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A marketing design approach
to destination development

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Acknowledgements

Abstract

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An increasing demand for environmental, socio-cultural and political aspects has led to that more integrated methods of tourism planning has evolved, which emphasize sustainability as a key factor. However, it is argued that the term sustainability is used carelessly and that the social aspect is often overlooked. In this thesis, local participation is dealt with as an aspect of social sustainability in tourism. Participation has gained ground due to its possibility to handle issues such as reluctance from communities and competing interests among stakeholders. There are too many projects that have failed, why participation is also motivated by increased effectiveness and efficiency of initiatives. However, participation takes place in theory and planning documents but rarely in practice, and it could be argued that the level of participation is often low, considering local communities merely as passive informants. This is an especially interesting and important aspect in projects in developing countries, where unequal power relations is an issue that must be considered throughout, to avoid development workers seeing themselves as legitimised civilisers.

Two destination development processes have been identified in this thesis as moving towards a view that stakeholders should take part in the process: place branding and experience innovation. It is however discussed how this participation can take place. Design allows for empathy, intuition and user involvement, and the evolutionary nature of the design process fits well with how scholars describe place branding and experience innovation. The purpose with this thesis is to demonstrate how design can enhance participation in place branding and experience innovation in order to achieve sustainable destination development. The case is an ecotourism site by Lake Victoria in Kenya where a collaborative and action-oriented approach is used for developing the destination. The active involvement as facilitator, partner and participant observer contributes to an in-depth understanding of the context and the situation.

The study reveals a process that is evolutionary and where visualisation as communication and idea generating tool is at the core. The theoretical contribution is a beginning of an understanding of how participatory processes in destination development can take place where marketing and design get the opportunity to collaborate. The practical contribution is inspiration, motivation and tools to work for sustainable destination development.

Keywords: destination development, place branding, participatory design, experience innovation

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Sammanfattning

Destinationsutveckling med en marknadsföring-design-approach

En ökad efterfrågan på miljömässiga, sociokulturella och politiska aspekter har lett till att mer integrerade metoder för turismplanering har utvecklats som betonar hållbarhet som en nyckelfaktor. Det hävdas dock att begreppet hållbarhet används vårdslöst och att den sociala aspekten ofta förbises. I denna uppsats behandlas lokalt deltagande som en aspekt av social hållbarhet inom turism. Deltagandeprocesser har vunnit mark på grund av möjligheten att hantera frågor som ovilja från medborgare och konkurrerande intressen bland intressenter. Det finns alltför många projekt som har misslyckats, varför deltagande också motiveras av ökad effektivitet och ändamålsenlighet. Deltagandet sker dock ofta i planeringsdokument men sällan i praktiken, och det hävdas att nivån på deltagandet ofta är låg. Lokala intressenter ses då enbart som passiva informanter. Detta är en särskilt intressant och viktig aspekt för projekt i utvecklingsländer, där ojämlika maktförhållanden är en fråga som bör beaktas under hela processen för att undvika att projektarbetare ser sig själva som legitimerade civilisatörer.

I den här uppsatsen har två destinationsutvecklingsprocesser identifierats där det framhålls att intressenterna bör delta: platsvarumärke och upplevelseinnovation. Det har dock diskuteras hur detta deltagande ska se ut. Design medger empati, intuition och deltagarengagemang, och designprocessens evolutionära natur lämpar sig för hur forskare beskriver platsvarumärkes- och upplevelseinnovationsprocesserna. Syftet med uppsatsen är att visa på hur design kan öka deltagandet i platsvarumärkes- och upplevelseinnovationsprocesser för att uppnå hållbar destinationsutveckling. Fallet är en ekoturismort vid Viktoriasjön i Kenya där en samverkande och aktionsorienterad metod används för att utveckla destinationen. Ett aktivt engagemang som facilitator, partner och deltagande observatör bidrar till en fördjupad förståelse av sammanhanget och situationen.

Studien visar en process som är evolutionär och där visualisering som kommunikations- och idégenererande verktyg är kärnan. Det teoretiska bidraget är en början på ökad förståelse för hur deltagandeprocesser i destinationsutveckling kan se ut där marknadsföring och design får tillfälle att samverka. Det praktiska bidraget är inspiration, motivation och verktyg för att arbeta för hållbar destinationsutveckling.

Nyckelord: destinationsutveckling, platsvarumärke, deltagande design, upplevelseinnovation

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Prologue

On the second year of the master programme in Business & Design I started working closely with Helena Kraff, who is a trained designer, in a project with Bollebygd municipality. We mixed methods from business administration and design for the purpose of developing the municipality's place brand. The organisations and residents were invited to be part of the development from the start and we organised workshops, presentations, and a project space in the town centre where people could come in and where we could also sit and work. The open types of questions that we posed, and the openness to methods, tools and people we worked with set me in a working situation that was new to me. Also the way Helena and I worked together inspired both of us to continue, so we decided to start a company together after the year in Bollebygd. We carried on working with combining design and marketing methods in different projects, although we found it hard to get those long-term contracts where we could have the time to reflect, work further on something that came up and being open with methods and new steps. At the same time we looked for funding for PhD studies, since we thought we had something important to say: the integration of business administration (marketing in particular) and design as an advantage for place development. The opportunity came up, with very good help from professor Ulla Johansson-Sköldberg who was the director of Business and Design Lab that was closely connected to our master programme. Also there were our future supervisors: professor Maria Nyström and professor Lena Mossberg. Maria was the project leader for a new venture with Mistra Urban Futures (MUF), the Kisumu Local Interaction Platform (KLIP) in Kenya. Lena was the director of Centre for Tourism that we had earlier received some seed money from. We all met in Maria's apartment a sunny day in March 2012. Helena Hansson, who by then was a teacher at HDK (School of Design and Crafts) was also there interested in becoming a PhD student. All of us started almost directly with proposals and preparations for PhD studies. Two fantastic years were ahead of us, full of experiences.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Tourism's rapid growth calls for a greater commitment to the principles of sustainability to harness tourism's benefits and mitigate its possibly negative impacts on societies and the environment (World Tourism Organization, 2013, p 26).

Sustainable destination development through participation

The increasing demand for environmental, socio-cultural and political aspects in tourism has resulted in more integrated methods of tourism planning (Fazenda et al, 2010). Responsible tourism operations and tourism consumption are on the agenda, which have led actors such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and several tour operators to enhance sustainability as a key issue (Fazenda et al, 2010; World Tourism Organization, 2013). However, the complexity of sustainable development has made the approaches to reach it diverse. The term is often referred to as being used carelessly and it seems to mean different things to different people (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). There has also been an over-emphasis on the environmental dimension of sustainability and tourism scholars argue for a more holistic view. Camilleri (2014, p 43) points to that "there is a need for globally accepted guidelines that equally emphasise on both environmental and socio-cultural issues". He claims that the discussions are often around theories defining the concepts, rather than about business cases and "how to trigger active participation in the tourism industry" (Camilleri, 2014, p 42).

Participation from and partnership with local stakeholders are said to give several positive effects on destination development. First, it makes it possible to handle more and other types of topics and avoid conflicts. Byrd (2007) points to participation's capability to avoid a top-down approach where experts make decisions that do not reflect the community interests, and the ability to balance conflicts between stakeholder groups and competing interests within the decision making system (Byrd, 2007). A second important argument is the democratic right for people to take part in processes that affect them. People live, work and have other stakes in the destinations and it is argued that they need to be involved in the development. Politicians have "failed to represent grassroots" and it has evoked "feelings of alienation towards governmental decision-making" (Tosun, 2000, p 615). This has led to that governments need to justify their actions in response to community actions. A third main consideration is the pragmatic point; that there have been too many failures of plans and decision-making processes (Tosun, 2000).

Various approaches have been used by tourism scholars to understand and describe participation, such as stakeholder theory (e.g. Byrd, 2007; Zhao and Ritchie, 2007), collaboration theory (e.g. Jamal and Getz, 1995) and similar, often in combination with practice-based concepts such as community tourism planning (e.g. Jamal and Getz, 1995), cooperative tourism planning (Dallen, 1998) and community-based tourism (CBT, e.g. Okazaki, 2008). Terms and expressions frequently mentioned include ownership, partnership, empowerment, openness, transparency and mutual goals. The importance of participation has been especially emphasised regarding tourism and development studies in developing countries with studies of for example pro-poor tourism (PPT,

e.g. Ashley et al, 2000) and anti-poverty tourism (APT, e.g. Zhao and Ritchie, 2007) which underscore tourism as a way for people to come out of poverty. Most of the development organisations now refer to their work as partnerships, trying to do things not *for* people but *with* them (Eriksson-Baaz, 2005, p 3).

However, to create equal relationships has proved to be difficult. There are few examples from destination development projects where community participation has been successful, especially in developing countries. Participation, local decision-making and economic benefits for local residents take place in planning documents but rarely in practice, according to Timothy (1999), and Tosun (2000, p 614) argue that "there seems to be no evidence which shows that participatory tourism development practices have gone beyond community consultation or manipulative participation in the developing world". Wall and Mathieson (2006) state that public participation is a positive contribution in theory, however in practice it is "difficult to arrive at decisions which are socially and environmentally acceptable and, at the same time, economically feasible". In the practice of development aid, Eriksson-Baaz (2005, p 6) points to that the lack of sustainability is "often attributed to partners' organizational and institutional capacity and aid-dependence" (Eriksson-Baaz, 2005, p 7). She argues that this perspective downplays the role of inequality in power relations and interest conflicts. It also restrains the ways in which "policies and concepts are appropriated and reinterpreted by different actors in the process" (Eriksson-Baaz, 2005, p 8-9). Thus, development workers who see themselves as legitimized "to civilize and develop the underdeveloped" (Eriksson-Baaz, 2005, p 37) take the risk of not fully emphasising the power relations this view encompasses.

Defining areas of interest for the study

The increasing interest from scholars and practitioners to move towards participation calls for alternative ways of working that are inclusive and participatory. In this thesis, there are several connections to sustainable development and participation. The thesis stems from a project funded by Mistra Urban Futures (MUF) and their local interaction platform in Kisumu, Kenya (KLIP). At KLIP senior researchers and PhD students from Sweden and Kenya work in collaboration with local organizations in Kisumu and its environs in order to enhance sustainable ecotourism and marketplace development. This context has influenced the thesis in many ways, for example the choice of case and parts of the research methodology. The close relationship I have with Helena Kraff, the PhD student in design who I worked with for three years before our PhD studies started, is also a great part of the thesis. Our common framework for the project was participatory design and marketing, applied to tourism since we were connected to Centre for Tourism. All this led me to an overall theme: integration of marketing and design in destination development. Destination development has traditionally been recognised as an area where marketers promote places for tourists, and relationships and stakeholder involvement has been a common theme in marketing for decades. However, destination development and participatory design is not yet as common to combine although design has moved towards new applications.

In participatory design users are entitled to be part of issues that concern them (Björgvinsson et al, 2012, p 103). The breakthrough of participatory design is connected to a "design-by-doing"

approach (Ehn, 1993, p 58) recognised as a form of democratic learning with its roots in workers' unions in Scandinavia and later in groups of workers and designers who operated in collaborative processes by means of representations such as prototypes, mockups, simulations and scenarios to state what is not possible to express by language (Ehn, 1993, p 67). Since then the participatory design practice has evolved from workplaces to the public sphere (Hillgren, 2013, p 76), and it now includes projects within fields such as health care, education, crime prevention, and community development. The application has moved from a product perspective towards "designing for people's purposes" (Sanders and Stappers, 2008, p 10), and involves services as well as societal needs, taking "a larger scope of enquiry" (Sanders and Stappers, 2008, p 10). The emerging design practice will, according to Sanders and Stappers (2008, p 11) "change what we design, how we design, and who designs". For example, they refer to a project with American nurses who co-designed their ideal future patient room by using a 3D-kit for prototyping (Sanders, 2006). However, the applications referred to in design literature are rarely examples of longer processes that involve multiple stakeholders, and take the larger scope of enquiry. One reason is that politics, with its hierarchy and bureaucracy, tend to keep decision-making within the system (Staszowski et al, 2014). Staszowski et al (2014, p 1) propose that designers need to "re-focus efforts on examining and re-distributing the decision-making processes", and to create stronger relationships. Connecting to sustainable destination development, I therefore find it interesting to explore participatory processes where the product is indefinite and the stakeholders are multiple, and integrate them with participatory design.

I have recognised two processes which have started to adopt a participatory view. The first is place branding, or in the tourism context destination branding[1]. The importance of stakeholder involvement has increasingly been pronounced within place branding (e.g. Aitken and Campelo, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Lucarelli, 2012; Kavaratzis, 2012; Warnaby, 2009). For example, Pike (2005) argues that destination brand implementation will fail if we go on dealing with only one target audience, and according to Braun et al (2013) this calls for a new approach to branding being not only about communication but about participation. If stakeholders act as partners they will feel more responsible for the long-term development of the place (Braun et al, 2013), however new methodologies for involvement and co-creation are needed (Kavaratzis, 2012). My first research question reflects the conversation in place branding literature as well as the evolvement of participatory design towards new forms of applications.

RQ 1: How can community involvement be reached by an integration of design to the place branding process?

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[1] The place when it comes to tourism is often referred to as the destination (the place where you go), and similarly destination branding refers to the tourism dimension of place branding. The tourists are not interested in which company produces each of the services provided, but see the brand as an entity, which could be a tourist resort, a city, a region or a nation (Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009). From the producer's point of view, the situation is more complex. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) propose that the ideal situation would be that all the brand contacts support a coherent brand identity of a place. This might be applicable to corporate branding, however since there are a lot of actors and stakeholders involved and there is a lot of "noise, fuss and competitors' actions that change and redirect the message" (Moilanan and Rainisto, p. 18), it is a challenge for place branders. As Domínguez García et al (2013, p 125) point out, "[p]lace branding requires connection of the worlds of private, public sector and knowledge institutions", and this holds also for destination branding. Moreover, from a sustainability perspective the environmental and social aspects have to be considered (Domínguez García et al, 2013). This means that the branding of a place need to be approached differently. Taking this wider point of departure, I consider the literature on place branding to be applicable to destination branding, and I have chosen to use place branding as the overall notion in this thesis.

Another process identified as moving towards a participatory view is the experience innovation process, which is at the core when developing a destination. It could be argued as being a specific part of place branding. The discussion around experience logic is central to the research area since researchers want to find out the specific characteristics of experience innovation in relation to other innovation (e.g. Eide and Mossberg, 2013). In the overall innovation literature scholars have highlighted the importance of multiple stakeholders, relationships and interactions in alliances, joint ventures and networks, as sources of knowledge in the innovation process (Ayuso et al, 2006). However, knowledge integration as a resource for sustainable development has not been enough emphasised (Ayuso et al, 2006) and community action as an innovative activity has been neglected (Seyfang and Smith, 2007). In experience innovation literature, involvement from employees, customers and partners has been pointed out as crucial for innovations to take place (Eide and Fuglsang, 2013; Fuglsang *et al*, 2011; Sørensen and Sundbo, 2014). Innovative activities often come about in spatially clustered areas, and therefore the social interaction has come to be seen as crucial to investigate further (Asheim and Gertler, 2005). Just as scholars in place branding, tourism literature has pointed out a need for new methodologies (Hjalager, 2010), preferably user-based (Sørensen and Sundbo, 2014). It is also argued that a cross-disciplinary manner is required (Hjalager, 2010). These characteristics of methodology to reach a collaborative innovation process call for an integration with participatory design since the latter is a field where this methodology has been used for many years. The second question is:

RQ 2: How can tourism experience innovation processes be understood and developed using a design approach?

By exploring the above questions first separately and then together, I aim to get a deeper understanding of how participatory design can be integrated with marketing, in particular destination development and with focus on the two processes of place branding and experience innovation. Viewing place branding as a sustainable process it involves not only managers and governments but local communities as partners. Sustainable experience innovation processes similarly involve those people that are affected by the outcome and who are close to the daily performance. New ways of dealing with knowledge integration and participation is needed, and that is where participatory design is interesting to consider as an alternative worth exploring. By studying participation with local communities in those two processes, I propose that there are a lot of things to learn which could contribute to taking a step towards sustainable destination development.

Purpose

The purpose with this thesis is to demonstrate how a design approach can enhance participation in place branding and experience innovation in order to achieve sustainable destination development.

Contributions

The contribution is an increased understanding of participatory marketing processes in destination development, particularly in experience innovation and place branding. Another aim is to

suggest and motivate mindsets, methods and tools for destination development for practitioners in marketing, tourism and related fields.

Disposition

The thesis is structured as follows. First, a theoretical overview of place branding and experience innovation is given with an emphasis on the emerging interest in a participatory approach. Design and particularly participatory design is then described as a possible way to integrate with the two processes of place branding and experience innovation.

In the methodology section a description of the choice of case and methods are described. The case is the development of an ecotourism site in Kisumu, Kenya. Reflections on the research design and methodological considerations are discussed, as well as methods for gathering empirical material and ethical considerations.

The two articles that form the base of the thesis are then summarised. The first article is connected to the first research question: *How can community involvement be reached by an integration of design to the place branding process?* The article title is *Participatory place branding through design – the case of Dunga beach, Kenya* and is co-written with Helena Kraff. It is under review for the journal Place Branding and Public Diplomacy. The second article is connected to the second research question: *How can tourism experience innovation processes be understood and developed using a design approach?* The title is *Tourism experience innovation through design* and is co-written with Helena Kraff and Lena Mossberg. The article has been submitted to a special issue about innovation and value creation in experience-based tourism in Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism.

In a concluding discussion the results of the articles are reflected upon. The contributions of the thesis are also discussed in this section, as well as its limitations. Finally, suggestions on further research are given.

Chapter 2. Theoretical framework

In this chapter, three theoretical frameworks are reviewed from the perspective of being sustainable and participatory: place branding, experience innovation and design. Thereafter, participation as a recurrent topic is reviewed, and it is followed by arguments of why a marketing design approach to destination development is used in this thesis.

Place branding as a sustainable and participatory process

The question of terminology within place branding is debatable (Anholt, 2010). A great deal of the manuscripts submitted to the journal Place Branding and Public Diplomacy still begin by quoting a definition of brand from AMA (American Marketing Association). It is referred to as "[a] name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature..." and so on (Anholt, 2010). There have been several attempts to redefine the term, since it does not capture the strategic approach the field has moved into (e.g. Anholt, 2010; Ind and Bjerke, 2007). Zenker and Braun (2010, p 5) defined it as "a network of associations in the consumers' mind..." and so on, however this view implies that branding is only about expressions, images and perceptions. It still refers to the brand as something that is fixed, as a name or a symbol, rather than vivid and fluctuating. Hankinson (2004, p 109) stresses the importance of viewing the brand as "a relationship with consumers and other stakeholders", and he claims that place and destination marketing literature to date has had too much focus on brands as "perceptual entities or images" with emphasis on communications, rather than focusing on behaviours and reality. Thereby Hankinson proposes a view of the brand not as a noun but as a verb, with emphasis on branding as a process. Similarly, Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013, p 6) claim that the static view of identity as something fixed, to be "tapped, defined, and manipulated", and branding as the attempt to communicate the identity, limits the way in which branding is understood and carried out. It is also argued (e.g. by Zenker and Beckmann, 2013) that place brand strategies are often grounded in the belief that the brand is a communication tool for all target audiences in one instead of a large number of target groups with different perspectives and interests.

As a more holistic way of approaching place branding, Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) merge a model of organizational identity from Hatch and Schultz (2002) into the field. They propose that branding is the facilitator of the identity process. Brand management is seen as a shadow process which resonates with the sub-process of expressing, impressing, mirroring and reflecting the culture, identity and image of a place. This also means that people working with place branding should be aware of that it is not their own desires that should be inserted, but those of the community. Brand managers are initiating, facilitating and stimulating the construction of the place brand process, but also engaging in the dialogue as a group of stakeholders. Kavaratzis and Hatch consider place branding as consisting of on-going interwoven processes and systems of interactions between individuals and the collective, the physical and nonphysical, and the organized and the random.

Following the argumentation of place branding as an on-going process with multiple stakeholders who have different perspectives, it has similarities with the notion of sustainable destination development. Gartner (2014, p 115) claims that a destination must focus on "the long-term health of the destination itself", which includes environmental and socio-cultural elements, not only revenue growth. The destination is a "living entity, complex and dynamic", as compared to consumer products, which means that destination branding and sustainable development goes "hand in hand" (Gartner, 2014, p 115). Similarly regarding marketing in general, Gordon et al (2011, p 145) claim that: "marketing itself needs to become sustainable". It as a role to play when it comes to guide regulations, stimulate innovation, and challenge central institutions and it should therefore be seen as an important contributor to sustainable development[2] (Gordon et al, 2011).

There is a broad spectra of academic and practical fields that place branding covers, such as urban planning, geography, urban studies, marketing, public administration, and sociology (Warnaby, 2009), as well as specific domains such as tourism, retailing, cultural activities and sports (Hankinson, 2004). Since places affect and concern not only consumers and companies as corporate brands essentially do, but also governments, politicians, residents and visitors (Fan, 2010; Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009) an emerging turn in place branding literature towards stakeholder involvement has been recognised. There is a democratic reasoning about who actually owns the place brand. Kavaratzis (2012, p 15) state that stakeholders "make decisions […], attribute meaning [and] in essence create the brand", and that they therefore own it. Stakeholders' roles are critical since people may provide resistance to branding initiatives that do not correspond with their perceptions of the place (Hanna and Rowley, 2011). If initiatives are not recognised and accepted, stakeholders will not commit to it (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). It is also argued that if for example residents are ignored the brand will not promote the authenticity of the people who live at the place (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). Since the perspectives of internal stakeholders must be considered there is an urgent need to include them in the process (Kavaratzis, 2012). Stakeholders seen as partners will support and sustain the brand (Hanna and Rowley, 2011), and the increased ownership this will lead to will also bring forth "more responsibility for its development, management and external reputation (Braun et al, 2013, p 21), which in the long-term will cater for a sustainable development of the brand.

Although seen as highly important, there is to date a lack of involvement of stakeholders in place branding, especially regarding residents and local communities (Braun et al, 2013; Kavaratzis, 2012). Braun et al (2013) point out the importance of identifying and testing methods of participation, and they propose the introduction of fields such as political and economic science, and participatory action research. As will follow, the practice of participatory design may contribute to this shortage of methods.

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[2] The definition of sustainable development from the Brundtland report is "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

Experience innovation as a sustainable and participatory process

In innovation literature sustainability is often treated as a way for businesses to respond to environmental and social pressures or as a source of inspiration for efforts that give opportunity for competitive advantage and growth (Ayuso, 2006). This reasoning takes stance from a business and output point of view, dealing with the products and the enterprises where the products are produced (McElroy, 2003). Only few studies take their departure from the interlinking of innovation, environment, communities and business as opportunities for sustainable development (see e.g. Seyfang and Smith, 2007 for an example of this type of study). The latter could be argued as seeing sustainable innovation as a sustainable process rather than an outcome. Both views need however to be considered. As McElroy (2003) puts it, "sustainable practice in business (outcomes) is utterly dependent upon whether or not sustainable innovation *processes* are in play - the former cannot exist without the latter, at least not for long" (McElroy, 2003, p 126, italics in original). The innovation process is about knowledge making and adoption, and in order to improve learning (and innovation) there is a need to recognize "knowledge production as a social process" (McElroy, 2003, p 134). Innovations do not come from individuals but from collective efforts and wide acceptances. However, there are only few examples documented and commented on from research as well as practice that emphasize the role of stakeholder dialogues (Ayuso et al, 2006). As Ayuso et al (2006, p 478) point out, "[d]espite the potential of stakeholder engagement as a source of knowledge, current innovation research has not dealt with the knowledge integration from stakeholders in the context of sustainable development". Similarly, Seyfang and Smith (2007, p 584) point to that "[c]ommunity action is a neglected, but potentially important, site of innovative activity".

Experience innovation is identified as an example of an innovation process that is moving towards a more including and participatory approach. As opposed to innovations in for example medicine or engineering, where large R&D departments develop new products in closed environments, the picture looks quite different when it comes to innovations in service and experience. They are often tailor made for specific customers and they are not technical (Sundbo, 2009). Further, they are socially organized since the tacit knowledge that is often involved is difficult to exchange over distance (Asheim and Gertler, 2005). The innovative activity tends to be spatially clustered, which means there is a growing importance of social interaction where "knowledge flows between economic entities" (Asheim and Gertler, 2005, p 293). The interaction is continuous and involves multiple actors in complex webs (Toivonen and Tuominen, 2009), often including and driven by knowledge from customers and employees (Fuglsang et al, 2011). The innovations frequently derive from ideas that evolve out of existing products and services in an incremental way (Sundbo *et al*, 2013). For example, when a customer poses a question (Toivonen and Tuominen, 2009) or an employee finds a new way of dealing with a recurring problem, they may turn out as realizations of new ideas and concepts in action (Toivonen et al, 2007). Those innovations are not always recognized until *a posteriori* (Gallouj, 2002; Toivonen *et al*, 2007; Toivonen, 2010) but they could still be considered as innovations. Empirical examples have shown that using pilot customers as critical evaluators and informants is a good way to develop innovations (Toivonen and Tuominen, 2009). Those pilot customers might well be tourists when dealing with experience innovations, as article 2 in this thesis shows. The tourist could thereby be considered co-designer (Ek *et al*, 2008) and co-innovator (Hall and Williams, 2008) of the experi-

ence, and just as the involvement of residents and other stakeholders in place branding, this could cater for that the initiatives taken are closer connected to the people that "use" the place or the experience and thereby it can be argued that a long-term sustainability is also ensured.

The characteristics of experience innovation are further that products and services from several firms are put together in packages (Alsos et al, 2014), as for example in city walks and bike trails with stops at the collaborating firms. Those networks enable co-creation and transfer of knowledge between companies and they create a sense of trust, which makes it possible to meet challenges together and achieve goals that would not have been possible without the networks (Eide and Fuglsang, 2013). As seen from a participatory point of view, these collaborations are important, however it has been acknowledged that a challenge lies in the fact that a lot of ideas are out there, waiting to be captured and taken further (Fuglsang et al, 2011; Hjalager, 2010; Toivonen et al, 2007). Strategic considerations must be undertaken, giving "guiding action and control" (Fuglsang et al, 2011). However, too much control may hinder innovations from coming forth (Sørensen and Sundbo, 2014), which calls for creative approaches and methods in combination with strategy. Nevertheless, neither in place branding nor in experience innovation a discussion can be discerned around what design could do regarding participatory processes, methods and tools.

Participatory design

For the last couple of decades, design has increasingly widened its scope from being mainly product-oriented towards designing for services and societal needs. New sub-disciplines have emerged, and it has been recognised that design can deal with complex situations (Thackara, 2005) and strategies (Valtonen, 2007). Moreover, it is said to be a resource for "development and innovation" (Wetter-Edman, 2014, p 32). A reason for the recent argumentation for using design in a wider sense could be connected to the design process as being intuitive, open-ended and non-linear (Schön, 1983). Designers propose ideas for future states by posing open questions of "what might be, could be, and should be" (Lawson, 1997, pp. 126-127), a way of working that is described as a "designerly way of knowing and thinking" (Cross, 2007, p 41).

There are similarities between the process of designing and the call for including and involving innovation and place branding processes described above. Already in 1971 the first major conference on participatory design was held in England. Nigel Cross and others articulated an urgent need for the design discipline to introduce methods that include citizen participation and decision making, as a way to eliminate "many potential problems at their source" (Cross, 1972, p 6). The same type of argumentation arose in Scandinavia in projects with workers, management and designers where the workers were involved in the development of their workplace and the companies' product development (Burns et al, 2006; Ehn, 1993; Gedenryd, 1998; Sanders and Stappers, 2008). The skills of the industrial workers were seen as important for the results, and a process of mutual learning was noticed in the interaction (Ehn, 1993).

The participatory approach in design has thereafter grown to include "future experiences for people, communities and cultures" (Sanders and Stappers, 2008, p 6), which the user "at the heart of a solution" (Burns et al, 2006, p 9), and include projects within for example health care, educa-

tion, crime prevention and community development. The sub-discipline of transformation design uses design for social and economic issues in public organisations, aiming to hand over tools and skills to the organisations involved and thereby catering for long-term sustainability (Burns et al, 2006). Other sub-disciplines include interaction design, service design, design for social innovation, socially responsible design, human centred design (HCD), empathic design, public interest design and social impact design. The user-centeredness has though come to be scrutinized. For example, Sanders (2006) make a division between a user-centred and a participatory design approach, arguing that the former is characterised by designers as experts, and stakeholders (users) are mainly subjects or informers. In the participatory approach, Sanders claims that the participants are co-creators of the process and the outcome, and designers are not only designing *for* people but *with* them.

There is a democratic reasoning in that users are entitled to participate in the design process of products and services that will have impact on their lives (Cross, 1981; Sanders and Dandavate, 1999; Westerlund, 2009). The embodied knowledge that only users can have through their personal experience is acknowledged as important in the participatory process (Krippendorf and Reinhart, 2007; Westerlund, 2009), and the social context with other people gives the opportunity to share knowledge, ideas and findings in a group. Using visual tools for communication, one person's thoughts become observable to the other participants (the tacit knowledge is reached), which makes it possible to build on each other's ideas. A person's thoughts can be followed and built on by the use of visual representations instead of only verbal language, since not everything is possible to express in words (Schön, 1983; Segelström and Blomkvist, 2013; Westerlund, 2009). Stories may be created which give life to insights, and by seeing something visually, empathy arises of what is being described (Bailey, 2013; Segelström, 2009; Segelström and Blomkvist, 2013). A workshop does not stop at a discussion level since the visual tools such as sketching and prototyping makes the results tangible (Westerlund, 2009). Those tools are referred to as the "language of design" by Nigel Cross (2007, p 58), and as the "what if tools" by Lawson (1997, p 242).

Prototypes are, according to Buchenau and Suri (2000, p 424), "representations of a design made before final artefacts exist […] created to inform both design process and design decisions", and "[t]hey range from sketches and different kind of models at various levels […] to explore and communicate propositions about the design and its context". Buchenau and Suri (2000, p 425) argue that to fully understand something, you need to experience it with your mind and body. This personal experience, "exploring by doing", or "experience prototyping", is used by designers to understand existing experiences and context, but also to explore and evaluate new design ideas, as well as to communicate ideas to an audience (Buchenau and Suri, 2000, p 425).

In this thesis, the act of visualisation is proposed as an important aspect from design which could be integrated into place branding and experience innovation processes. In particular, the prototyping phase in the design process is described in detail in article 2, as a way to enhance innovation in the discourse of tourism experience.

Participation - a recurring topic

It should be noted that participation has gained an increasing focus in marketing theory, not only regarding place branding and experience innovation. It developed from relationship marketing (e.g. Gummesson, 1995; Morgan and Hunt, 1994), network theory (e.g. Achrol, 1997; Gadde and Mattson, 1987) and stakeholder theory (e.g. Polonsky, 1995). All these concepts challenge the traditional way of viewing marketing from a product and production perspective. An evolution has occurred from goods to service logic, and a discussion around a third logic has started: the experience logic (Eide and Mossberg, 2013; Pine and Gilmore, 2013; Schembri, 2006). One reason is that participation appears as a necessity for experiences to take place.

Furthermore, the phenomenon of participation and collaboration with local communities is emerging in our society as a whole. It has been a common theme for decades and centuries, especially regarding governance matters. Arnstein introduced a "ladder of citizen participation" in 1969, where she arranged the extent to which citizen power is determining a plan or program (see figure 1). At the bottom of the ladder there is manipulation and therapy, which is rather than participation a way for "powerholders to 'educate' or 'cure' the participants" (Arnstein, 1969, p 217). In the middle of the ladder Arnstein proposes informing, consultation and placation as "degrees of tokenism", meaning that power holders "allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice". Finally at the top of the ladder, with partnership, delegated power and citizen control the "have-not citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power" (Arnstein, 1969, p 217). Bingham (2006) proposes that the new forms of governance that participatory approaches lead to require a leadership that "honors the importance of citizen and stakeholder voice in policy decisions" and that is "built on collaboration rather than command and control" (Bingham, 2006, p. 816).

Participatory methods are not unique for design. They have been used for a long time, by many fields, in both practice and research. In Participatory Action Research (PAR) the members of the society are involved in processes that will have direct impact on their life and community. An example is youth groups that collaboratively create collages that visualise how they feel about their community (McIntyre, 2008). Another concept is Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) that emerged in the late 1980's, as a "family of approaches and methods to enable local people to share, enhance and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act" (Chambers, 1994, p 953). It rests on a broad array of methods, for example, systematic walks and observations as well as informal mapping and modelling, which are often visual and conducted on site (Chambers, 1994).

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8   │   Citizen control      ⎤
7   │   Delegated power       ⎥  Degrees of citizen power
6   │   Partnership           ⎦

5   │   Placation             ⎤
4   │   Consultation          ⎥  Degrees of tokenism
3   │   Informing             ⎦

2   │   Therapy               ⎤
                              ⎥  Nonparticipation
1   │   Manipulation          ⎦
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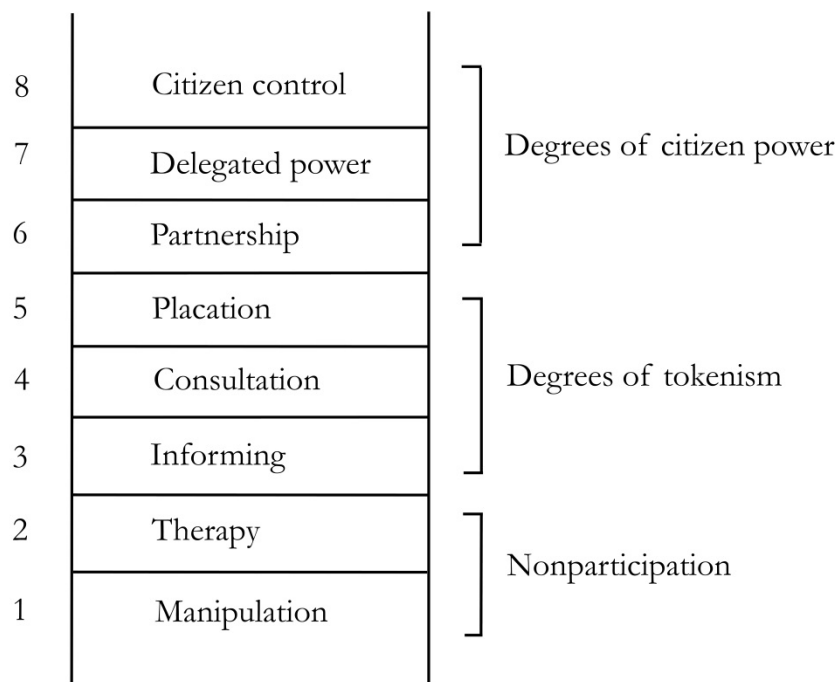
Figure 1 A ladder of citizen participation (from Arnstein, 1969)

A marketing design approach to destination development

As reviewed in this chapter, both place branding and experience innovation literature call for the need of including stakeholders in the process (cf Fuglsang *et al*, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Kavaratzis, 2012; Sørensen and Sundbo, 2014). Place branding should involve residents and local communities (Kavaratzis, 2012), and experience innovation should involve employees and customers (Fuglsang *et al*, 2011; Sørensen and Sundbo, 2014) as well as bring forth partnerships among firms (Eide and Fuglsang, 2013). The benefits of participation are for example democracy, authenticity, closeness, ownership, commitment and knowledge integration, but also that new creative ideas and concepts are able to develop in the interaction. However, it is not that easy in practice. Participation in itself does not bring forth innovations or sustainable and attractive brands. First, there is the question of what is meant with participation. On the higher levels of Arnstein's ladder, participation is not about asking people for advice using focus groups or questionnaires. It is rather about moving the ownership to stakeholders. In the context of destination development, the role of place brand managers should be seen as partners among others, and experience innovation should be seen as a joint process where all people involved are able to actively use their knowledge as input. Second, participation is about reaching above one person's knowledge by building on several peoples' input. New interactive methods and tools are needed for this to take place, and this is where design comes in with its openness to changes during the way and with visualisation as a tool for idea generation and sharing of knowledge. However, the use of participatory design approaches needs a context and the right people involved in order to come closer to decision-making. Design has started to emerge as a resource for development in a

holistic sense, however there is much more to be done. The integration of design for destination development has just started, however, it gains progress. An example is Swedish Design Research Journal that had a special issue about destinations in 2013[3].

By integrating design and marketing, the two could benefit from each other. Marketing has a considerable stake in destination development, both practically and theoretically, however the movement towards sustainability is too slow according to critical marketing advocates, especially regarding the societal challenges (Gordon et al, 2011). Design has potentials to change public governance and take on a more strategic role, however there are still barriers to be confronted (Staszowski et al, 2014).

In the following, I will describe the methodology used for research and practice in an empirical example that merges the two fields and in which I have been actively involved. The context is destination development in a developing country and emphasis is put on the social sustainability aspect and participation.

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[3]
http://svid.se/upload/Forskning/Design_Research_Journal/Design_Research_Journal_nr_2_2013/DeReJ%202.13
.web.pdf

Chapter 3. Methodological framework

In this chapter, the case, the research design and the methodological framework are explained and reflected upon. The gathering of the empirical material is described, as well as the analysing of the material. Finally, ethical considerations are discussed.

Kisumu Local interaction Platform (KLIP)

Kisumu Local Interaction Platform (KLIP) is one of Mistra Urban Futures' (MUF) five interaction platforms around the world where researchers, students and the private and public sector work in collaborative ways for a sustainable urban development. The other platforms are Gothenburg (headquarter), Greater Manchester, Cape Town, and Shanghai. MUF is financed by Mistra, the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Environmental Research, and a consortium of organisations in the Gothenburg region including Chalmers and Gothenburg universities. For the projects in Africa and China, the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) is a co-financier. MUF also collaborates with a number of partners internationally and nationally (Mistra Urban Futures, 2014).
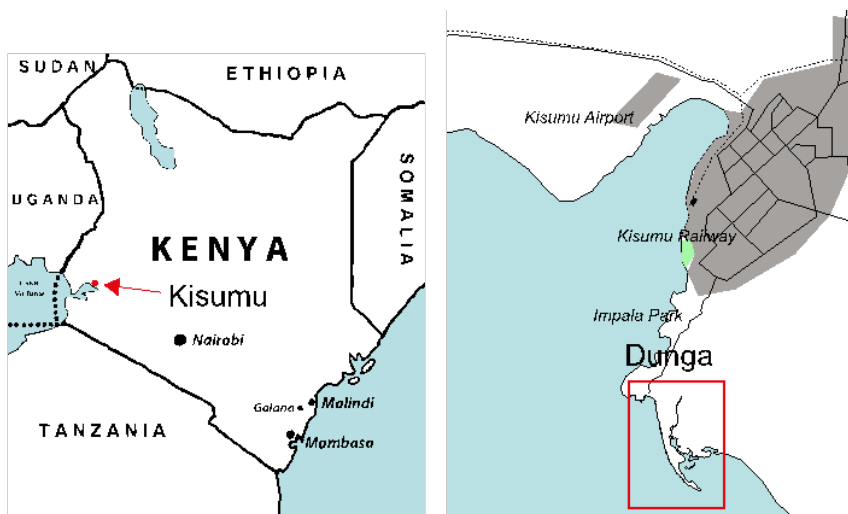
Image 1. The position of Kisumu in Kenya and Dunga in relation to Kisumu city (Fälted et al, 2012).

Kisumu is Kenya's third largest city and lies on the shore of Lake Victoria, Africa's largest and the world's second largest freshwater lake. The city registers one of the highest poverty levels in Kenya, and a rapid population growth has not been matched by infrastructure and service development, which provides a challenge for the county authorities. The lake is also a major concern since it is polluted, over-fished and covered with water hyacinths. Water, food supply and waste management are key issues to solve (Mistra Urban Futures, 2014).

Tourism is seen as an alternative source of livelihood for the people in Kisumu and as a means for community empowerment. Since tourism interlinks with several other sectors in the economy, the development of ecotourism can provide development of agriculture, wildlife, entertainment, handicraft and promotion of environmental conservation (Hayombe et al, 2012). The use of an innovative approach, demonstrating the benefits of and upscaling ecotourism, is said to be a way to empower and engage people (Hayombe et al, 2012). In addition to ecotourism, a major area for research and collaborations at KLIP is marketplaces. Marketplaces may impact the levels of human well-being and inequality of sub-groups of the poor, and a key issue is to find out how cities and regions can develop policies that strengthen the potential in marketplaces as resources for a sustainable development (Mistra Urban Futures, 2014).

Image 2. Water hyacinths in Lake Victoria.

The case

The case for the research is Dunga beach in Kisumu, Kenya. According to Flyvbjerg (2011) case studies include depth, which gives more detail, richness, completeness and variance than cross-unit analysis. In this case, an in-depth understanding was seen as important in order to come close to the study phenomena (the processes) and the people involved in it, and to be able to unravel the complexity. Case studies evolve in time, which constitutes the case when seen as a whole, according to Flyvbjerg. The processes can be looked upon while being in them, but it also means that the whole process cannot be recognised until after being finished or at least partly finished. A reflexive (abductive) methodology was used where theory and empirical material were reflected upon in relation to each other during and after the process, which gave dimensions that wouldn't have been possible using several units or only theoretical material. Using a case is a way

to illustrate to the reader how a conceptual argument might be applied, to demonstrate the importance of the phenomenon and to inspire ideation for the readers and the author (Siggelkow, 2007). A case study is not so much about methodological choices but about choosing what is to be studied (Flyvbjerg, 2011), however in this thesis, the case is a condition for working with an action-oriented approach where the researcher and several stakeholders are involved in the process. It was thereby an interrelation between case and methodology.

Dunga beach is situated on the shore of Lake Victoria, about six kilometres from Kisumu city centre. The gravel road to the village is bumpy with potholes all over, so the best way to get there is to walk or take a motorbike taxi (piki-piki). Nevertheless there are lots of school buses from all over Kenya coming every day to see the fish being handled on the beach by fishermen and fishmongers, take a boat ride and enjoy the breeze from the lake. There are also other visitors, both local from Kisumu and the close region and national, as well as some international tourists. The international tourists are often volunteers or project-workers on a break from their ordinary work in other parts of Kenya. In rare cases the tourists are backpackers. Dunga was seen as a good empirical context due to the ongoing tourism activities that could be developed further and the relatively small size in terms of both geography and tourism activities which made the complexity of destination development easier to grasp.

Image 3: Dunga beach

There are a few organisations working with tourism issues in Dunga. The beach management unit (BMU) is a community-based organisation that brings together people involved in the fisheries at the beach with other stakeholders, managing resources and improving the livelihoods of the residents. Ecofinder Kenya is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) that undertake interventions on for example environmental issues, entrepreneurship and pro-poor communication. They educate visiting schoolchildren and students on ecological matters. Finally, there is the tour guide organisation Dectta with 16 members that provide visitors with guided boat tours, wetland tours, bird watching, and similar. This structure of the business served as a base for the development of the destination, giving actors to work closely with, which was also considered an important feature for the empirical study.

The KLIP core group project

The methodological aims for the project set from the funders (MUF) are to work according to the triple helix model and in a transdisciplinary manner. Further, the green, fair and dense framework from MUF is one of the cornerstones. The latter is a way of viewing sustainability where ecological (green) and social (fair) sustainability is central and the urban planning is dense, which means for example that cities are compactly built. The specific local framework for KLIP is ecotourism and marketplaces.

The first trip to Kisumu was in September 2012. The Swedish group of PhD students and supervisors met about 25 PhD students from Maseno and Jooust (by then Bondo) universities and their supervisors. A core PhD student group was formed with seven people who went on a tour in a minibus with the aim of finding a common place for conducting research. In Dunga there was an ongoing work with ecotourism and the local organisations were interested in collaboration, which was not found on the other beaches. Another reason for choosing Dunga was that one of the Kenyan PhD students in the core group had worked in Dunga during his master program and therefore had good relations with a lot of people there.

The PhD students in the core group all work with different projects with Dunga as base, which is illustrated in figure 1. One group focuses on ecotourism and the other on marketplaces, although there are a lot of connections and overlaps. Joshua and Frankline O from Jooust, and Helena Kraff and I from Gothenburg University work as one team with ecotourism. Helena Hansson, Franklin M and Jennifher work with marketplaces. The core group has conducted some workshops and studies together, both individual, within the small groups and in the big group. The empirical material is shared between all the members of the core group. Helena Kraff and I work closely together in all the practical work and most of the academic work. When I refer to "us" or "we" in this text I mean Helena and I, if nothing else is stated. Further, all photos in this thesis, articles included, are taken by either me or Helena Kraff.
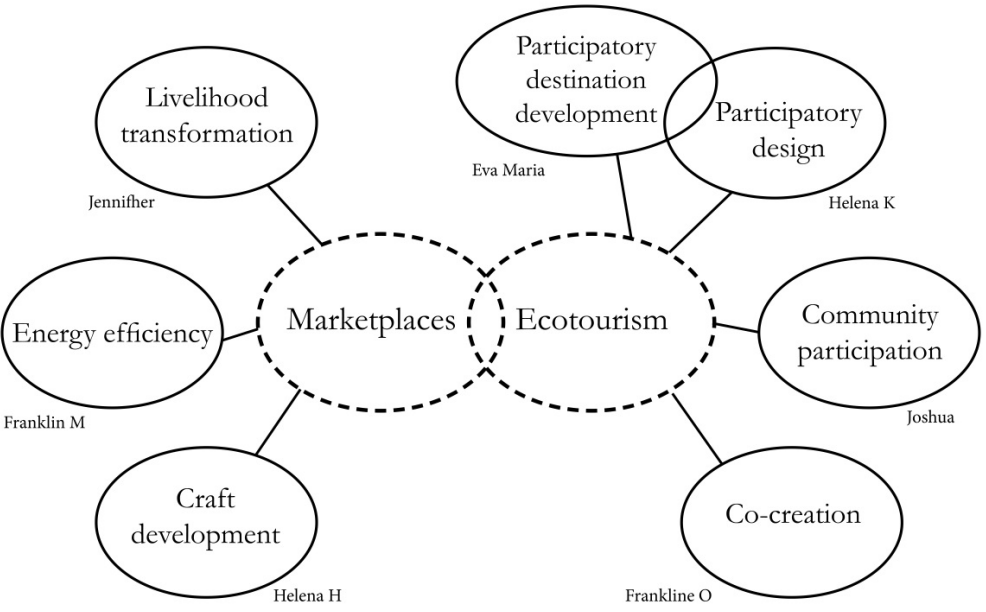
Figure 1 KLIP PhD student core group

Research design

The empirical material for the research comes from the collaborative work with stakeholders in and outside Dunga with the aim of developing the ecotourism site into an attractive destination without jeopardising the needs of future generations. It is also a joint work between scholars on different levels in Sweden and Kenya, which makes it possible to do field studies together, sharing empirical material and discussing it; a co-production of knowledge. Reflecting on the triple helix model, the collaboration between academia and local businesses was the main focus from the start. The public sector is represented by board members in KLIP and as partners in the long-term perspective. They are also involved, for example when the yearly KLIP day is arranged with speeches, presentations, football and bikerace. My view of the helix model also involves civil society (also called the quadruple helix model by e.g. Carayannis and Campbell, 2012) where the NGOs, the residents of the place and community organizations are part of the system and the process. In this project, those actors are crucial.

The fieldwork was carried out over 15 months, spending twelve weeks in Kisumu spread over four occasions. The practical work started very soon, so there was not much time to make plans or schedules for the activities. However, that was part of the transdisciplinary process; that the questions should arise in the conversation between stakeholders. Moreover, it gave us the possibility to reflect on actions taken while they happened and in retrospect.

Image 4-6. Stakeholder workshop, open presentation and waiting for a bikerace on KLIP day to start at Jomo Kenyatta Sportsground in Kisumu.

Methodological considerations

An action-oriented, transdisciplinary and reflexive methodological approach has been used for this thesis. The considerations for making these choices are made in this section.

Interesting and influential research

It is often claimed that researchers are writing to an audience of like-minded people, using a language that is formulaic and jargon-like, which makes articles inaccessible for practitioners (e.g. Alvesson, 2012; Bartunek et al, 2006; Corley and Gioia, 2011). Inspired by for example Davis (1971) famous article "That's interesting", Alvesson (2012) points to that research should not say something that is already known or that nobody cares about outside our own often very narrow field of interest. Alvesson and Sandberg (2013, p 5) continue the argumentation by emphasising theoretical contributions that combine the *interesting* and the *influential*. Likewise, Corley and Gioia's (2011) view of a theoretical contribution is that it should be seen as having two dimensions; *originality* and *utility,* both of equal importance. The originality aspect means that the researcher contributes to a current conversation (incremental insight) or start a new conversation (revelatory insight). The new conversation has a surprising, transformative thinking as a key factor; something that deviates from what you expect or assume to be true. This originality could be what Davis (1971) and Alvesson (2012) propose as being interesting. What Alvesson and Sandberg (2013) call influential could be argued as similar to the Corley and Gioia's utility aspect. It means that the insights also need to be useful for science and practice. Scientific utility improves current research practice of scholars while practical utility improves current managerial practice. In this thesis, I try to raise a new, or at least only emerging, conversation about an integration of place branding and experience innovation with design. I also want to emphasise what Corley and Gioia (2011, p 12) describe as "scope", meaning that the research serves the interests of both academics and practitioners. However, the work could be seen as going even further with the practical utility by having an action-oriented approach.

Action research

In traditional forms of social science research, the researcher is standing outside the situation doing research on practitioners (McNiff and Whitehead, 2011). Action research (AR) is a methodology that combines research and practice for their mutual benefit by involving and interacting with practitioners and other stakeholders (Johansson and Lindhult, 2008), and it requires total involvement of the researcher (Coghlan and Brannick, 2001). In the Dunga case, the active involvement in the processes studied was seen as crucial for the understanding, but also for the processes to proceed. There was an ongoing ecotourism business in Dunga when we started the project, but in what pace the development would have gone without involvement is impossible to say. Also important to consider is the mutual benefit that action research aims for. By being there as partners, the organisations, the village and the researchers could benefit from each other's knowledge, co-producing it while working with a common goal of developing the site. In this project, this comprises with the view that tourism systems and institutions must be developed that enable a sustainable human development process where local-global partnerships, the impact of consuming nature and culture in developing countries, and an understanding of an integrated, multidisciplinary approach is addressed (Burns, 2004).

Insider research is often viewed with suspicion (Coghlan an Brannick, 2011) since it blurs the distinctions between the researcher an those researched (Checkland and Holwell, 1998). It is however used in many different contexts and with different approaches, methods and traditions (Johansson and Lindhult 2008). The epistemological assumption is the "I/we" as the object of enquiry, that knowledge is created in a collaborative process, and the uncertainty of knowledge (McNiff and Whitehead, 2011). It means working with others at all stages in the process, and that knowledge is uncertain and indefinite; one question may generate multiple answers. Knowledge is created, not only discovered, in a process of trial and error (McNiff and Whithead, 2011). This way of working came very natural to me and Helena Kraff in the project since we had been working similarly before. The process is also very similar to the process we describe in the thesis's articles as relevant to integrate to destination development process. This overlap between practice and academic work has however caused a lot of thinking about what the contributions of the thesis are and where to place methodological matters in the texts.

The action researcher influences not only what is said, like in an interview, but what is done. In many cases we (most of the times Helena and I, in some cases also the other PhD students in core group) were even the ones deciding what should be done. Our intentions were not to come to Dunga as experts but as partners, however it can be discussed to what extent this was accomplished. We came with suggestions on what a workshop should include, and the organisations in Dunga commented on that or sometimes only said OK. Then we discussed how many people should be invited, where the workshop should be held, and so on. The actions taken were initiated by us, facilitated by us and the results were interpreted by us, at least in the beginning of the process. Since we were managing the process, it might not be "real" action research we conducted. On the other hand, during the time we worked we found partners to work more intimate with. For example on the test tours we were not in charge of the tours, and we didn't even know what the tours would comprise of. It was the tour guides who decided among themselves who should be in charge of each part and what the next step should be. The same goes for the waste collection point and the signage system (see articles 1 and 2), where we were not involved in the finalizing stages.

Transdisciplinary research
Interactive ways of producing knowledge are gaining an increasing attention, at least according its advocates such as Pohl et al (2010). The idea is that science does not hold a monopoly over knowledge production. A new kind of research is said to evolve out of the interaction (e.g. Gibbons et al., 1994; Nowotny et al. 2001). The interaction includes not only different disciplines within academia but also a wide set of practitioners, collaborating on a problem which is defined in a specific and localized context (Gibbons et al., 1994). The resulting closer interaction of society and science signals that there is a need for a new kind of contextualized or context-sensitive science (Nowotny et al, 2001). European sustainability researchers have further developed this understanding within a framework called *transdisciplinary research* (Pohl et al, 2010). The knowledge production is considered as closer to society and it is said to replace results with processes (e.g. Guggenheim, 2006). The disciplinary boundaries of knowledge production are replaced by problem-oriented, non-technological research outside the disciplinary structure (Guggenheim, 2006). Carayannis and Campbell (2012) combine this type of knowledge production with the quadruple helix or even quintuple helix model (the former including civil society and the latter also including environment) which together form an innovation ecosystem.

I will not consider the elaborations on transdisciplinary knowledge production in this thesis, but reflect on the transdisciplinary focus that was a condition for the MUF project from the start and how it has been used in the project. Transdisciplinarity is connected to action research in the sense that they both interfere with the study object by collaboration between academia and practice. Transdisciplinary research further acknowledges the importance of society, that is, governments and policy makers, as well as the multidisciplinary aspect where different academic disciplines work together with a common goal. In this project, the core group PhD students come from or have a background in the disciplines of marketing, design, urban planning, ecology, architecture and Geographical Information Systems (GIS). This variety of disciplines enables a particular as well as a holistic approach of sustainable urban development. For example Jennifher Otieno maps the Dunga fishmongers' working conditions and journey with the fish to be able to prototype a market system that offers food security as well as security for the women selling fish, and Franklin Mwango works with what architecture can do for enhancing renewable energy and education for behavioural change towards sustainable energy. In addition to the contribution that the different perspectives give to the project, the PhD students' diverse contacts in Dunga, Kisumu and outside enrich the project and increase the chances that the project survives when the PhD students leave.

There is a risk that transdisciplinary and action-oriented projects get scattered and thereby hard to handle since there are many actors involved. Things may happen beyond the control of single actors due this complex environment. One example is that I and Helena heard that someone within the project had said to the guides that an eco-lodge was planned for in Dunga, which is something that could be argued would destroy the genuine feeling of the place. These thoughts had not been shared in the project, which resulted in an awkward situation in the meeting with the guide.

Working in a practical way is uncommon for researchers in Kenya. In many cases it is perceived as good and very welcome. As the founder of Ecofinder Kenya put it:

> *…you are not only coming to squeeze information from the community and turn away, but I see you involving the community in a process; in a process whereby you get information, but also in a process where the community owns that information and they are empowered…*

However, the roles of the researchers can be different in different situations and contexts. We have not only been researchers from diverse disciplines trying to work together, but have also taken on roles as administrative personnel, managers, partners, project leaders, students, colleagues, and many other. Since there are so many contrasting roles and situations around, it is easy to get scattered on what is most important. Is it to help the poor people or the women to get a better life? Is it to get the tourists to come to Dunga and thereby help the people get an income? Is it to get my thesis ready? Is it to serve the needs of the Kenyan universities we are working with? Is it for the sake of my funders? Is it to write the most interesting article for a top-ranked journal?

Reflexive methodology
The interference, or interplay, between empirical and theoretical material is something that symbolizes a reflexive approach (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2011). Reflexivity does not mean that the research has to be action-oriented, but there is an emphasis on that the researcher and the re-

searcher's community are always involved in the research construction process. The reflexive view of empirical material is that it is constructed, interpreted and written by someone. Subjectivity is inescapable, cannot be reduced away and is better understood as a resource. In this thesis, a lot of the material is constructed in collaboration with others. What is known from before, what the assumptions are, what theory is adapted on the way, and what happens in the moments of interaction influences the work. This way of doing research gives a lot of subjectivity to the material. However reflexivity does not make it possible to write anything you like. Referring to Corley and Gioia (2011), it has to have the dimensions about originality and utility, or no one will read your texts.

Foucault (1980) claims that knowledge does not reveal truth; it *creates* truth, which means being reflective is also about transparency. By revealing how you have done things and why, you expose the weak spots and thereby open up for critical judgement of what difference your contribution makes. This reflexivity is something that has followed the project during the way and which I see as an aspect that is important to work further with, especially when working in an unfamiliar context as a developing country.

The term "data collection" gives the impression that empirical representations are solid facts which we can be easily picked up (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2009). As Alvesson and Kärreman (2011), I prefer to rather call it empirical material since there is a lot of subjectivity in the collected material. Moreover, there is body work (Wolkowitz, 2009) involved, a "corporeal dimension", as Hockey and Allen-Collinson (2009, p 217) put it, where the tactile and sensory abilities of the body is pronounced, with for example touches, smells, pain and desires. In for example a workshop, a large part is about body movements. The workshop facilitator and the participants show things, move things around, do sketches, write, and put sticky notes on a big paper. Another example is walking workshops, where bodies are moved in the physical environment, trying out and reflecting on things. How does it feel to stand in the sun, listening to a guide talking? I get tired; I need a bench, a hat or something to drink. In design, this is called *experience prototyping* (Buchenau and Suri, 2000) or *being your user* (British Design Council, 2012) where you use your mind and body to experience in action what happens in real situations.

There is also an embodied quality of learning, or situated learning, which is relevant to discuss in relation to research methodology and empirical material. Lave and Wenger (1991) pronounce situated learning as "legitimate peripheral participation". They see learning as "an evolving form of membership" (p 53), and in the best examples the membership goes from peripheral to full participation during a longer period of time. Lave and Wenger take the example of learning in a working situation. The most natural way of learning a job is to participate in the community, becoming part of it. The apprentice is legitimately involved in work, but also in the social and physical context that surrounds the actual work, and is influencing this context. Opportunities for engaging in practice will come up after a while, and then the newcomers "tasks are short and simple, the costs of errors are small" (p 110). This is connected to a reflexive research; that you need time to get into the context. Being in the context for a longer period, people get used to have you there, and that is when you are able to do the most interesting observations without interfering. However, it is not possible to reach a state where you are just an observer. As Alvesson and Kärreman (2011) point out, to observe is not to be a fly on the wall, as if things would have happened even if you were not there. People may engage in behaviours triggered by the

presence of the researcher, or even try to satisfy what they think the researcher wants to see. In Kunda's work (1992) he describes that you have to interview, discuss and come into peoples' lives to be able to understand what is really going on. Coming close to people means that it is impossible to put yourself in parenthesis. I see the interference with the empirical material as a resource in this thesis and there are clear parallels to action-research where you also interfere with the circumstances.

Gathering empirical material

All activities in the process are chronologically referred to in appendix 3. It should be noted that the table includes all material, for practice as well as academic purpose. The reason is that the reader then can get a grip on the whole process from beginning to end.

The material includes diaries and notes from workshops, presentations, discussions and observations. There are also photos, films, and artefacts from the process. I have my own material as well as the other PhD students', of which Helena's is used the most. It should be noted that in many senses the practical and academic material is the same; for example, the text from diaries is used in the academic work but also to be able to produce presentations and reports to Dunga. This goes also for photos, films and artefacts. For example, the prototypes were part of the innovation process described in the articles as well as a practical contribution to Dunga's development as an ecotourism site.

The stakeholders essentially involved in the process were me and Helena Kraff, other researchers, tourists, residents and local organisations (mainly the tour guide organisation). All people were not involved in each step, and my and Helena's level of involvement was different in different phases and parts of the process.

In the following, the material is described by categorising and explaining the methods used; participatory observations, interviews, and other field material. The numbers referred to have equivalents in appendix 3 where each activity is described shortly with participants, contents, purpose and documentation.

Participatory observations
There were several levels of participatory observations in the process. The level of participation from my and Helena's side is described from low to high involvement. Other stakeholders' involvement is discussed in relation to our involvement.

- *Observing test tours (4.6 and 4.8).* The guides and the tourists were observed during the test tours in order to find out where possible innovations seemed to emerge.

- *Facilitating workshops (2.1, 2.2, 3.2 and 3.5, partly also 3.3).* Helena and I, in some cases together with other PhD students, acted as facilitators on the stakeholder mapping workshop (2.1), the identity workshop (2.2) and the beach workshop (3.2). This means we were there mainly helping the participants perform the activities in the workshop, not

participating in the ideation ourselves. Also the third day in the 3-day workshop with tour guides could fit into this category (3.3) however this was also a lecture and a discussion. When acting as facilitators the observations of what happened in the making was crucial although sometimes it was hard to write and take photos while working. Being two people helped this documentation.

- *Partners in workshop (3.4, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5).* There is not a clear line between being facilitators and partners, however in some workshops we were more part of the development of the process and the ideation than in others. Those workshops that could fit into a more collaborative way of working are the walking workshop (day 2 in 3-day workshop, 3.4), the infrastructure workshop (4.3), the "a day in Dunga" workshop, and the crafts workshop (4.5). In these workshops we came with more suggestions ourselves and we were building on each other's ideas within the group. Also here, there was a problem taking notes and photos, however, it was in our own participation that crucial aspects of the process could be revealed.

- *Experience prototyping (5.1 and 5.2).* Helena and I acted tourists in Dunga for a day and we performed comparative studies ourselves, with friends and with other PhD students on other sites. I consider this as highest level of involvement in the sense that we were the main actors. However, this activity could be also seen as something completely different, as a sort of contextual analysis, gripping something that is already there, almost as secondary data.

Image 7: Workshop in Dunga with a paper prototype of a guided tour; "a day in Dunga".

Interviews
Interviews were conducted with tourism stakeholders in Kisumu, and with people in Dunga that had been part of the process (2.4, 3.1, and 4.11). The PhD students from the ecotourism core

group held open interviews with tourism stakeholders in Kisumu (3.1), for example the Lake Victoria Tourism Association (LVTA), Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and the Ministry of tourism. The purpose was to get their view on a participatory process and their interest to be part of it. The interviews lasted for at least one hour each. An important part for the research is the interviews that I and Helena conducted on the last days of our last trip (4.11) with the purpose of getting an understanding of how people in Dunga had perceived the process, the methods used and the involvement of stakeholders. The interviewees were selected to get a good picture of what different groups of people perceived, however the main interviewee group were the tour guides since they had been involved the most. We chose the interviewees in collaboration with one of the tour guides. The interviews were held by me and Helena together in the pedagogical centre in Dunga, where Dectta and Ecofinder work and where there is a small shop. Every interview started with us telling the interviewee about the purpose with the interview. Then we asked them to tell in their own words have they had perceived the process from September 2012 up until the time for the interview. Some of them talked without us interrupting them for 5-10 minutes before we asked the next question, while others were asked follow-up questions quite soon, depending on what came out from their answer. We tried to fit in questions about involvement, methods and the process to cover our purpose. 19 interviews were completed and they took from 15 minutes to one hour each. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. The interviewees represented the following groups:

- *Dectta (nine persons).* Nine of sixteen tour guides in Dectta were interviewed, which were the ones that had been most present on workshops and other activities. All tour guides that had been part of the test tours were interviewed.

- *Dunga crafts group (three persons, also one counted as tour guide).* Four of the members of the Dunga crafts group were interviewed, whereof one is the man in charge of it (who is also a tour guide). They had been attending courses held by the marketplace PhD student group and were responsible for the crafts production activity during the test tours.

- *Ecofinder (one person, also several of the tourguides are members).* The founder of the NGO Ecofinder Kenya was interviewed since he was one of the persons who were there when Dunga was chosen as common site for the KLIP PhD student core group. Also, some of the interviewed tour guides work with Ecofinder alongside Dectta.

- *BMU (one person, also two counted as tour guides).* The BMU was represented by the vice chairman, the secretary (who is also a member of Dectta) and a third board member (who is also part of Dectta).

- *Volunteer (one person).* One volunteer at Ecofinder was interviewed since she had attended some of the workshops and also had insight of the place and the process from an outside perspective.

- *Fishmongers (two persons).* Two fishmongers were interviewed. Fishmongers buy fish from the fishermen and sell it on the beach, sometimes after scaling, drying and/or frying it. The fishmongers represent an important part of the attractiveness of the beach and were part of the test tours.

- *Boatbuilder (one person).* One boatbuilder who works on the beach was interviewed. He had been attending the stakeholder workshop and from his working place seen a lot of what had been going on and talked to people about it.

- *Fisherman (one person).* One fisherman was interviewed. He had attended the open presentations and a workshop.

Other material

There is a lot of other material that has been gathered within the project and which is part of the process. However, the result of each activity has not always been relevant to analyse for this thesis. For example, there are results from workshops in forms of stakeholder maps, collected hopes and fears of tourism, ideas on packages and tours, paper models on tours, prototypes of waste collection point and signage system, proposals on Dunga's identity, lectures about tour guiding or graphic design, questionnaires about how people in Dunga perceive their living and working situation, and interviews with tourists on the beach about their perceptions of the place. All this information has been collected and presented in forms of for example community hall presentations, reports and an available project space. A lot of the material has more of a practical purpose, although the process could not have been conducted without it. This close relationship between practice and research could be considered as a problem in action-oriented research, however it is also a resource since the action researcher has access to all information.

Three reports summarize the practical work and give ideas for the future for stakeholders in Dunga and Kisumu, and they were important for summing up and driving the process forward. The reports are: *Dunga identity and image - a pre-study*, *Dunga ecotourism development – emerging ideas and possible continuation* and *A day in Dunga - reflections and ideas from test tours*. The reports are not part of the academic work in the sense that the material in them is used in this thesis. Rather, they are seen as part of the process that the academic work stems from. Another reason for not including them is that they are extensive. The reports can though be downloaded from the MUF website[4]:

Analysis

Since the empirical material is extensive, there is a risk of drowning in material, not knowing where to start. The days when I and Helena had workshops, we both tried to take notes as much as possible. If one of us knew or saw that the other was occupied with something and was not able to take notes or photos, we took on ourselves to see to that as much as possible got documented. Arriving to the guesthouse, a couple of hours a day were used to write diaries. The notes from the workshops turned into readable text, but also other things that had happened during the day were written down in the diary. For example, since the transdisciplinary aspect was central to the project, meetings and talks with people involved were also documented. Since we were almost always at least two people observing the same things, it made it possible to discuss and interpret things together that wouldn't have been possible if I had done it myself. A lot of reflec-

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[4] http://www.mistraurbanfutures.org/en/project/ecotourism

tions and analyses along the way came up that both made the process continue and made the empirical material thicker.

To be able to write reports to the stakeholders (presenting the continuous results), mine, Helena's and in some cases other PhD students' notes were collected and summarized. The reports were used as research material in the sense that they showed the state of the process. They were also interesting to analyse to see how our own perceptions of the process evolved, for example, what we considered as important to take up in the reports and what style we used.

Starting to write the first article, the whole process was written down chronologically by me and Helena Kraff in cooperation. I noted that I wrote more as wanting to take into consideration every detail of the process, being very honest on what went well or not, while Helena wrote more on specific activities, for example how one participant's drawing made another participant build further on the idea. Our writings complemented each other so that it resulted in a thick description of the process. After that, we tried to find the moments where people interacted specifically well or bad, and where the process took a turn that was not expected, which led to that it changed directions. We also looked for moments when visualization came forth as tool for communication and idea generation between participants. For the articles, we selected the most important activities and moments that related to each article's purpose.

The chronological analysis was combined with a thematic analysis since the article about participatory place branding (article 1) cover the whole process, while the article about participatory experience innovation (article 2) digs deeper into the part where the guided tours were prototyped.

Since we used photos in the reports, as well as in several presentations, they became very familiar and it was thereby easy to come back to them when analysing the material, to see for example who participated where an when, how the participants used the workshop material, and the participants' facial expressions.

Ethical considerations[5]

Projects with the intention to make people participating in processes are not only praised but also criticised. The critique is often directed towards Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) or its equivalents, such as Participatory Action Research (PAR) or Participatory Reflection and Action (also referred to as PRA). The notion that is used in this thesis, participatory design, is closely related to both PRA and PAR. Critique has particularly been raised towards development projects that deal with social and economic marginalised groups (Cooke and Kothari, 2001). It is argued that participation is merely an "act of faith" that is seldom questioned (Cleaver, 2001, p 36), and that power and power relations are naively looked upon by project workers who do not understand the complexity of them (Cooke and Kothari, 2001). Focus needs to be but on "patterns of inclusion and exclusion", instead of just on activities in a project (Cleaver, 2001). This

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[5] The text in this section is merely part of a paper that Helena Kraff and I have written for a Design Management Institute conference held in September 2014. The paper's title is "Designing for or designing with?"

reflexivity requires an open mind, being aware of that participatory development could even become tyrannical (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

Project facilitators from outside often intentionally or unintentionally shape the direction of the process since it is they who "own the research tools, choose the topics, record the information, and abstract and summarise according to project criteria of relevance" (Mosse, 2001, p 14). Even though participants for example draw their own maps during a workshop, the underlying framework where it is decided that a map is suitable for depicting local needs is decided by outsiders (Henkel and Roderick, 2001, p 182). Further, when project leaders act only as facilitators, it enables them to hand over the responsibility of the results to the participants (Henkel and Roderick, 2001). Another important point is the power relations between the project leaders and the participants that risk resulting in local communities constructing needs to be able to take part in the project (Mosse, 2001). Henkel and Roderick (2001, p 171) even argue that "there is a sense in which beneficiaries are seen as morally bound to participate".

It is reasonable to question what would have happened if we had started without our set agenda of ecotourism and participation. What if the process had been held open initially, so that the residents and local organisations could have shaped the project according to their needs and desires? What would have happened if we had been there to support residents and local organisations in charge of their own process, right from the start? Or what if we had not been there at all? Would other actors then have taken over, developing the site with their own goals in mind? Did we create harm through our efforts, a possibility suggested by Lasky (2013), or did we prevent harm?

The notion of empowerment is also problematic, although it is treated as if it is not. It is rarely discussed or reflected upon who is to be empowered; the individual, some categories of people such as women or poor, or the community (Cleaver, 2001). Mosse (2001, p 21) states that community empowerment rarely mean that everybody is empowered; "some individuals or groups have the skill or authority to present personal interests in more generally valid terms, other do not". This means that dominant people or groups may reassert their control and power over others (Kothari, 2001). Our main choice of partners, the tour guide group, was well-established in the community and their position was even stronger after the test tours when other people had recognized their work more. Yet, looking back, it was easy to for us to work with those who were already strong and who we knew agreed with our pre-set framework. But what about other groups, such as fishmongers, boat builders, women, poor or socially excluded? What would have happened had we chosen one or several of them as our principle partner? Were we even aware of the power relations between the groups? A similar problem is that we worked with Dunga, which is one of the most developed beaches in the region. The risk is that this beach is empowered and not the others, which may strengthen the Dunga community even more and leave the other beaches even further behind.

Participatory projects also often carry symptoms of ethnocentricity. For example using a language with terms as 'community' or 'local people', which origins in colonialism and post colonialism, make in itself a distinction between 'them' and 'us' (Cooke, 2001). There have been situations in the project where we have felt we needed to tread sensitively in order not to perpetuate or exacerbate ethnocentrism. It has sometimes been hard trying not to impose our own customs and practices on other people, and most probably we failed several times. For example, the ideas that

were taken forward in the process were from our side seen as the best ones of those that had come up in workshops, informal discussions and interviews with the local organisations and residents. However, the information was gathered by us, and filtered by us. When we presented the ideas in public presentations or reports, there were certainly aspects and ideas that did not make it in there. Some views that were presented and documented stemmed from our own assumptions on how things should be, without having discussed our interpretations with the other people involved.

This reasoning is coupled to the insights that Liberman (1999) pronounce when he describes his fieldwork among aboriginals in Australia and Buddhists in Tibet. His dictum "first, do no harm" (p 61) is a guide for all field research, especially in developing countries. It is not possible to know what the fieldwork will require from you beforehand, and you have to tread sensitively, gain trust and never misuse this trust. Working in a project in Africa as in this project, there is a need to have a critical perspective on what is actually done. A critical orientation means that an interpretive researcher is, as Prasad and Prasad (2002, p 7) put it: "confronted with ethical and political questions about their own (and others') practice of the interpretive act itself". Liberman (1999) describes that the aboriginal people before he came there had been "violated" (p 60) by a researcher who had published secret photos on rituals, which had made the people reluctant to research, anthropology and Americans. In this project, having done several workshops together with the organisations in Dunga, the trust between us strengthened. One thing was that the people in Dunga in the beginning were very careful about that we should pay for the rental of tables and chairs, as well as drinks and other refreshments for the workshops. For them, this was a way to make sure that we did not just come there and get the material needed and then go back leaving them with nothing. At least, the community would get something little for it. On our last trip the situation had changed. Since we worked very close to the tour guide organisation, they probably saw us as a resource for development. The small amount of money we had in our budget for chair rental and refreshments was instead used for the prototyping of signage and waste collection points. Furthermore, some of the guides saw our relationship as training, and asked for a diploma. By then, they said that they were in charge of the process, seeing us as "animators" as one of the guides said in an interview. A faith between us had taken form, which implies that the process had started to evolve from our facilitation through trust to their ownership.

Chapter 4. Article summaries

In this section, summaries of the two articles that constitute the base of this thesis are made. The full versions can be found as appendices.

Article 1: Participatory place branding through design (appendix 1)

Contemporary place branding literature criticise the negligence of stakeholder involvement (e.g. Aitken and Campelo, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Lucarelli, 2012; Kavaratzis, 2012; Warnaby, 2009), especially concerning the residents of the place (Braun et al, 2013; Kavaratzis, 2012). There is a need for open-ended and interactive processes (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013) which takes the specific place and its stakeholders into consideration. In this article, a way to open up for these kinds of processes is found in the integration of place branding and participatory design. Design is said to be adaptable to new and changing environments (Burns *et al*, 2006; Schön, 1983) and in participatory design future users of products and services are involved in the design process (Gedenryd, 1998). Designers of today design for people's societal and environmental needs (Sanders and Stappers, 2008; Cross, 1981) and the outcome can be intangible, ranging from a process, policy, experience or a new business approach (Burns *et al*, 2006). Also, the use of visualisation as a communication and idea-generating tool is at the core of the design process. These characteristics of design are in this article integrated with place branding. The purpose is to describe a process that explores this integration by the demonstration of the authors' active involvement in a destination branding process.

The authors took on an action-oriented approach in a real setting; Dunga Beach in Kenya. The work with the development of the ecotourism site is described chronologically. It starts with planning workshops with stakeholders and between the authors, the performance of 'experience prototyping' where the authors got to know the place by acting tourists themselves, and interviews with tourists about their experience. The participatory actions are thereafter described; a stakeholder mapping workshop, an identity workshop, a beach workshop, a three day workshop on packaging, and two test tours with national and international tourists. The reflections on the workshops and the discussions with the stakeholders led to changes in coming actions, which implies an evolutionary process: continuous and open to changes and reformulations along the way.

The communication and idea generation through visualisation is further presented in the article. The participants were able to build on each other's ideas through visual representations such as sketches and prototypes. The material collected from workshops, observations, interviews and discussions were also regularly presented for local residents in the community hall and put together in reports, as a way to visualise and describe how the project proceeded, and to inspire and motivate coming actions. An available project place was arranged at a public space where visual and textual information about the project could be found, and where thoughts and ideas could be shared in a suggestion box. Some of the ideas that had come up during the process were also visualised by the authors, as a way to make them more realistic. In interviews, the collaborative

methods and tools, as well as the sharing and visualisation of the results came up as important parts of the process, since it made it inclusive and transparent.

After having worked close with the tour guide organisation for some time the authors' roles as facilitators changed towards teamwork with the guides. As a result of having kept the process transparent, informative and involving, and having found local stakeholders to collaborate with, a shared ownership of the process could develop. It was not the single methods and tools that were the main contributions in the Dunga process, but the openness to changes, the participatory approach and visualisation as a way to communicate. This gives implications for how place branding processes can be carried out in the future, namely that the integration of participatory design and place branding can lead to community participation and commitment, open up for the community taking charge of the process, as well as place brand authenticity and long-term sustainability. It also gives implications for further research on place branding, participatory design and community involvement since it opens up for connections between the fields.

Article 2: Tourism experience innovation through design (appendix 2)

Experience innovation is described as collaborative and integrated in day-to-day work (Fuglsang et al, 2011; Sundbo et al, 2013). However, a challenge is to capture people's tacit knowledge and make it explicit, in order to bring forth ideas and concepts (Hjalager, 2010; Toivonen et al, 2007)). It is suggested that open innovation processes and user-based methods could provide new potentials for innovation (Sørensen and Sundbo, 2013).

The purpose with this article is to illustrate how design can be integrated with experience innovation. Design and the act of prototyping allows for innovations to take form while testing ideas in direct contact with stakeholders and the market. The concept of prototyping is uncommon in the marketing/management discourse however it is a vital phase in the design process. Visualisations and scenarios are used as tools for communication and idea generation between stakeholders. This 'design-by-doing' approach is spiral, iterative and reflective. Also, the recent decades' widening of the design practice to designing for societal needs (Sanders and Stappers, 2008), shaping strategies (Valtonen, 2007) and being a resource for development (Wetter-Edman, 2014) makes it interesting to relate design to experience innovation.

The case is the development of a guided tour in Dunga beach, Kisumu, Kenya. A participatory and action-oriented methodology is used, which is argued as being especially interesting for developing countries, where the integration of knowledge production, management, application and implications is an important issue. Kenya is a country where tourism is a core industry and where the development and use of sustainable processes with community involvement is seen as a key challenge for the future (Kibicho, 2004).

The process is illustrated through a spiral model of experience innovation and design in the experiencescape (see figure 2). The experiencescape (O'Dell, 2005; Mossberg, 2007) envisages how the interactions with the physical and social environment are part of the experience innovation process. In Dunga, the process resulted in possible innovations such as new ways of organising work responsibilities, new sales channels and possibilities for networking, new packaging of

products and services, improved customer service, new products and services as well as methods of producing goods and services. Changes in one type led to changes in other types, which consists with what Eide and Mossberg (2013) and Hjalager (2010) state as a characteristic of experience innovation.
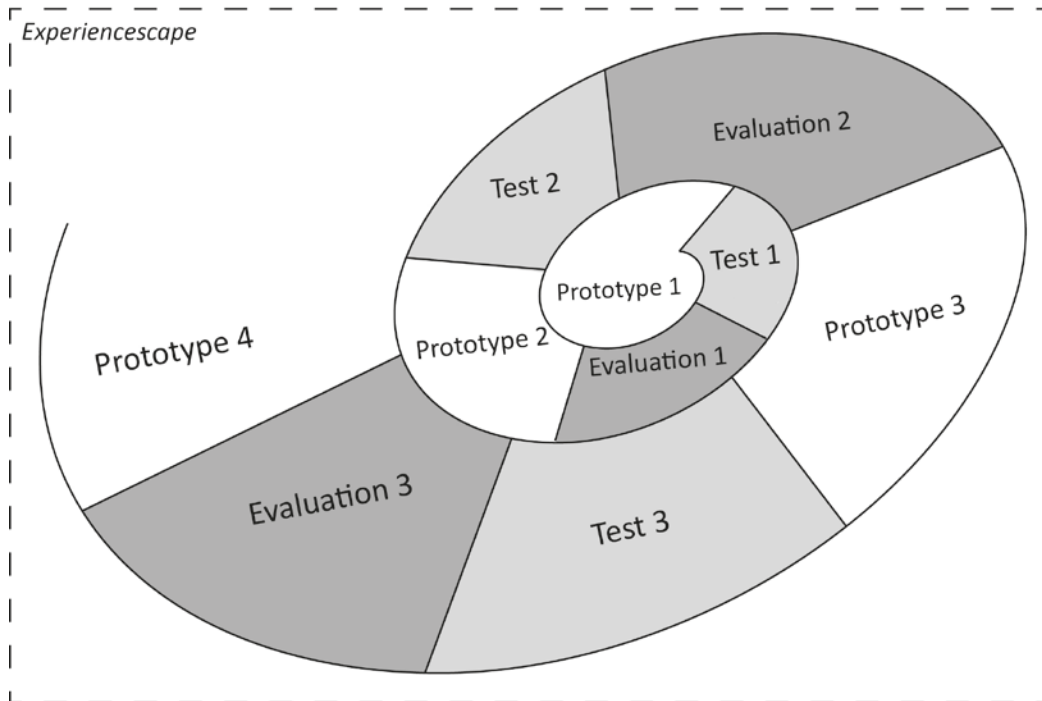
Figure 2 The experience innovation process taking place in the experiencescape

The spiral experience design and innovation model is an example of how it is possible to be strategic in the experience innovation process and at the same time staying close to the people who are the innovators; employees, customers and partners. The iterative process with visual tools takes care of new ideas, which are quickly and continuously tested on the market. The implication is that by viewing experience innovation as a spiral process within the experiencescape, an increased understanding of how the specific characteristics of the experience could be considered and developed for new or improved experiences. The findings from this article could be used as inspiration and tool, since seemingly small ideas could be developed into innovations through prototyping, testing, and evaluation.

The model is however a simplification and further research is needed. The article should be seen as a starting point for a discussion on how experience innovation processes could be understood and used.

Chapter 5. Concluding discussion

Participation is a general term for something that takes place between people. It has to do with who is in charge, with an emphasis on democratic decision-making. It may refer to different levels of power relations, as in Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation; from manipulation to partnership and citizen control. Participation does not specify who is involved: it could refer to interactions among and between governments, academia, networks of firms, employees, consumers, and citizens. It embraces several of the concepts in contemporary marketing literature such as co-creation, co-production, networking and relationship marketing. Participation may occur without arrangements however a lot of emphasis is put on making people take part in participatory processes. I argue that taking on a holistic view on participatory processes it is possible to approach it differently, with other angles on for example decision-making, process ownership, and methodology.

I have chosen a marketing design approach to participatory destination development, as an angle on participatory processes. In marketing and tourism literature there are few studies on how participation actually takes place (Camilleri, 2014): what happens in action, what goes well and what goes wrong, and what methods are used to reach participation. Regarding the developing world, Timothy (1999), and Wall and Mathieson (2006) even point out that the concept of participation rarely go beyond theory and planning documents, and Tosun (2000) propose that participatory practice rarely go beyond consultation. The movement towards sustainability is regarded as going too slow (Gordon et al, 2011). On the other hand, the larger scope that design could take on seems not yet to have resulted in total embracement of design on a political or managerial level although steps are taken in that direction. Just as Gordon et al (2011) propose about marketing's potentials, design could guide regulations, stimulate innovation, and challenge central institutions, thereby being an important contributor to sustainable development. To do that, design needs authorizing environments and stronger relationships, which Staszowski et al (2014) propose that designers must see to that they get. One such environment could be participatory destination development. The two fields of marketing and design could benefit from each other in the planning and performance of participatory actions, for example, seeing to that relevant stakeholders are considered, that methods and tools relies on the context, and that visual representations are central throughout in order to enhance communication and idea generation.

Place branding and experience innovation are in this thesis identified as moving towards an embracement of participation. They follow the progress of marketing theory in the sense that participatation take up great parts of contemporary literature. The emergence of service and experience logics embraces aspects such as relationships, stakeholder involvement, co-production, and co-creation. The two identified processes both have these ingredients and they involve different types of stakeholders, not only tourists but residents, employees, networks of firms and public organisations. Both are also part of destination development, dealing with the "making" of a place. The purpose with this thesis is to demonstrate how design can enhance participation in place branding and experience innovation in order to achieve sustainable destination development. The chosen processes are today standing quite far from design, which makes them even more interesting. For example, in the literature review on place branding and experience innova-

tion, design was not mentioned as possible connection regarding approaches, methods and tools, although there are clear links between the fields. A reason could be that it is not until recently that design and marketing/management have become linked to each other, and this connection is merely regarding product and service development. Since place branding and experience innovation are two young research areas, which neither fit easily into categories of products nor services, the connection to design is not as evident.

Two specific findings came out from the articles in this thesis: the evolutionary process and visualisation as a tool for communication and idea generation. Viewing place branding and experience innovation as evolutionary processes, as the design process often is described as, the interactions in the Dunga case became core. What happened in one phase was reflected upon before the next phase started, making it possible to change directions. This openness to changes made the process inclusive and proactive since the people participating saw that their own ideas meant something, not five years later but for the next workshop. It made people more motivated to come to the next meeting or workshop.

In the first article (appendix 1) about the integration of place branding and participatory design, the period from September 2012 until the latest trip in December 2013 is described, highlighting the moments when the process took a new turn. In place branding, evolution in regards to the process is sometimes mentioned, however it has not been thoroughly discussed what the characteristics of an evolutionary process are and why it is important. Moreover, place branding processes in general are not explained in detail as is done in the article. The application of place branding to the small context of Dunga beach where all the details on what went well and what did not give implications on how participatory processes evolve. Place branding is not about one single process that everyone can relate to but several that each evolves in different pace, with different stakeholders involved. The definition of evolutionary as referred to in the article is that it is continuous, rather than a "once and for all project" and that it is open to changes. The openness means that new angles and ideas are allowed, and that the reflection of each activity may lead to reformulations. Starting defining evolutionary place branding is one way to continue a discussion on the characteristics of participatory place branding processes. It should however be noted that this is a specific process in a specific context, and that an evolutionary process may not be advisable in every context. There may be a risk that it gets scattered and unmanageable. However, I argue that several processes could benefit from letting in more evolutionary elements, and the article is an example of such a process.

In the second article (appendix 2), the evolutionary process is described in a model where experience innovation is integrated with design, particularly the prototyping phase of the design process. I argue that a characteristic of experience logic can be discerned in the spiral innovation process; the close connection to the market, where ideas and concepts are prototyped, tested and evaluated. This type of process in Dunga brought forward several possible future experience innovations. Beginning to understand how innovations take place in practice by introducing a model (see figure 2) may result in others' refining, adjusting or even rejecting it, which means that the discussion continues about the characteristics of innovation processes and experience logic.

Participatory design is associated with a "design-by-doing" approach (Ehn, 1993, p 58) where people work in collaborative processes using for example prototypes, simulations and scenarios

to express what is not possible to state by language (Ehn, 1993). In the empirical example these types of representations were used for the purpose of developing an ecotourism site. The result of using visualization in the participatory process was that it enhanced communication and idea generation. As facilitators in workshops, it was easy to explain the purpose, using examples with photos and drawings. The other participants could easily do better sketches and more specific descriptions since they knew the place better, which set the workshop on an equal level in comparison with having just a discussion. By the use of prototyping, hands-on examples were given that were easy for people to relate to.

During the research process, I have thought about different views of and levels of participation. In design, participation could be argued as taking place in the act of making. By putting people together, letting them build on each other's ideas by visual tools and openness to changes, new knowledge is created both in each person's mind and in the collective, which results in a more preferred future. It is interesting to consider what level of participation on Arnstein's ladder such interventions could belong to. Are the participants informants or in control? The answer is probably dependent on situation. In Dunga, we wanted the participants to be in control, but we owned the tools and facilitated the workshops, which made it hard. As the process proceeded, the ownership seemed to be slowly taken over by the stakeholders in Dunga. However, this is what we think, but we do not really know if there ever was an issue of ownership from their side. We may think that we were in charge, but there are several projects going on in Dunga, and this was only one of many. The community owned the process all the way, looking at it from that point of view. Further, discussing power relationships, there are stronger and weaker groups and individuals in the community and we will never get close to understanding those relations. One important thing is to see that participation could mean different things. Exemplifying participatory process reveals the relationships between people and increases the understanding of power relations. This is particularly interesting in a developing country context, where project workers sometimes see themselves as being there to develop the undeveloped.

This is only the beginning of a discussion on how processes for destination development can be formed to enhance sustainability. Further research on evolutionary processes and visualisation, on sustainable destination development, and testing of methods and models are needed. Also a critical reflection should be taken into consideration on what the problematic aspects with these types of processes could result in.

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Epilogue

Helena Kraff and I presented a paper on a Design Management Institute conference in London in September 2014. In the paper we reflect on the process we have been through with critical eyes, mainly considering the concept of social design. The title is *Designing for or designing with?* Another co-written paper was presented by Helena Kraff in September 2014 on a Cumulus conference in Johannesburg. In that paper we discuss the transdisciplinary aspect of our research; the pros and cons of working in teams where practitioners, academics and the public sector work in collaboration for a common goal. Thirdly, by the time of the defence of this thesis, I will have presented an abstract for a coming article at a conference on Value in Tourism in Copenhagen. The co-creation of value between the tourist and different actors is discussed. It refers to a model proposed by Eide and Mossberg (2013).

Next time I and Helena go to Kisumu we will follow up on the project and see how it has developed since we left. This time we want to be there as one among many partners, trying not to take the lead. A future plan is to discuss a platform to support local communities in ecotourism development. The purpose is to strengthen local small actors to develop their place in their own pace, hindering players from outside taking over the resources, exploiting the place, and leaving the residents with nothing but menial jobs. It is also about developing not only Dunga but the region, sharing knowledge and ideas between stakeholders. A main point in the project is to keep the process evolutionary, why it is important to be aware of that there are always frameworks in projects, but that they should be discussed, interpreted and maybe reframed in collaboration with local stakeholders.

For my doctoral thesis, the plan is to work further on the aspect of participation on different levels, also taking a critical stance. I will write at least one article myself for the thesis, however I think that the co-production of articles between marketing and design is one of the main contributions with my and Helena's collaborative work.

Appendices

Appendix 1 (article 1): Participatory place branding through design

Not available in this publication. See Place Branding and Public Diplomacy for further instructions:

http://www.palgrave-journals.com/pb/index.html

Appendix 2 (article 2): Tourism experience innovation through design

Not available in this publication. See Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism for further instructions:

http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/sjht20/current#.VHMzjk1OVjo

Appendix 3: Project activity schedule

Project activities in Dunga and Kisumu September 2012 to December 2013					
No	**Activity**	**People in-volved**	**Contents**	**Purpose**	**Documentation**
1	**1st trip, September 2012**				
1.1	Meetings and lectures	25-30 PhD students from Maseno, Bondo (Jo-oust) and Gothenburg universities, and supervi-sors	Meetings and lectures. Get-together dinner.	Get to know each other, outline coregroup, learn about MUF, KLIP, the overall objectives and ecotourism/marketplaces. Set objectives for core group. Discuss and pre-sent research areas.	Notes, power-points
1.2	Choice of case	PhD student core group and supervisors	Minibus tour around Kisumu environs	Find case for case study	Diaries, photos
2	**2nd trip, November 2012**				
2.1	Stakeholder map-ping workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD student col-leagues, resi-dents, local organizations.	Visualization of stakeholders in Dunga, where they are placed spatially, the relationship between them, needs of im-provements, new partners or collaborations.	Create an inviting climate. Test the suitabliilty of tools, give indications for coming actions. Gain insight of Dunga from the eyes of the local commu-nity. Adapt the project to the place and local needs. Offer an opportunity for local community to share their views and encourage residents to participate in the development. Gener-ate ideas for future.	Visual maps of the current state and possible solutions for the future. Observation notes and photos.
2.2	Identity workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD student col-leagues, resi-dents, local organizations.	SWOT analysis, Who is Dunga? Past, present and future Dunga, Song production, Who is your user?	Create an inviting climate. Test the suitability of tools, give indications for coming actions. Gain insight of Dunga from the eyes of the local commu-nity. Adapt the project to the place and local needs.Offer an opportuni-ty for local community to share their views and encourage residents to participate in the devel-opment. Generate ideas for future.	SWOT analysis, drawn pictures of Dunga's identity, observation notes, photos and films.
2.3	Questionnaires	Residents participating in stakeholder workshop	One-page ques-tionnaire with questions to residents.	Get a grasp of the identity of the people living in Dunga. What they work with, their dreams for the future etc. Make people feel part of the process.	Filled-in question-naries, compilation sheets and written analysis.

No	Activity	People involved	Contents	Purpose	Documentation
2.4	Interviews	Eva Maria, Helena, domestic and international tourists on Dunga beach (31 interviews)	Semi-structured interviews with tourists on the beach.	Gain insight of who the tourists are and their experience of Dunga.	Filled-in interview sheets, compilation sheets and written analysis.
2.5	Open presentation	PhD student core group, Dunga residents, local organizations	Open presentation of findings in community hall.	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Powerpoint, notes, photos and films.
2.6	Report	Eva Maria, Helena (authors)	1st written report sent to stakeholders after trip: "Dunga identity and image".	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Written report.
3	**3rd trip, April 2013**				
3.1	Interviews	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD colleagues, tourism organizations	Open interviews with tourism organization representatives.	Take part of the strategic plans and thoughts for tourism in the city and region, specifically Dunga's development. Inform stakeholders about the project for future collaboration. Shared understanding.	Notes
3.2	Beach workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD colleagues, residents, local organizations	Hopes and fears of Dungas future tourism development. Postcards for tourists. Placed in suggestion box made by water hyacinth.	Create an inviting climate. Test the suitabilty of tools, give indications for coming actions. Gain insight of Dunga from the eyes of the local community. Adapt the project to the place and local needs.Offer an opportunity for local community to share their views and encourage residents to participate in the development. Generate ideas for future.	Hopes (clouds) and fears (explosions) with texts and pictures. Compilation sheet. Observation notes.
3.3	Good example workshop (day 1 of 3)	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (5 people)	Good examples. Relate Dunga to examples. Typical tourists. Idea generation.	Inspiration. Get closer to the daily life. Education. Create a base for future development.	Education material. Observation notes.
3.4	Walking workshop (day 2 of 3)	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (5 people)	Walking workshop.	Insight in current offer (guiding, signage, parking, littering, Kodak moments, souvenirs, interactions with people....) Base for future development.	Observation notes.

No	Activity	People involved	Contents	Purpose	Documentation
3.5	Packaging workshop (day 3 of 3)	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (15 people)	Development of ideas/packages	Ideas and packages for future development.	Posters with texts and drawings. Observations notes.
3.6	Open presentation	PhD student core group, Dunga residents, local organizations	Open presentation of findings in community hall.	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Powerpoint, notes, photos and films.
3.7	Report	Eva Maria, Helena	2nd written report sent to stakeholders after trip: "Dunga ecotourism development – emerging ideas and possible continuation"	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Written report.
4	**4th trip, November-December 2013**				
4.1	Start-up meeting and workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD student colleagues (ecotourism), tour guides in Dunga (15 people)	Presentations on current state and possible continuations. Group workshop (3 groups) on infrastructure, crafts production and guided tour.	Catch up with what had happened since April 2013. Needs and ideas for continuous work. Introducing experiencescape.	Powerpoint presentation. Posters with texts and drawings. Observation notes.
4.2	Graphic design lecture	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (15 people)	Lecture on graphic design held by Helena Kraff.	Tour guides and other interested learning the basics of graphic design to be able to prototype signs, labels, websites and other ideas and concepts.	Powerpoint presentation. Posters with texts and drawings. Observation notes.
4.3	Infrastructure workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (10 people)	Sketching on waste management system and signage system. Walk on the beach.	Prototyping ideas for infrastructure.	Posters with texts and drawings. Observation notes. Photos.
4.4	A day in Dunga workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (10 people)	Paper prototype on guided tour with focus on interactions and activities.	Prototyping of test tour.	Posters with texts and drawings. Observation notes. Photos.
4.5	Crafts workshop	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides in Dunga (10 people)	Sketching on labels, products and activities.	Prototyping labels, products and activities.	Posters with texts and drawings. Observation notes. Photos.

No	Activity	People involved	Contents	Purpose	Documentation
4.6	Test tour, national	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD student colleagues, tour guides, 2 families from Kisumu	Testing a prototype tour with a target group.	Gain insight on how a new type of tour could be performed, what reactions there were, how the different actors performed.	Observation notes. Notes from test tour participants. Photos and films.
4.7	Debriefing meeting	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides	Summary and reflection meeting in Dunga.	Reflecting upon and evaluating the test tour. How the tour could be developed for next test tour.	Meeting notes.
4.8	Test tour, international	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides, 8 adults from Sweden	Testing a prototype tour with a target group.	Gain insight on how a new type of tour could be performed, what reactions there were, how the different actors performed.	Observation notes. Notes from test tour participants. Photos and films.
4.9	Debriefing meeting/lecture	Eva Maria, Helena, Lena, PhD student colleagues (ecotourism), tour guides in Dunga (15 people)	Summary and reflection meeting in Dunga. Lecture by Lena Mossberg on tour guiding and tourism.	Reflecting upon and evaluating the test tour. Strengths and weaknesses, how the tour could be developed.	Meeting notes. Photos.
4.10	Debriefing with tourists	PhD student core group, Lena, KLIP director, ecotourism supervisor Kenya, participating tourists	Summary and reflection meeting.	Reflecting upon and evaluating the test tour. Recommendations from participants.	Notes and diaries. Photos.
4.11	Interviews	Eva Maria, Helena, tour guides, residents of Dunga (19 interviews)	Open interviews with tour guides and residents of Dunga who had been involved in the process and activities.	Gain insight of how people who have been involved in the process have perceived it; the methods used, the people involved and the process in general.	Transcribed interviews.
4.12	Open presentation	PhD student core group, Dunga residents, local organizations	Open presentation of findings in community hall.	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Powerpoint, notes, photos and films.
4.13	Report	Eva Maria, Helena (authors)	3rd written report sent to stakeholders after trip: "A day in Dunga - reflections and ideas from test tours"	Keep the process open to stakeholders, shared understanding. Summary of process, ideas and suggestions.	Written report.

No	Activity	People involved	Contents	Purpose	Documentation
5	**Recurring activities (September 2012-December 2013)**				
5.1	Experience proto-typing	Eva Maria, Helena	Follow the tourist experience: pre-trip planning process, trip experience, posttrip descriptions and reflections.	Gain insight of the context (history, current state). Find strenghts and weaknesses. Indications for coming actions. Shared understanding.	Diaries, photos
5.2	Experience proto-typing	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD colleagues, friends	Travel to other tourists sites, experience the site in comparison to Dunga. Open interviews of officials and other people on site.	Get to know the context and culture. See gaps in tourism offers and learn from good and bad examples. Shared understanding.	Diaries, photos
5.3	Preparations for work-shops/Prototyping actions	Eva Maria, Helena, PhD colleagues (partly), local organization representatives (partly)	Co-planning of workshop content, partipants' number and background, locality, documentatation planning etc.	Involve local community for shared understanding and encouragement. Adapt the project to the place and local needs. Ready plan for workshop's fulfilling.	Visual posters with post-its, signs, text.
5.4	Available project space	Eva Maria, Helena, for residents and tourists	Visualization of project in a public space in Dunga.	An extension of the activities performed. Facilitate the opportunity for people that could not attend the workshops to give their opinions.	Posters, written suggestions. Folders with all material gathered.
5.5	Academic meet-ings	KLIP academic team	Regular meetings with Kenyan and Swedish supervisors, KLIP board members, PhD student core group, ecotourism group.	Sharing of experiences, theoretical and empirical material. Planning.	Notes, diaries, protocols.
5.6	Meetings with tourism organizations, partners, and possible new partners in Kisu-mu and environs	Helena, Eva Maria, PhD student colleagues (part-ly), local organizations representatives	Meetings with tourism organizations (County Tourism organization, Ministry of Tourism, Lake Victoria Tourism Association).	Getting new contacts, involving stakeholder in processes, sharing information and knowledge.	Notes, diaries.
5.7	Meetings with local organizations in Dunga	Helena, Eva Maria, PhD student colleagues, local organizations representatives.	Regular meetings with BMU, Ecofinder and Dectta.	Updates, suggestions and decisions on activities.	Notes, diaries, protocols.