and symbolic actions. Strategy is defined as "knowing what a nation is and where it stands today; knowing where it wants to get to; and knowing how it is going to get there" (Anholt, 2008, p. 3). Substance represents the "effective execution of the

strategy – in the form of new economic, political, social, cultural and educational activity” (p. 3) and symbolic actions represent the components that have intrinsic communication power such as legislation, reforms, investments, or policies that are newsworthy, memorable, even suggestive (p. 3). He adds, “strategy without substance is spin.” Even worse, he states that strategy with symbolic actions, but that lacks substance, is no more than “authentic propaganda, a deliberate and schemed manipulation of public opinion designed to make people believe something different from reality,” (p. 4).

With regard to tourism and competitive identity, Anholt (2007a) advocates that global audiences view destination marketing organizations (DMOs) as legitimate country representatives. He states, “the fact that product on offer is, explicitly, or implicitly, a holiday in the country, is of secondary importance: what counts is that the messages are able to give people new information, and most importantly new images, about the country. They can tell people what the place looks like, what sort of people live there, what sorts of things those people do and make, the climate, the food, the culture and the history of the country” (p. 88). He further explains that DMOs are well positioned to enable foreign audiences to have a “vicarious visit.” That vicarious visit, often times, comes in the form of perusing a destination’s website and other marketing communication vehicles. The current study seeks to determine how showcasing a country’s *culture* affects its tourism.

Purpose of the Study

As noted in the previous literature, a nation’s branding activities through their marketing efforts may influence tourism. Said another way, a positive country brand can positively affect travelers’ choice to visit and, while visiting, spend money (AKA: the multiplier effect). Additionally, the literature review noted that a nation’s culture can greatly influence their reputation and positively or negatively affect their brand and ultimately tourism (e.g., Anholt 2007a; Fullerton & Kendrick, 2015; L’Etang et al., 2007). Finally, Kavena (2011) calls for research to move from ideological to the practical study of the influence of brand on economic factors. Thus, the purpose of this particular study is to determine how a country’s culture predicts/influences its tourism spending and tourism visitation. The following research question is being addressed.

RQ: How does the culture of a country predict/influence the effectiveness of tourism marketing efforts?

METHOD

Operationalization of Variables

This study employs a secondary data analysis. The goal of the research is to determine if measures of an individual nation's culture can predict success of their marketing efforts.

Independent/Predictor Measures

To operationalize culture, the following two sets of scores were used: Geert Hofstede's Model of National Culture (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 2001) (<http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html>) and Simon Anholt's Good Country Index (http://www.goodcountry.org/index_intro).

The Model of National Culture (see figure 1 at the end of the paper) consists of six dimensions (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 2001). The following description is taken from the website:

The scale runs from 0 - 100 with 50 as a midlevel. The rule of thumb is that if a score is under 50 the culture scores relatively LOW on that scale and if any score is over 50 the culture scores HIGH on that scale. In the case of IDV - the LOW side (under 50) is considered "Collectivist" and above 50 considered "Individualist". A country with a score of 43 would be collectivist but less collectivist than someone with 28 who is moving down toward the 0 mark. (<http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html>)

The Good Country Index data were released in 2014. The following description of the index is taken from the website. Figure 2 at the end of the paper also provides a description of the various elements of the Good Country Index.

We have used 35 reliable datasets which track the way that most countries on earth behave: there are five of these in each of seven categories, covering the big issues like education, science, war and peace, trade, culture, health, censorship, the environment, freedom, etc. Most of these datasets are produced by the United Nations and other international agencies, and a few by NGOs and other organisations. These datasets are combined into a common measure which gives an overall ranking, a ranking in each of the seven categories, and a balance-sheet for each country that shows at a glance how much it contributes to the world and how much it takes away. More technically, countries receive scores on each indicator as a fractional rank (0=top rank, 1=lowest) relative to all countries for which data is available. The category rankings are based on the mean fractional ranks on the 5 indicators per category (subject to maximum 2 missing values per category). The overall rank is based on the average of the category ranks. (<http://www.goodcountry.org/faq>)

Dependent Measures

Previous research has used a variety of methods to determine the return achieved from investment in marketing for international tourism. The two most common methods are to measure expenditures (spending) by international tourists or to measure the number of international travel arrivals.

To operationalize tourism marketing effectiveness, the two most common methods from previous research are employed: tourism visitation statistics (arrivals) and tourism expenditures statistics (revenue resulting from tourism spending). However, the size of the nation will clearly impact the amount of return that a nation can expect to achieve. Therefore, the current investigation used two common methods to standardize the return based on the size of the nation. Standardization was done based on the country's population and the nation's economy (as evidenced by its Gross Domestic Product -GDP). The combination of the two measures of marketing return and the two methods of standardization led to four measures of international travel:

- International Tourism Expenditures (in U.S.D) per 1,000 in population (123 nations)
- International Tourism Expenditures as % of national GDP (both in U.S.D) (121 nations)
- International Tourism Arrivals per 1,000 in Population (123 nations)
- International Tourism Arrivals per \$1 Million (USD) in GDP (121 nations)

Data Analysis

To examine the data, Hofstede's six cultural dimension scores and Anholt's Good Country Index score as well as the scores on the seven subscales were used as predictor variables in linear regression analysis. The thirteen predictor variables were entered into four, linear regression analyses, one for each of the four dependent variables described earlier.

RESULTS / DISCUSSION

Prior to presenting the results for the regression analyses, it is informative to review the results for the four dependent variables that were computed for the regression analysis. Since there were data for over 120 nations, it seemed impractical to present the score for each nation on each measure. However, Table 1 attempts to provide for the reader an understanding of the range of scores achieved in the measures of international travel marketing. The nations with the top 10 scores and the bottom 10 are provided to demonstrate the range. The mean and median values for each measure are included, as well as the score for the United States.

TABLE 1: TOP 10, BOTTOM 10, MEAN AND MEDIAN VALUES FOR THE FOUR MEASURES OF TOURISM RETURN

International Tourism Expenditures (in U.S.D) per 1,000 in Population		International Tourism Expenditures as % of national GDP		International Tourism Arrivals per 1,000 in Population		International Tourism Arrivals per \$1 Million (USD) in GDP	
Country	\$	Country	%GDP	Country	Arr/1000	Country	Arr/GDP
Luxembourg	6864.19	Albania	12.132	Malta	3701.42	Kyrgyzstan	419.36
Qatar	5171.71	Lebanon	10.410	Austria	2907.38	Georgia	334.08
Singapore	4493.24	Lesotho	10.057	Croatia	2585.92	Cambodia	276.46
Norway	3676.06	Singapore	8.132	Iceland	2442.08	Lao, D. R.	224.32
Kuwait	3583.41	Kuwait	7.091	Estonia	2183.24	Albania	221.19
Iceland	2594.71	Kyrgyzstan	6.885	Singapore	2175.32	Lesotho	201.61
Switzerland	2189.80	Cyprus	6.667	Cyprus	2085.76	Malawi	198.27
Belgium	2136.35	Luxembourg	6.348	Ireland	1790.70	Croatia	189.31
Sweden	2058.30	Qatar	5.771	Luxembourg	1699.41	Malta	164.06
U.A.E.	1873.78	Yemen	5.702	Greece	1635.37	Botswana	143.20
Mean	558.15	Mean	2.57	Mean	522.32	Mean	54.14
Median	139.31	Median	2.02	Median	273.23	Median	28.72
Mozambique	11.71	India	0.743	Tanzania	20.94	Australia	4.09
Zambia	11.45	Pakistan	0.697	Sudan	15.25	Iraq	3.84
India	10.92	Sudan	0.692	Belarus	14.47	India	3.74
Benin	9.06	Japan	0.655	Madagascar	8.31	Venezuela	2.66
Pakistan	8.74	Zambia	0.641	India	5.50	Brazil	2.43
Bangladesh	8.18	Turkey	0.640	Pakistan	5.22	Japan	2.11
Malawi	6.00	Congo, D.R	0.566	Nigeria	3.36	Belarus	1.87
Madagascar	4.67	Kenya	0.317	Moldova	3.23	Kuwait	1.71
Kenya	3.82	Botswana	0.315	Congo, D.R.	2.75	Nigeria	1.17
Congo, D R	2.45	Angola	0.257	Bangladesh	0.93	Bangladesh	0.99
United States	428.74		.815		218.81		4.16

Several important trends are immediately evident by reviewing Table 1. First, when the size of the nation is held constant, many of the countries that are traditionally seen as the “top” international tourism destinations drop from the top of the list. For example, none of the top-ten in Table 1 appear in Bloomberg’s list of the top-10 nations based on the number of international tourists (Top tourist destinations, nd). Thus, the standardization of the data to take into account the size of the nation has created a more equal field upon which to compare the tourism efforts of nations.

A second finding from an analysis of Table 1 is that the United States, while number two on Bloomberg’s “Top tourist destinations” is more commonly near the bottom when the size of the nation is held constant. In fact, for the two measures based on GDP, the U.S. score on the measure was just above the bottom 10 on the list of over 120 nations.

Third, by reviewing the Table 1 measures that have been standardized by GDP, it is easy to see which nations are the most dependent on international tourism as a component of their nation’s economy. Over 10% of the GDP of Albania, Lebanon and Lesotho comes from international tourism. The economies of those nations near the top of the list will be the most susceptible to cyclical fluctuations in travel, since their GDP from travel is five times the median percentage

(2.02%) of the GDP for the 123 nations for which data is available. At the bottom end of Table 1, the nations may be there not because they have an insignificant amount of international travel. Rather, nations such as the United States, Australia and Japan, are near the bottom on measures standardized by GDP, because they have robust economies with a significantly smaller amount coming from tourism. Those nations that currently receive a very small portion of their economic prosperity from international travel, and that have relatively small economies (e.g., Sudan, D. R. Congo, and Nigeria), will have the easiest time showing a marked improvement to their economy through tourism marketing efforts. Of course, the success of any tourism marketing efforts will be impacted by the presence of conflicts, world economic realities, etc.

In an attempt to answer the research question regarding whether the country's culture can help to predict the success of international tourism marketing efforts, several linear regression analyses were conducted. The results of the analyses are presented according to the dependent variable in the equation.

International Tourism Expenditures (in U.S.D) per 1,000 in population (123 nations)

Table 2 presents the results of the regression equation with the dependent variable being the international tourism expenditures (spending) per 1,000 in population of the host nation. The thirteen independent measures discussed earlier were entered into the equation and the result was statistically significant ($R^2=.448$; $p<.001$). As noted on Table 2, one of the predictor variables had a t value that was statistically significant below .05, and two more had values between .05 and the more lenient 0.1. Thus, the Good Country Index dimensions of Planet and Climate, Prosperity and Equality and Health and Wellbeing provided significant contributions to explaining the variance. The negative coefficient values are consistent with the lower scores (indicating the country was better in this category) being correlated with higher rates of tourist expenditures.

**TABLE 2: COEFFICIENTS TABLE FOR DEPENDENT MEASURE:
EXPENDITURES PER 1,000 POPULATION**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Err	Beta		
(Constant)	3235.169	1390.414		2.327	.023
GC-Index-Rank	11.978	14.029	.405	.854	.397
GC-Science & Technology	1.911	6.831	.064	.280	.781
GC-Culture	-14.081	9.217	-.451	-1.528	.132
GC-Int'l Peace & Security	-5.772	5.577	-.193	-1.035	.305
GC-World Order	.545	5.660	.018	.096	.924
GC-Planet & Climate	-11.652	5.719	-.381	-2.037	.046
GC-Prosperity & Equality	-8.372	4.335	-.294	-1.931	.058
GC-Health & Wellbeing	-7.632	4.437	-.262	-1.720	.091
Power Distance	-1.594	8.302	-.030	-.192	.848
Individualism	-.273	8.935	-.006	-.031	.976
Masculinity	-4.744	5.788	-.086	-.820	.416
Uncertainty Avoidance	-8.010	5.879	-.155	-1.362	.178
Long term Orient	7.660	6.551	.164	1.169	.247
Indulgence	-1.408	6.419	-.030	-.219	.827

Note: $R^2 = .44$; $p < .001$

International tourism expenditures as % of national GDP (both in U.S.D) (121 nations)

Table 3 presents the results of the regression equation with the dependent variable being the international tourism expenditures (spending) as a percentage of the nation's Gross Domestic Production. The thirteen independent measures discussed earlier were entered into the equation and the resulting model was on the margin of demonstrating statistical significance ($R^2=.295$; $p<.055$) and explained just less than 30% of the variance. As noted on Table 3, two of the predictor variables had t values that were statistically significant at or below .05. Thus, the Good Country Index dimensions of Culture and Prosperity and Equality provided significant contributions to explaining the variance. The negative coefficient values are consistent with the lower scores (indicating the country was better in this category) being correlated with higher rates of tourist expenditures.

**TABLE 3: COEFFICIENTS TABLE FOR DEPENDENT MEASURE:
EXPENDITURES AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Err	Beta		
(Constant)	7.373	2.891		2.550	.013
GC-Index-Rank	.026	.029	.480	.896	.374
GC-Science & Technology	.004	.014	.072	.279	.781
GC-Culture	-.045	.019	-.785	-2.353	.022
GC-Int'l Peace & Security	-.010	.012	-.188	-.890	.377
GC-World Order	.002	.012	.042	.194	.847
GC-Planet & Climate	-.019	.012	-.334	-1.581	.119
GC-Prosperity & Equality	-.018	.009	-.351	-2.042	.046
GC-Health & Wellbeing	-.003	.009	-.047	-.274	.785
Power Distance	.027	.017	.285	1.592	.116
Individualism	-.001	.019	-.012	-.061	.952
Masculinity	.005	.012	.047	.398	.692
Uncertainty Avoidance	-.020	.012	-.213	-1.651	.104
Long term Orient	-.010	.014	-.114	-.717	.476
Indulgence	-.030	.013	-.338	-2.224	.030

Note: $R^2 = .295$; $p < .055$

International tourism arrivals per 1,000 in population (123 nations).

Table 4 presents the results of the regression equation with the dependent variable being the international tourism arrivals per 1,000 in population of the host nation. The thirteen independent measures were entered into the equation and the result was statistically significant ($R^2=.42$; $p<.001$). As noted on Table 4, only one of the predictor variables (Culture) had a t value that was statistically significant at or below .05, thus providing a significant contribution to explaining the variance. The negative coefficient value for the Culture dimension is consistent with the lower score (indicating the country was better in this category) being correlated with higher rates of international tourist arrivals.

**TABLE 4: COEFFICIENTS TABLE FOR DEPENDENT MEASURE:
INTERNATIONAL TOURISM ARRIVALS BY 1,000 POPULATION**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Err	Beta		
(Constant)	2456.494	1024.562		2.398	.020
GC-Index-Rank	-.391	10.104	-.019	-.039	.969
GC-Science & Technology	2.200	4.923	.104	.447	.657
GC-Culture	-18.640	6.705	-.838	-2.780	.007
GC-Int'l Peace & Security	-2.407	3.977	-.115	-.605	.547
GC-World Order	3.230	4.043	.155	.799	.428
GC-Planet & Climate	-4.369	4.171	-.203	-1.047	.299
GC-Prosperity & Equality	2.083	3.096	.105	.673	.504
GC-Health & Wellbeing	-2.077	3.257	-.101	-.638	.526
Power Distance	-4.563	5.918	-.126	-.771	.444
Individualism	-7.309	6.690	-.215	-1.093	.279
Masculinity	2.219	4.147	.058	.535	.595
Uncertainty Avoidance	-1.715	4.205	-.048	-.408	.685
Long term Orient	-.681	4.702	-.021	-.145	.885
Indulgence	-2.514	4.578	-.076	-.549	.585

Note: $R^2 = .42$; $p < .001$

International tourism arrivals per \$1 million (USD) in GDP (121 nations)

Table 5 presents the correlation coefficients of the regression equation with the dependent variable being the international tourism arrivals (visitors) per \$1 Million (U.S.D.) of the nation's Gross Domestic Production. The thirteen predictor measures were entered into the equation and the resulting model explained just over 25% of the variance, but was not statistically significant ($R^2=.258$; $p < .142$). As noted on Table 5, only one of the predictor variables (Culture) had a t value that was statistically significant at or below a more lenient standard of 0.1. No variable's t value had a significance value of .05 or less. The negative coefficient values are consistent with the lower scores (indicating the country was better in this category) being correlated with higher rates of tourist expenditures.

**TABLE 5. COEFFICIENTS TABLE FOR DEPENDENT MEASURE:
INTERNATIONAL TOURISM ARRIVALS (VISITORS) PER \$1 MILLION
IN GDP**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Err	Beta		
(Constant)	73.672	68.895		1.069	.289
GC-Index-Rank	-.365	.679	-.293	-.537	.593
GC-Science & Technology	.281	.331	.224	.849	.399
GC-Culture	-.842	.451	-.637	-1.867	.067
GC-Int'l Peace & Security	-.035	.267	-.028	-.132	.895
GC-World Order	.140	.272	.113	.514	.609
GC-Planet & Climate	.146	.280	.115	.522	.604
GC-Prosperity & Equality	.073	.208	.062	.352	.726
GC-Health & Wellbeing	.220	.219	.180	1.004	.320
Power Distance	.433	.398	.201	1.089	.280
Individualism	-.266	.450	-.131	-.591	.557
Masculinity	.028	.279	.013	.102	.919
Uncertainty Avoidance	.010	.283	.005	.037	.971
Long term Orient	-.322	.316	-.167	-1.017	.313
Indulgence	-.444	.308	-.227	-1.442	.154

Note: $R^2 = .258$; $p < .142$, NS

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the regression runs provide several important findings. First, none of the culture dimensions provided by Holstede and others were found to have t-values that were statistically significant in any of the four regressions. Thus, it would appear that the dimensions of Hofstede's Model of National Culture are not significant predictors of a nation's ability to attract visitors and visitor spending. An explanation for this finding is discussed below. A second finding from the regression results is that standardizing the nation's return on international travel marketing (spending and arrivals/visitors) with the nation's Gross Domestic Production, may have obscured any significant correlations, so that only the Good Country dimension of "Culture" was significant to emerge. Standardizing the results around the nation's population appeared to be superior. A final important finding is that among the Good Country Index dimensions, four in particular stand out for being significantly correlated with the measures of tourism marketing: Culture; Prosperity and Equality; Planet and Climate; and Health and Wellbeing.

The culture of one's country plays a very important role in international destination branding. This study introduced one way to determine how culture contributes to the tourism economy. Like any studies, it poses limitations. First, the authors did their best to obtain scores that all

represent the same year. However, the Hofstede cultural dimensions are from the 1980s while the Good Country Scores represent an index of scores that were generally drawn from 2009-2013. Thus, future investigations should continue to strive obtain the most recent data and to attempt to collect data for all variables during the same time period.

A second limitation is that the Good Country dimensions were used as the unit of analysis. This study serves as a springboard for future studies that may examine other aspects that may impact tourism marketing effectiveness. Our results do suggest a creative way to determine if culture matters. Given that the Good Country dimensions of Culture; Prosperity and Equality; Planet and Climate; and Health and Wellbeing, were significant in one or more regression, perhaps they should be further examined in the future to see if and how they influence tourism efforts. Additionally, the authors suggest that other index scores be examined (e.g., Social Progress Index, Country Brand Index, OECD Better Life Index, Edelman Trust Barometer, Gallup Well-Being Index, Happiest Countries Index, etc.). Further, future studies may consider using updated scores developed by Fernandez, Carlson, Stepina & Nicholson (1997). The authors did not use these updated scores because they only represented nine countries.

Since the tourism industry is as diverse as the travelers who visit, the research agenda for travel and tourism scholars is as robust as the industry itself. As a “service provider to the economy,” the travel/tourism industry plays a key role in enhancing public diplomacy among visitors to and from other nations. The current investigation appears to support the notion that elements of a nation’s culture can influence the level of international travel that the nation receives.

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Power Distance: This dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. The fundamental issue here is how a society handles inequalities among people. People in societies exhibiting a large degree of Power Distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low Power Distance, people strive to equalise the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.

Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV): The high side of this dimension, called individualism, can be defined as a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Its opposite, collectivism, represents a preference for a tightly-knit framework in society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. A society's position on this dimension is reflected in whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "we."

Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS): The Masculinity side of this dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. Society at large is more competitive. Its opposite, femininity, stands for a preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. Society at large is more consensus-oriented. In the business context Masculinity versus Femininity is sometimes also related to as "tough versus gender" cultures.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index: (UAI): The Uncertainty Avoidance dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. The fundamental issue here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? Countries exhibiting strong UAI maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. Weak UAI societies maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

Long Term Orientation vs. Short Term Normative Orientation (LTO): Every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and the future. Societies prioritize these two existential goals differently. Societies who score low on this dimension, for example, prefer to maintain time-honoured traditions and norms while viewing societal change with suspicion. Those with a culture which scores high, on the other hand, take a more pragmatic approach: they encourage thrift and efforts in modern education as a way to prepare for the future.

Indulgence vs. Restraint (IND): Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms.

Definitions are taken directly from the Hofstede website, where the data are located:
<http://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html>

FIGURE 1. HOFSTEDE'S MODEL OF NATIONAL CULTURE

Science, Technology & Knowledge

- Number of foreign students studying in the country relative to GDP
- Exports of periodicals, scientific journals and newspapers relative to GDP
- Number of articles published in international journals (2009 latest data) relative to GDP
- Number of Nobel prize winners relative to GDP
- Number of International Patent Cooperation Treaty applications relative to GDP

Culture

- Exports of creative goods (UNCTAD's Creative Economy Report categorisation) relative to GDP
- Exports of creative services (UNCTAD's Creative Economy Report categorisation) relative to GDP
- UNESCO dues in arrears as percentage of contribution (negative indicator)
- Number of countries and territories that citizens can enter without a visa
- Freedom of the press (based on mean score for Reporters without Borders and Freedom House index as a negative indicator)

International Peace and Security

- Number of peacekeeping troops sent overseas relative to GDP
- Dues in arrears to financial contribution to UN peacekeeping missions as percentage of contribution (negative indicator)
- Attributed number of casualties of international organised violence relative to GDP (negative indicator)
- Exports of weapons and ammunition relative to GDP (negative indicator)
- Global Cyber Security Index score (negative indicator)

World Order

- Percentage of population that gives to charity as proxy for cosmopolitan attitude
- Number of refugees hosted relative to GDP
- Number of refugees overseas relative to GDP (negative indicator)
- Population growth rate (negative indicator)
- Number of treaties signed as proxy for diplomatic action and peaceful conflict resolution

Planet and Climate

- National Footprint Accounts Biocapacity reserve (2009)
- Exports of hazardous waste relative to GDP (only 2008 and 2011 data available, so 2011 data used as negative indicator)
- Organic water pollutant (BOD) emissions relative to GDP (2007 latest data as negative indicator)
- CO₂ emissions relative to GDP (negative indicator)
- Methane + nitrous oxide + other greenhouse gas (HFC, PFC and SF₆) emissions relative to GDP (negative indicator)

Prosperity and Equality

- Trading across borders (open trading performance compared to best practice; i.e. IFC distance to frontier score)
- Number of aid workers and volunteers sent overseas relative to GDP
- Fairtrade market size relative to GDP
- Foreign Direct Investment outflow relative to GDP

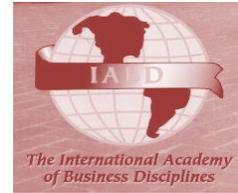
- Development cooperation contributions (aid) relative to GDP

Health and Wellbeing

- Amount of wheat tonnes equivalent food aid shipments relative to GDP
- Exports of pharmaceuticals relative to GDP
- Voluntary excess contributions to World Health Organisation relative to GDP
- Humanitarian aid contributions relative to GDP
- Drug seizures (pure cocaine equivalent kilograms) relative to GDP

Descriptions are taken directly from the website, where the data are located:
http://www.goodcountry.org/index_intro

FIGURE 2. GOOD COUNTRY INDEX



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