THE JAPANESE
STEREOTYPED IMAGES OF FINLAND

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

The aim of the study was to find out if there is a stereotyped image of Finland among the Japanese people and if there was, what it is like. The focus of this research was placed upon the Japanese arriving in Finland.

The study was conducted on ten flights from Osaka and Tokyo using a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of both structured and unstructured questions. The results were analysed using the statistical program SPSS (structured questions) and content analysis (unstructured questions).

The results have shown that there is a homogenised stereotyped image of Finland from the Japanese arriving in Helsinki. The supporting evidence for this was the homogenous answers, low and superficial level of knowledge, stability of the attributes mentioned, and the affective loading.

The image is very nature oriented, which supports previous studies of Finland's image, mainly conducted in Europe. Forests, lakes, nightless nights, fjords, northern lights, winter, water and snow were attributes mentioned frequently.

What makes the Japanese's image different from that of the Europeans' is the significant role 'imaginary attributes' play in it. With this I refer to the Moomins, Santa Claus, nightless nights and northern lights as they all are attributes, which appeal to your imagination.

Fjords were mentioned frequently in many of the questions. This indicates, that Finland's image is not very Finland specific, but rather that of the whole of Nordic countries.

Future research potential may lie in creating a questionnaire format, which would allow comparison of changing images as well as images in different countries. This would add further value to research on image cultivation and give a significant advantage for those in a position to market Finland or Finnish products abroad.

Asiasanat Stereotyped image, country image, Finland, Japanese stereotyyppinen imago, maakuva, Suomi, japanilaiset
Säilytyspaikka   Jyväskylän yliopisto / Tourulan kirjasto
Muita tietoja

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1 INTRODUCTION

In his book Karvonen (1997) states that we are living in an image society rather than an information society. What he means is that images of companies, politicians, products and nations have become of uttermost significance when making decisions concerning politics, trade, travel, voting and everyday life. This has made also nations to pay attention to their images. Most countries have embassies and attachés whose responsibility is to cultivate the country's image abroad.

Good country image facilitates the process of attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) to the country, as well as selling the country's products abroad. (Kunczik 1996; Kotler 1993.) Images also affect people's travel decisions. (Hietala 1993; Kunczik 1996). Thus, country image has an important role for a country's wealth and success as well as for the residents' lives.

1.1 Japan's importance for Finland and Finns

What makes Japan an especially interesting topic of research from the Finnish point of view is its position in the world economy. Japan is the world's second largest economy and it has two thirds of the purchasing power in the East and Southeast Asia region and the size of Japanese

economy is 15 % of the combined world GDP. The size of the economy offers a lot of business opportunities for Finnish companies both in Finland and in Japan. According to Finnish Customs (Tullihallitus), Asia region is the biggest single export market for Finland after the EU and Euro regions. The exports to the region accounted for 12.8 % in year 2000. Imports from Japan accounted for 5.3 % of total imports and exports to Japan accounted for 1.7 % of Finland's total exports. Japan is among Finland's fifteen most important trade partners. (Tullihallitus 2001, 10.)

The Finland-Japan trade has been active since the 1970's when Finnish paper industry founded sales offices in Japan. Although Japan had been doing extensive exports to Finland since the mid 1970's (mainly cars and electric goods), Finnish exports to Japan were on a very low level until the mid 1990's. After that paper export, which had been the only major Finnish product on the market until then, started to grow rapidly and two new product groups, wood and telecommunication, helped to raise Finland's exports to new levels. Paper and paperboard have been the dominant product categories in Finnish exports to Japan over the last 25 years, accounting for almost half of the total Finnish exports in the late 1980's. In 2003, the forest industry (paper and paperboard, wood and manufactures, prefabricated buildings and pulp) still accounted for 50 % of Finland's export to Japan. This differs significantly from Finland's overall exports where the forest industry cluster accounts for less than 30 %. Finland's exports to Japan have been growing exceeding 1 billion euro for the first time in 2002. (Embassy of Finland 2004.)

The pace of GDP growth has slowed down since the Japanese 'bubble economy' burst in 1993, and the Japanese economy descended into recession in 2002. However, the economy has started growing slowly, growth being estimated 2.4 % in 2004. (Finpro 2004.)

From the Finnish export industries' point of view Japan can still be considered as an appealing market. The enormous market of 120 million consumers offers a lot of possibilities, especially for IT companies, forest industry, biotechnology as well as building. The big maturing market segment can offer business opportunities for health care companies. However, the competition in Japan is fierce, and entering the market can be difficult. Furthermore, the customers are very price and quality conscious. (Finpro 2004.)

An especially interesting Japanese market segment is that of the 'baby boomers' (i.e. the generation born after the Second World War in 1947~1950). According to Karppinen (2004) the maturing market has a lot of purchasing power. The baby boomers do not have a mortgage to pay nor have they children to support anymore. These people are active travelers. They want to travel in groups and want service in Japanese. They come to Nordic countries because of their perceived safe and clean image, but they seek for natural experiences such as the northern lights. As consumers, the baby boomers are very demanding and quality conscious. (Karppinen 2004.)

According to the Finnish Travel Bureau MEK there were 68 000 Japanese people visiting Finland in 2003. There has been a steady rise in the number of Japanese people arriving in Finland until SARS epidemic in 2003, which got its start in Japan's neighbour China. In 2003, there was a 21 % decrease in the number of people arriving in Finland compared to the previous year. However, the number of Japanese people arriving in Finland has accounted for about 2 % of all the visitors since year 1998. (MEK A:136 2004.)

In 2003, the Japanese visitors spent in average 319 euros per visit and 55 euros per day, which is significantly less than earlier years. There were more passers-by than during previous years; in 2003, almost a third (31 %) were

same-day visitors. (MEK A:136 2004.) Summer months (June–August) and December are peak months, when almost half (43 per cent) of the nights spent in hotels and other places occur. (MEK A:130 2003).

Japan is an interesting area of research also due to the ongoing changes in the Japanese society. Japanese values are said to be in flux as the traditionally collectivistic society is changing towards more individualistic direction. (e.g. Nao, 1990; Koskiaho, 1995; Salo-Lee, 2003.) Besides travel, the shift towards more individualism may be reflected in the consumer behaviour of the Japanese.

Furthermore, the Japanese's images of Finland are also of interest for the reason, that the two cultures (Finnish and Japanese) represent two very distant cultural spheres, and both cultures are quite homogenous by cultural tenns. (Koivisto 1998.)

Not surprisingly, according to Kunczik (1996), Lobsenz (1984) says that the major goals of countries whose interests are being presented by PR firms in the U.S. are the improvement of tourism, trade, industrial development, and above all, image cultivation. Considering these facts mentioned above, it is not only interesting but also important to find out how the Japanese perceive Finland. This is because Finland's country image can have far reaching effects for Finnish businesses both in Japan and in Finland.

1.2 The purpose of the research, research problem and key concepts

In order to build a positive image or to break down a negative one of a particular country, a situation analysis must be made. (Manheim & Albritton 1984). In this study I am going to study the stereotyped image of Finland and Finnish people among the Japanese. The main research question is: *Do the Japanese have a stereotyped image of Finland and if they do, what is it like?* Other

research questions are: *What are the attributes that the Japanese people associate with Finland? What do they think Finnish people are like? What kind(s) of images (i.e. pictures) best correspond to their image(s) of Finland?* And furthermore, *how much do they actually know about Finland?* The focus group is the Japanese tourists arriving in Finland.

The perspective of this research is taken from that of organisational communication, but it also combines marketing and intercultural studies. The key concepts are stereotype, image, stereotyped image and country image, Finland and Japan.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Images and stereotypes, which will be discussed in this chapter, are cognitive structures, which affect the way people perceive the outside world and make sense of new information. They are the representation of the world that the person has, and they in turn affect which pieces of new information will be selected and how it will be interpreted. (Ausubel 1987, 625.) These cognitive structures are reality, i.e. the way the world is, to those people who adhere to them, but they are not the reality in the strictest sense of the word. (Lehtonen 1997). The first concept to start with is image.

2.1 Image

When studying images, it is impossible to avoid coming across the extensive gamut of meanings the term image has been given within different contexts. There are terms, such as reputation, stereotype, attitude or representation, which are often used as synonyms for image. There are predominantly two problems that occur when attempting to define the term image. Firstly, the word is used so commonly and often without true consideration of what is being said, that it can mean almost anything. This can be best illustrated when considering that the Oxford English Dictionary (2004) gives the word image 17 different explanations. Secondly, there is a continually on-going debate among scholars about what 'image' actually is. Thus, definitions often

overlap and terms are used differently from author to author. For example, Kunczik (1996) and Aula & Heinonen (2002) use the words 'image' and 'reputation' respectively. Although they are different in their definitions both words are used almost as synonyms. That is, if you replace in the text either image with reputation or vice versa, the passage is still coherent. In marketing, the word brand is often used in a very similar manner.

The term image became popular in the United States in the 1950's, and was used to describe "the aura of a person in public life, a party, a product, a nation, a people, and so forth" (Kunczik 1996, 39). This was at the same time as the launch of television in the U.S. TV was used for marketing purposes, and thus, the visual term "image" became a common term when talking about marketing and ideas and meanings associated with the products on sale. It should be noted though that images are not the product of the modern visual culture, but people throughout history have had images of other people, nations, products etc. (Karvonen 1997.)

Images have since the 1950's been of great interest and concern for marketers. This has created a lot of heated debate among journalists and other critics. There is a very pessimistic or critical point of view, which claims that images are not representations of the true nature of the objective reality but rather a prettified, artificial, synthetic and (over) simplified image of the complicated reality. This rather pessimistic view is based on ideas presented in Daniel Boorstin's image classic "The Image" (1975). Critical journalists and communication scholars also are inclined towards this view (Aula & Heinonen 2002, 48.)

The critiques claim that marketers and public relations professionals would sell anything just by creating an appealing surface. (see e.g. Aula & Heinonen 2002). This is certainly true if you consider many products or even images of

nations. However, it would be very difficult for a nation to maintain a positive or even a neutral image if it was not based on reality. (Kunczik 1996.)

In their book, Rope and Mether (1987) argue that as long as the marketers know the people's psychological mechanisms, they have a possibility to create images and use them in marketing of their products in order to achieve the company's business goals. This is not to say that people's minds could be manipulated, though. It is to say that rather than being rational, people's (consumer) behaviour is often affected by emotions and thus using appealing images might help selling the product. (Rope & Mether 1987.)

Thus, many writers believe in the power of images, as long as they are based on reality (see for example Kunczik 1996; Karvonen 1999). According to Kunczik (1996), Kenneth Boulding argues in his book, also named "The Image" (1952), that image is "efficient and succinct communication, which helps in convincing how an organisation can meet the customer's needs" (Kunczik 1996). This is probably the most prominent point of view in the modern business world, which also nations have come to realise.

The juxtaposition between marketers and journalists – to put it simply - is reflected into the way word image is used. It is worthwhile noticing, that when talking about images, sometimes the word is used to refer to the "impression a person or an organization consciously wants to give of itself" (Lehtonen 1990), and sometimes to the "mental representation of something (esp. a visible object), not by direct perception, but by memory or imagination" (Oxford English Dictionary 2004). The former definition emphasises the role of the sender, whereas the latter one emphasises the active role of the receiver.

Grunig offers a solution for this dualistic view. According to him, image can be divided into two parts: artistic image and psychological image. (Grunig 1993). Grunig uses the term 'artistic image' to imply the process of image making, image building and image projection. This is what the advertisers and "spin doctors" do, and what has been criticised by many scholars and journalists. Furthermore, he uses the term 'psychological image' to imply the information construction about the "object" that the people have in their minds.

Thus, 'image' can be seen as constituting of two parts as follows:

<u>(1) Artistic image (what is sent)</u>

(2) Psychological image (what is received and constructed) [1]

In English language the term image entails a great deal of ambiguity. In Finnish, the latin word 'imago' is used to refer to image in the sense it is used in marketing in English (both Grunig's artistic and psychological image). However, the use of the word - especially during recent years - has become almost a trend and it is used very commonly and without true consideration. It is noteworthy that the Finnish word 'imago' did not exist in Finnish dictionaries in its current meaning until the 1970's. Until then the word 'imago' referred to a butterfly grub. The assimilation of the word into Finnish language during the last few decades can be seen as a sign of the commercialisation of the Finnish society.

In this study I will concentrate on the receiver's perception (2), (i.e. Grunig's psychological image), and will not pay attention to the image the sender

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[1] The historical study of images often uses the term 'picture' to refer to the same notion. However, in historical study of images the object of research is *the creator* or *possessor* of the image, the person who has a certain image of a phenomenon in his mind (Fält, 2002).

desires (1) (artistic image). However, I will discuss the artistic image to some extent in chapters six and seven.

When considering the wide array of definitions of the term image, a few notions arise among them repeatedly. First of all, they acknowledge the visual aspect of image. This is natural considering the origins of the word in its current meaning (i.e. TV and marketing purposes). Images do not have to be physical, but they can be mental pictures, i.e. the product of one's own imagination. As such, they do not have to be true to their original targets. This is not to say that they cannot be "true". However, individual's experiences, assumptions, knowledge and impressions affect images. Secondly, images are popular, or shared among a group of individuals, but they can also vary considerably among individuals.

Based upon the evaluation of the term image it is my belief that Kotler's following definition is the most useful one. Kotler (1993, 141) defines a place's image as "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a people have of a place. Images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with the place. They are the product of the mind trying to process and "essentialise" huge amounts of data about a place". Kotler's definition is especially useful for this study as it defines a place's image, and as it combines all the essential elements of other definitions.

2.2 Stereotype

Finnish people are said to be overtly interested in what other people think about them and their country (see for example Maula 2004; Rusanen 1993). This is well illustrated by the joke published in Finland's English-speaking magazine *Six Degrees* earlier this year: A group of scientists, a Frenchman, a German, an Italian and a Finn, are asked to study an elephant herd according

to their specific study area. The German makes an analysis on the size and bone structure of the elephants, the Frenchman is interested in their diet and the Italian selects to study their sex life. The poor Finn, alas, comes with the study on: "What do elephants think about Finns?" (Maula 2004, 10.)

The joke mentioned above is based on stereotypes of not only Finns but other nationalities as well; the Germans are considered practical, the French cook marvelous food, the Italians are amazing lovers and Finns – at least as far as this joke is concerned – are very insecure about themselves. We all have ideas of what other countries and nationalities are like, even without having ever visited the country or meeting those people before. We may "know" Switzerland is the country of the Alps, France is the country of the baguette and wine, Japan is the country of cherry flowers and geishas and Finland is the country of thousands of lakes. This knowledge can be passed on from a person and generation to another – for example in the form a joke. These ideas, also known as stereotypes, are a way to make sense of the world.

A famous American editorialist and political thinker Walter Lippman anticipated many of the current ideas about stereotypes as early as the 1920's. Kunczik (1996) claims that according to Lippman (1922) stereotypes are like maps that help us to navigate in the world. They also guide our behaviour and regulate interaction. (Kunczik 1996, see also Lehtonen 1991, 175.)

According to Gudykunst and Bond (1997), intergroup expectations emerge whenever others are categorised as group members. Once individuals are categorised, stereotypes may be activated. This means that the affect and attitudes individuals have towards the members of other groups become salient. According to Gudykunst & Bond, Devine (1989) argues that contemporary research suggests that eliminating stereotypes is not possible and not a prerequisite for successful intercultural interaction.

Leyens, Yzerbyt & Schadron (1994, 3) agree with several authors that "stereotypes are shared beliefs about person attributes, usually personality traits but often also behaviours of a group of people". According to them, we cannot live without stereotypes, or more specifically, without the process of stereotyping. The process includes categorising people in different groups, and categorisation in turn includes homogenization. Thus, stereotypes are simplifications. Stereotypes correspond to social categories (ethnicity, gender, age, personality and nationality) as well as individuating information (such as behaviours, personal characteristics and situations) and enable finding a balance between all these factors. Stereotypes can, and often do, include controversial information and they often are a mixture of both positive and negative components. (Leyens *et al.* 1994; Kunczik 1996, 41–42.) Suvanto (2002, 95) showed in her study that the way Japan and the Japanese were presented in travel books targeted at the Western audience, includes components which can be seen almost the opposite: there is the feminine side of the country, which entails the natural elements, cherry flowers, geishas and tradition, and on the other hand, the masculine world, which entails technology, rapid trains, development and Japanese business men in their suits. This is a very good example of how a stereotype enables people to embrace controversial qualities – good and bad, tradition and development, masculine and feminine etc. – of a country in one stereotype.

Thus, stereotypes are different from prejudices, which are "purely negative, derogatory judgements and discriminatory predispositions towards certain ethnic group" (Aboud 1988 in Leyens *et al*. 1994, 13).

Leyens *et al*. (1994, 5–6) take a pragmatic point of view concerning stereotypes. When people decide how they categorise people, the situation and the goals in interaction will determine what kind of data will be selected and perceived of the particular person, and how it will be used. However,

according to them, "the reality alone can never constitute the ultimate criterion for judgements". According to social judgeability theory, judgements are made so that they do not only match reality but also respect certain social rules, protect people's identity and give meaning to the world and allow communication. (Leyens *et al*. 1994, 5–6.)

Stereotypes can concern either your own group or other groups of people. Lehtonen (1998a, 193) distinguishes stereotypes into four categories, which are as follows:

Table 2.1 Categorisation of stereotypes according to Lehtonen (1998a, 193).

1) simple autostereotype	In my opinion Finns are…
2) projected autostereotype	We think that the Japanese consider us (Finns) to be…
3)projected heterostereotype	In our (Finns') opinion the Japanese think that they are themselves…
4) simple heterostereotype	The Japanese consider Finns to be…

According to Kunczik, Hofstätter (1957) argues that nations seem to "understand" each other the better the more similar their autostereotypes are, the closer their image of the other nation is to their image of themselves and the greater the similarity between the images the two nations have of a third nation. (Kunczik 1996, 38.)

According to Jalagin (2004), the strength of stereotypes lies in their ability to appeal both to the knowledge, but also to the emotions of the holder of the stereotype. Stereotypes, which are based on emotional appeal, are difficult to change even if there is new information available. Stereotypes based on emotional appeal are often exoticised and tell more about the holders of the stereotype rather than about the object. (Jalagin 2004, 80.) The notion that an

image can tell more about its holder and his or her values than about the object (of stereotyping), is very typical of 'picture' research (i.e. historical study on images).

Stereotypes of other nations are fairly well-known and widely accepted. For example, Wilterdink (1994) showed in his study among several European nationalities that German people were commonly considered orderly, the Italians spontaneous, and the English reserved. Some of these characteristics can be found in literature dating back to the seventeenth century, which tells about the fixed nature of stereotypes. (Wilterdink 1994.) Even though people from different countries can agree on these national stereotypes, there are also some differences in the ways other nationalities are perceived. For example, the Swedes readily think that the Finns make decisions too quickly and that they are authoritative whereas the Germans are annoyed by the Finns' conciliatory and (in their opinion excessively) democratic decision-making style. (Lehtonen 1998b.)

2.3 Images of Nations as Stereotyped Images

Terms image and stereotype were defined in the previous chapters. However, images and stereotypes may seem very similar and distinctions should still be made in order to come to grips with the terms.

What distinguishes image from stereotype, according to Kunczik (1996, 39) is image's active component. According to him, image is something that is created and cultivated by its possessor, whereas stereotypes are created by the environment and are ascribed.

According to Kotler (1993, 141), stereotypes are widely held distorted images, which are oversimplified and affectively loaded. Images in turn do not include an affective component; according to him, two people can have

the same image of a place, but hold differing attitudes towards it. (Kotler 1993, 141.)

However, images and stereotypes serve very similar purposes. According to Wilterdink (1994), images serve as a guideline when interpreting the reality; images help in organising the social world. They help us classify others as belonging to a certain nation and attaching certain characteristics to these people. This helps the classifier to come to terms with his or her social surroundings. Furthermore, he argues, national images help explain social experiences and make them comprehensible and they help people evaluate social experiences and give meaning to their own emotions.

Also Kunczik (1996, 39–40) points out that stereotypes help us to navigate in and make sense of the world we are living in, similarly to stereotypes. Negative perception of the other group and positive perception of one's own reduces insecurity and removes possible fears.

When images of nations are concerned, it is my belief that we should talk about stereotyped images. This is because images of nations contain components, which are typical of both images and stereotypes. Images of nations are images in the sense that they are the "sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a place". Furthermore, they are stereotyped in the sense, that they are often oversimplified, include an affective component and they are passed from one generation to another (for example in a form of a joke mentioned earlier). Furthermore, images of other nations help people to make sense of the outside world by making it comprehensible and approachable.

Stereotyped images of nations and other nationalities are relatively inflexible and often have nothing to do with the reality apart from a kernel of truth.

(Kunczik 1996, 42; Jalagin 1998, 68.) This is because the "users" of the stereotyped images often do not have to face the objective reality but their images help them to cope with their everyday lives. (Kunczik 1996, 42). Also long geographical distances and political and cultural differences tend to give rise to stereotyped images. (Jalagin 1998, 68.) The smaller the country the more simplified and thus stereotyped the image. (Loppuraportti 1990; Kasurinen 1992).

2.4 Stereotyped Image formation

Image formation is a long and complicated process, which is affected by cultural background and cognitive selectivity, and it is often impossible to say how, where and when images instigate. According to Kunczik (1996, 102), Lippman (1922) has said: "for the most part we do not first see, and then define, we define first and then see". This very typical human behaviour is called cognitive selectivity. Kunczik explains: "People tend to select certain objects from the physical and social environment and fit them into their own existing cognitions. And of selected objects, only certain aspects are perceived, in turn, those that correspond to wishes, emotions, and so forth. Such cognitive selectivity depends on the qualities of the stimulus and on the personality traits of the perceiving individual." (Kunczik 1996, 104). Wilterdink (1994) supports Kunczik's notion by arguing that images which we have formed in our mind affect the way new information is perceived and interpreted and further assimilated to support the existing image.

This is to say that we perceive things, which support our already existing images and stereotypes. If new information is controversial with what is already known, the controversial information can be ignored. So too can other information be ignored, if a person is not interested in it. Any message can be interpreted in many different ways depending on the receiver's life experience, attitudes, cultural and sociological background and other

personal factors and thus support the receiver's worldview. Either the information can be selected differently or identical information can be perceived differently. However, in both cases the interpretation of the message is not the same. (Kunczik 1996, 103).

Information is needed in order to create images of nations. The information can be direct, i.e. based on social experiences with members of the nation in concern (for example by visiting the country, social interaction with the people or direct observation of them), or indirect, i.e. written accounts, vocal communications or pictures (articles in newspapers, radio programs, websites etc.). The indirect sources do not have to be factual, but they can also be clearly fictitious (books, films, stories etc.). Furthermore, they can vary from simple and popular (for example, travel guides) to complex and scientific, from moralistic and emotional to analytic and detached. Images are based on these diverse types of information. (Wilterdink 1994.)

Images are not permanent but they can change over time. The process can start as a child and continue throughout one's life. Children do not have prejudices or fast images until the age of four or five. Later on in life though, children's parents and other close people will affect the way their children think and the images and prejudices they will have. As images are formed at a very early age and usually without much consideration, they generally are affectively loaded and have very little informational content. (Kunczik 1996, 43–45.) This is why the concept of stereotyped image describes the images of nations better than just the concept of image.

Later on in life, if no other resources are available, the greatest influence on the images of foreign countries and peoples is the mass media. This is because mass media is often the only source of information when other countries are concerned, as we often do not have first hand knowledge

available. Because of cognitive selection, it is not possible to infer directly and linearly any effect from the dissemination of the content by the media because the psychological and social context of the recipients must be taken into account. (Kunczik 1996.)

However, it goes without saying that the media does not represent the world as it is. The agenda is greatly influenced by the news values, i.e. mostly negative things get into publicity. Thus, small, distant and rather stable countries such as Finland are hardly present in the Japanese media. This notion was also supported by Manderscheid (1997) in her Finnish image research in Germany.

According to Kunczik (1996), Lippman (1922) emphasizes the role of second hand knowledge and fiction in image formation. Because people often don't have first hand knowledge of the country concerned, they often rely on second hand knowledge, be it TV news or pure fiction. Information concerning other countries is often irrelevant for people's everyday lives and thus people settle for second hand information without questioning it. Thus, image formation may be very haphazard and it can be very difficult if not impossible to interfere in the process.

In intercultural communication, external qualities are the most immediate source of images, information and experience. This is particularly true if there is no common language between the two people. (Jalagin 2004.) Thus, the images the Japanese have about the Finns will most likely be affected by visible rather than cultural things. Also according to Hofstede (1997, 7-9), the so-called symbols, heroes and rituals (i.e. for example, language, celebrities, manners, and other visible things), are the first things an outsider perceives of a foreign culture. The underlying values can remain unnoticed for a long time.

ORGANIC IMAGE

Motivation to travel

Active information search and process

INDUCED IMAGE

Evaluation of alternative destinations' benefits and images

Destination selection

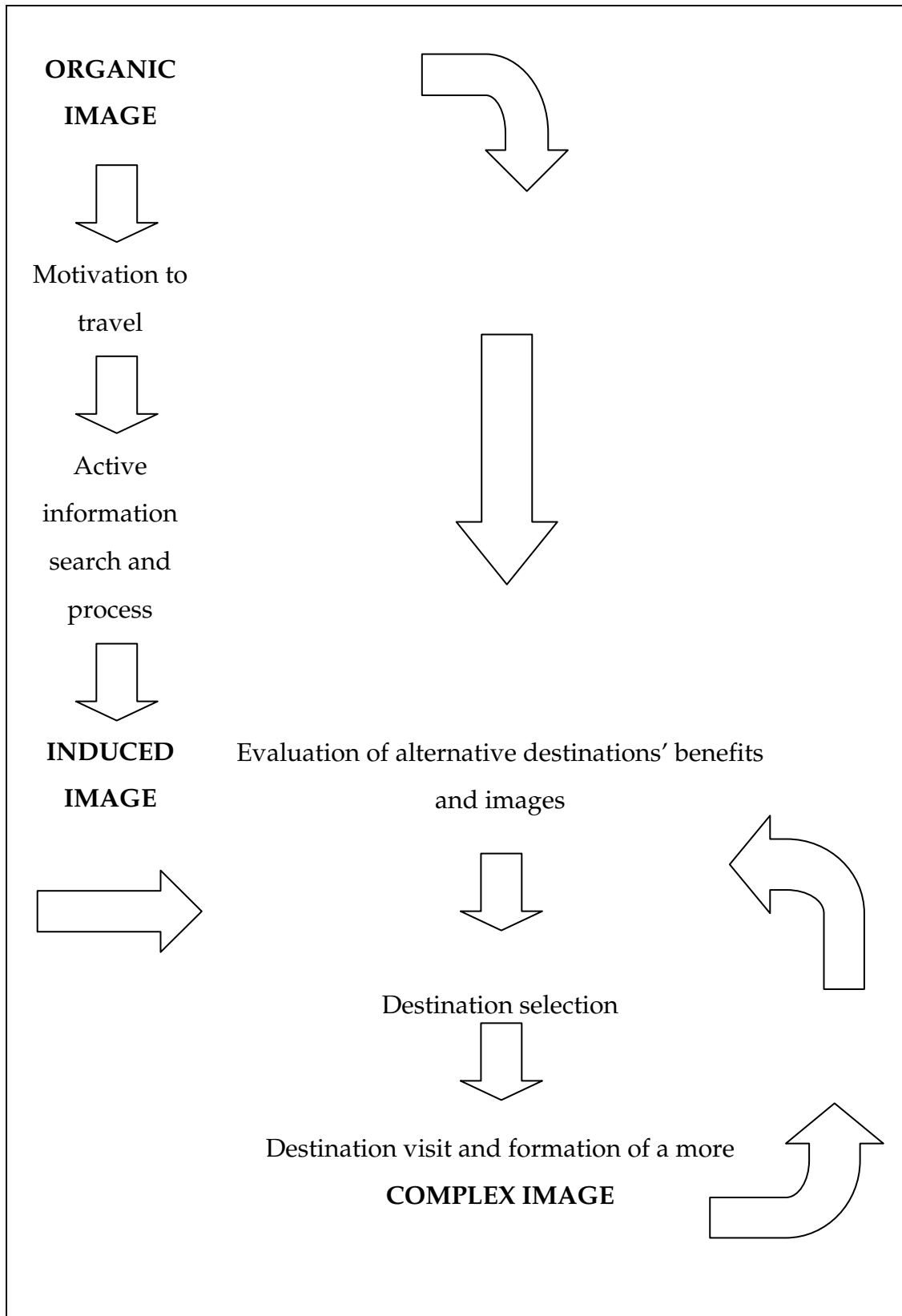Destination visit and formation of a more **COMPLEX IMAGE**

Figure 2.1 Gunn's (1972) model of a tourist's image formation process (Manderscheid 1997).

According to Manderscheid (1997), Gunn (1972) has developed a model especially for a tourist's image formation process. According to him, images of nations develop from an organic image to an induced image and further into a complex image. An organic image is the image that is formed as a result of exposure to mass media reports and other non-tourist specific sources. Induced image in turn refers to an image, which has been affected by travel agencies, advertisements and other similar sources. Finally, after visiting a country, a person will develop a more complex image. (Manderscheid 1997, 165–166.) This could be understood in the sense that stereotyped images turn into complex images after having visited a country personally.

2.4.1 Culture as an image attribute

People typically observe other countries and nations from their own cultural perspective. They use their own values, customs and norms as the yardstick for evaluating other cultures. This is called ethnocentrism, and it is typical of all nations. Their own group is the center of everything and everything else is judged by everyone's own culture's standards. At its extreme this ethnocentrism can result in racism. (Liebkind 1988.)

Cross-cultural psychology, cultural psychology, psychological anthropology, and indigenous psychology are four psychological perspectives, according to which culture shapes the human thought and behaviour working as an antecedent. Without going deeper into the details, all these social scientists acknowledge (at least on some level) that culture can play a crucial role in shaping virtually any aspect of human thought and behaviour. However, there is an on-going debate about how 'culture' is defined.

According to Adler (1997, 14-15), Kroeber and Kluckhohn's definition for culture is one of the most widely accepted and comprehensive ones: "*Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the other hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioning elements of future action*".

There are differing views about the role of culture affecting thought and behaviour; culture can be seen either as a moderating factor, which affects human behaviour indirectly, or mediating factor, that affects behaviour directly. (Lonner & Adamopoulos 1997.) Kroeber anfd Kluckhohn's defition is useful in the sense, that it sees culture broadly both as a determining as well as an explaining factor of and for behaviour.

Cole (1987) talks about the 'cultural method of thinking'. He argues that psychological processes are social in nature, historical in origin, and mediated in structure. This is probably the same idea that Hofstede has, when he writes about culture as the "collective programming of the mind" which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. (Hofstede 1997, 5). By 'programming' Hofstede refers to the process, which takes place as the environment and the life experiences shape the individual's mind. This results in the person being 'pre-programmed' to think in a certain way. The person still has a freedom to think, feel and act, but in the constraints of the "software", i.e. his cultural and personal background and experiences. (Hofstede 1997, 235.)

Culture is something that shapes our behaviour and structures one's perception of the world. Adler (1997, 14-16) describes culture with a continuing circle, where culture influences one's values, which in turn

influence one's attitudes, and furthermore behaviour. Behaviour again affects the culture, and the circle starts from the beginning.

Also Siikala (1987) argues that cultural schemas (for example stereotypes and images) are formed differently in different cultures. Also Kunczik (1996) argues, that culture is one of the factors, which affect the images people have of other nations.

There have been several attempts to describe cultures and compare them with each other. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's six basic dimensions describe the cultural orientations of societies: people's qualities as individuals, their relationship to nature and the world, their relationship to other people, their primary type of activity, and their orientation in space and time. (Adler 1997, 18-33).

Another widely used approach are the four cultural dimensions formulated by social anthropologist Geert Hofstede. The dimensions are (1) power distance, (2) collectivism versus individualism, (3) femininity versus masculinity, and (4) uncertainty avoidance. In his study conducted at IBM, 53 countries were compared and given different ranks on these four dimensions. For example, Japan ranks first on masculinity-femininity dimension, and seventh on the uncertainty avoidance dimension. This is to say that the Japanese society is very masculine (i.e. the men are supposed to be assertive, tough and focused on material success whereas women are opposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life), and that the Japanese feel rather threatened by uncertain or unknown situations and want to find ways to reduce uncertainties in life. (Hofstede 1997.) "Confucian dynamism", (also know as 'long-term orientation') was included later in 1991 as the fifth dimension of national culture variance. The

fifth dimension aims at reducing the Western bias of the cultural dimensions. (Fang 2003, 348).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions' strength is in their clarity and the fact that they allow intercultural comparisons. Even though Hofstede's dimensions have been widely accepted and the model has been a scientific foundation for culture research since its development, his model has more recently been criticized for several reasons. Fang (2003) criticises Hofstede's dimensions for their attempt to measure 'the average pattern of beliefs and values in a culture'. Fang argues that cultures can not be seen as consisting of one national culture, but people can behave very differently depending on context, situation and time. Thus, instead of seeing culture in Hofstede's 'either/or' way (for example, *either* masculine *or* feminine), they should be rather seen in a 'both/and' framework (*both* masculine *and* – depending on the context, situation and time – feminine). (Fang 2003, 363). For example, the Japanese culture is ranked on top of the masculinity scale, but in some situations the Japanese people can (and certainly do) behave in a way, which cannot be considered very 'masculine'. This is to say, that cultures cannot be given a rank on a scale, but they can rank very high on a scale in one situation, and then rank on the opposite end of the same dimension in another one.

This is not to say that culture does not affect human behaviour. However, based on Fang's notion that there is not only one national culture, it is not my attempt to try and describe Japanese culture as such. Rather, I'll return to cultural and social factors and phenomena later when analysing the results and thus attempt to explain the reasons attributing to the images.

2.5 The Role and Importance of Stereotyped Images of Nations

When talking about images of nations, it is necessary to point out, that 'nation' is quite a recent invention in human history. A distinction should be made between nations and societies. Nations refer to the units that the world consists of, and you can tell into which group an individual belongs to according to his or her passport colour. However, societies do not know national boundaries. "Historically, societies are organically developed forms of social organisation, and the concept of a common culture applies strictly speaking, more to societies than to nations" (Hofstede 1997, 12). However, often nations (as is the case for Finland and Japan) can be considered as societies, especially due to their quite homogenous population and because the majority of Finnish people live in Finland and the majority of Japanese people live in Japan. I will use the word *nation* to refer to both the country and its people in this study.

Kunczik points out that when talking about the 'national character', it is not necessarily valid due to the big size and heterogeneous population. National character can only be found in societies that are relatively small and easily overviewed (Kunczik 1996, 37). However, national character can be discussed in the cases of Finland and Japan, Finland being a small country (Finland's population being only 5.2 million inhabitants), and both having quite homogenous populations.

Images of nations play an important role in all the aspects of social life, be it politics, trade, travel or people's everyday lives. According to Karvonen (1997, 30) we can talk about image society instead of information society as images have such an important and essential role in Western capitalist societies. While information overload has become a nuisance in post-modern

societies, the power of images has not diminished. Quite the contrary; the most successful companies, as well as nations, are the ones, which can make their investors believe they are successful. These companies and countries can enjoy their customers' and investors' loyalty even during difficult times. If the image of a company or a nation were poor, the investors would draw their money out when the first signs of problems occurred. (Kunczik 1996; Karvonen 1997; Kotler 1993.)

The image of a country in permanent crisis or as economically unreliable, generated perhaps by continuous negative reporting, can influence economic decision-making processes and discourage investment, which in turn can exacerbate future crises. (Kunczik 1996, 58.) This was partly the case in the economic crisis of the Asian miracle economies in 1997. In this case the negative image became a self-fulfilling prophecy: the poor image of the region weakened the investors' trust in those countries' economies and suddenly stopped the inflow of new investments which in turn resulted in deepening the economic crisis. (e.g. Lasserre & Schütte 1999.)

Researchers have studied the effects of country image on consumers' product evaluations for over three decades. (Han 1989). The country of origin effect (COO) refers to close interconnections between the image of a nation and its economy. The COO effect works by creating image transfer between the product (or the company) name and the positive image of the nation-state. As a result, products are evaluated differently depending on the place where they were made. This country of-origin information is very important for the Japanese. (Li 2001, 93.)

According to Han (1989), country image can be explained as either a halo or a summary construct. When people are less familiar with a country's products, country image performs a halo construct. The less information the

consumer has of a product and the more similar competitive products are to each other, the greater the influence of the image of nation-state on the sales of those products. In such cases the "made/in" designation often is the decisive factor on whether or not to buy. In other words, country image affects the believed product attributes and country image is used as a cue about the product in concern and thus affects the attitudes towards the brand. On the other hand, when people are more familiar with a country's products, country image operates as a summary construct, whereby consumers' beliefs about product attributes influence country image. Meanwhile, country image affects the brand attitude. Country image seems to play a greater role when evaluating high involvement products (for example hedonic products and expensive products) than when comparing low involvement products (such as groceries, T-shirts etc.). (Han 1989; Srikatanyoo & Gnoth 2002.)

The way decisions are made in Japan differs from the Western decision-making style. According to Lasserre and Schütte (1999, 136), an inductive approach to decision-making is very typical of Asian organisational cultures and one of the fundamental ways in which Western and Asian organisational behaviour differ. It can be assumed that the importance of country image is stressed in this kind of decision-making process.

Images of nations are not only of importance in the economic and business sense. Wilterdink specifies three main functions that national images serve for an individual. Firstly, (1) national images help to make order to the social world. By classifying other people as belonging to certain social groups (nations), the classifier can makes sense of the social environment in which he or she has to cope. Secondly, (2) national images help explain social experiences and make them comprehensible. This means that actions of individual people or entire nations are explained by linking them to

personality traits of an entire nation. This kind of behaviour is very typical of all the nations, and psychologists call it the fundamental attribution error. This means, that people explain other people's behaviour by cultural factors and differences rather than situational cues. Third, (3) national images help people to evaluate social experiences and thus give meaning to their own emotions. Evaluation typically includes a moralising tendency, and dividing people to groups that are liked, and ones that are not liked. These likings and dis-likings often reveal things about one's own society. (Wilterdink 1994.) For example, Finns' 'dislike' towards the Swedes is a reflection of the Finns' poor national self-esteem (i.e. autostereotype). (Lehtonen 1997).

Images can take a lifetime to form, but they can change over night. For example, the country image of the U.S. has changed dramatically especially since her actions in Iraq after 9-11. The same applies to Iraq as well, whose image has changed from an exotic country of Arab princes and princesses to that of a war-torn country of terrorists. A country's poor public image can have a great impact on the lives of its citizens, as is the case with the Americans, who can hardly travel to Arab countries. Thus, it is extremely important for nations to maintain a good image abroad. Even though in these examples image alone may seem a farfetched answer to a diverse problem, the very fact that people are so concerned about their country's image and that it may have such an important role to play in their lives makes it a worthwhile field of research.

2.6 Study of images

The study of images is relatively new. Before 1950 very little attention was paid to image cultivation or how images were created. (Kunczik 1997, 16). Images have been studied especially in the U.S.A and Japan (Fält 1982). One of the reasons for starting intercultural communication studies was the need to understand and exploit U.S.-Japanese relations. (Fält 2002).

Nimmo and Savage (1976) as well as Salzer (1989, according to Lehtonen 1998, 183) assume that the (national) image consists of three components: the cognitive, the affective and the behavioural components. Similarly, Salzer assumes that images affect a person's knowledge structures and attitudes as well as behavioural choices concerning people or products of a particular country.

2.6.1 Images of Finland in previous studies

The country image of Japan has been studied thoroughly in the West. (e.g. Fält 1982, 1983, 1988; Suvanto 2002). The emphasis has often been on the cultural differences rather than similarities and the Japanese perceptions of the West in general. Finland's image has been mainly studied from other European countries' perspective (also the Soviet Union and the United States). This is quite natural considering their proximity and the fact that nine out of ten tourists arriving in Finland are from European countries. (MEK A:136 2004). However, in contemporary world countries' economies are increasingly closely tied together and intercultural encounters have become more and more commonplace due to new communication and transportation technology. This sets demands for countries to understand each other better and to know how they are seen by others. According to an old Chinese warrior philosopher Sun Tzu, in order to be successful in a battle, you have to know yourself as well as your enemy in order beat him. Similarly – even though it might be inordinate to compare the study of a country's image to a Chinese battle 2500 years ago – countries should know how they are perceived by others in order to be successful.

Studies which have studied foreigners' perceptions of Finland, its political system, companies, products, and so on, have been conducted since the

1960's. (Kasurinen 1992). However, comparison of these studies is rather difficult. This is because most of the research is small-scale, and the research methods vary considerably making the comparison of separate studies impossible. These studies often concentrate in one country only. In some studies, the sample size is so small, that they do not allow generalisations. There is a number of newspaper articles, but other material is harder to find.

The Japanese's image of Finland has been studied by the Finnish Travel Bureau's winter travel research (MEK A:130 2003). The results of the study show, that the Japanese arriving in Finland during the winter months head mostly towards Lapland in order to enjoy the snow and winter activities, such as dog or reindeer rides and to go (down hill) skiing. The Japanese arriving in Finland were mostly over 60 years old and often did not speak any other language than Japanese. For the Japanese, Finland was quite an exotic place. They expected to see the northern lights (Aurora Borealis), Santa Claus, or midnight sun (in the summer time), go for reindeer or dog rides and try the seafood of the Baltic Sea. They probably "knew" that Santa Claus and the Moomins were Finnish. (MEK A:130 2003.)

An older study of the Japanese's image of Finland was conducted by the Finnish foreign ministry in 1987. Generally speaking, Finland's image in Finland was then quite positive. The Japanese associated Santa Claus, Amiraali beer, nightless nights, lakes and forests with Finland. Finnish architecture and music were quite well-known in Japan. However, Finland's image in Japan was not stabilized, and the image was a secondary image. (Kasurinen 1992.)

Finland has endeavoured to create an image of Finland as 'the country of thousands lakes'. However, this image of Finland is not a matter-of-course as hardly any Britons or Italians associate Finland with lakes. (Saraniemi &

Komppula 2003, 70.) However, according to MEK's winter travel research (2003), the Japanese probably hold this image of Finland based on the travel brochures they had read. The reason for the difference might lie in the different sample groups. In Saraniemi and Komppula's study, people from the streets were interviewed, whereas in MEK's study, Japanese tourists in Finland were interviewed.

Saraniemi and Komppula (2003) studied the image of Finland in seven European countries, which are the main markets for Finnish travel industry. They found out that the image of Finland was nature-oriented and concentrated in winter conditions and Nordic location. The most common attribute associated with Finland was the cold (weather). In general it can be said that Finland is quite an unknown country. Six per cent of Saraniemi and Komppula's respondents did not have any kind of image of Finland. Manderscheid's (1997) study of Finland's image in Germany supports Saraniemi and Komppula's findings. Also she found out in her study that Finland was rather unknown and mostly known for its Northern location.

The images of those people who had visited Finland before had a different image of the country than those who had not been to Finland. Those who had been to Finland had a more detailed image of it. People who had visited Finland before, associated sauna, lakes, forests and friends with Finland more often than those who had not been to Finland before. (Saraniemi & Komppula 2003, 69.)

The Swedes' associations with Finland were more concrete than the associations of other nationalities. This is probably explained by the Swedes' numerous contacts with Finnish people and culture. The Swedes had also been to Finland more often than other nationalities. (Saraniemi & Komppula 2003, 69.)

Concrete and functional expressions were used to describe Finland more often than abstract qualities. Concrete qualities such as the environment and activities, as well as built resorts were mentioned more often than psychological qualities such as things related with culture, history, region's character, atmosphere or customs. (Saraniemi & Komppula 2003, 70.)

In Saraniemi and Komppula.'s study (2003) the most often used adjectives associated with Finland were 'good', 'nice', 'exotic', 'hospitable' and 'friendly'. People who had visited Finland before used more positive adjectives than people who had not been to Finland before. Other adjectives, either neutral or negative, associated with Finland were 'different', 'small', old-fashioned', 'barren', 'empty', 'boring' and 'remote'. Finnish brands or public figures were not emphasised in the respondents' answers.

2.6.2 Finnish people in previous studies

Finnish people have been studied especially much in intercultural comparative communication behaviour studies (e.g. Lehtonen 1993, Rusanen 1993). Silence is probably the attribute that is most often associated with the Finns' communication. Also Finns' remarkably low national self-esteem has been a subject of research. (e.g. Sajavaara & Lehtonen 1997). Finns have perceived themselves as hard-working, jealous, shy, honest, prejudiced, rigid, persevere, taciturn, selfish and complacent (Lehtonen 1993), which directly reflects their low national self-esteem. However, these auto-stereotypes can change over time and the Finns' national self-esteem has possibly improved since the early 1990's, maybe due to the membership of the European Union, and increased number of intercultural encounters. However, that would be worthy of another study.

Foreigners' perceptions of Finnish as communicators or work colleagues are not as negative as Finns' autostereotypes would let us assume. In Rusanen's study (1993) Finns' foreign colleagues described Finns as being friendly, quiet, timid, prudent, calm, reliable, patient, logical, comfortable, withdrawn, cooperative, effective and open. Most of these adjectives are rather positive than negative.

People's perceptions of other people depend on their own cultural background. Thus, it is important to point out that most of the studies comparing Finns and other nationalities have been conducted mostly among Western people. Especially English-speaking countries' cultures are considered highly verbal, unlike Scandinavian cultures. Thus, non-verbal cultures are easily stereotyped negatively by Anglo-Saxian people. (Sallinen-Kuparinen 1987). When other people evaluate Finnish communication style, they might find it strange due to their own cultural background. For example, a Spaniard would probably think that a Finn's body language is extremely rigid, but a Japanese person might think the Finns gesture too much when they speak. The English-speaking cultures' dominance can possibly partly be seen as a reason for the Finns' low national self-esteem. Thus, it is about time to widen the scope to include other parts of the world in the comparison and evaluate Finns' strengths and weaknesses from a different point of view.

3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

3.1 Situation Analysis

Finland's country image has been mainly studied from a European perspective, but we know very little about the images that people from outside Europe have about Finland. There are thousands of Japanese tourists coming to Finland every year, of whose images we know very little about. The aim of this study is to provide some valuable information of how Finland and Finnish people are seen by the Japanese. Thus, it can help many industries, especially tourism, not only know how they are perceived but also to better understand their Japanese customers.

3.2 Problem Statement, Goals and Objectives

The purpose of this study is to find out if there is a stereotyped image of Finland among the Japanese people arriving in Finland, and what kinds of images the Japanese have about Finland and Finns upon their arrival. I will concentrate upon Boulding's psychological image (see chapter 2.1) in my research, i.e. images in the Japanese people's minds. It is not relevant whether these images are "true" or not, but they are valuable as such. I will not discuss Boulding's artistic image (as in chapter 2.1) in great depth but

only to the extent I think it is necessary in order to understand the images of study.

3.3 Research Questions

The two main research questions are as follows:

1) Is there a stereotyped image of Finland among the Japanese arriving in Finland? And,

2) if there is one, what is it like? i.e. what are the images and attributes associated with Finland and Finnish people?

More specifically, the research questions are as follows:

- What are the images of Finland held by Japanese tourists on their arrival into the country?
- Are they related to education?
- Are they related to age?
- Are they related to gender?
- Are they related to area of origin in Japan?
- Are they related to number of visits to Finland?
- How much do they know about Finland?
- What does this imply for tourism and any other industries about Finland?

The purpose of this study is to examine the Japanese's image of Finland and their simple heterostereotype of Finns (see chapter 2.2). Finns' autostereotype was discussed to some extent (see chapter 2.6.2) and it will be tested in one section of the questionnaire.

Thus, this study examines the attitudes towards Finland and knowledge about Finland. Behavioural choices are not particularly tested. As the people

are on their way to Finland, it is highly likely that the image they have about Finland has affected their behaviour already. Thus studying their behaviour would not give reliable results.

4 RESEARCH STRATEGIES

When studying images, several problems arise. The fundamental problem when assessing images is the use of *words* to assess visual *images*. As images are visual in nature, it is often difficult or even impossible to decode them by using words. Images are often complex and expressing them using words does not make them right. Secondly, the instigators of the image are difficult to identify (Kunczik 1996, 16). Third, according to Kunczik (1996, 43) when the question of images is posed it is possible something is measured that does not even exist. In other words, the respondents may fill out a questionnaire without having ever heard about a country or product and thus give a false idea of what his or her image is like.

4.1 Comparison of Research Methods

When studying images, various types of research methods are used. In historical image research attention is paid to what the image is like, how and why it has been formed, what purpose it serves, how has the image changed over time and most importantly, what does the image tell us about the creators or possessors of it. As the focus of interest is in historical images, all the possible material (travelogues, books, notes etc.) from that particular era can be used as source material. (Fält 2002, 9). This research method is usually applied in historical studies as it is impossible, for example, to interview

those people as they are not alive anymore. However, images change over time and as the purpose of this study is to study contemporary images instead of historical ones, other methods are more suitable and available.

Content analysis is another method frequently applied in communication studies and studies of images in literary text. Content analysis can be defined as a "research technique for making replicaple and valid inferences from data to their context" (Krippendorff 1980). Content analysis usually means counting the numbers and frequencies certain words, icons, symbols or pictures appear in the material. For example Suvanto (2002) uses content analysis to determine the images of Japan and the Japanese appearing in the popular literature targeted to Western audiences. However, the purpose of this study is to study the images the Japanese have in their minds. Thus, there is one fundamental problem with content analysis as a research method. Image formation is a long-lasting process and it is impossible to determine what impact, for example, a travel guide, has had on the image of a particular country. Thus, content analysis was not employed for the research.

Depth interview is a research method that enables the researcher to obtain rather deep, rich, and "thick" descriptions for the research problem. This allows the researcher to probe deeper into the subject and enables drawing an accurate picture of the respondents' true feelings. However, this research method has its limitations as well. Depth interviews tend to take considerably longer to complete than for example a survey questionnaire. Even though the data might be "richer", it is also more subjective due to the limited amount of responses and to the unstructured form of the research. The interpretation of data is also very susceptible to the interpreter's background and thus raises questions of both the reliability and validity of the results. (Churchill & Iaobucci 2002, 273.) When it comes to the research in

concern, the major challenge and limitation was the language barrier. In order to obtain good quality data by depth interviews, either the respondents should have talked English, which is not their native language or alternatively, the researcher should have talked Japanese. These are limitations that make it impossible to employ otherwise very useful method of depth interviews.

All the research methods described above are qualitative in nature, or combine both qualitative and quantitative methods. The advantage of qualitative methods is the depth of data, which allows the researcher to make conclusions or find answers to the research problem(s) often quite easily. Qualitative methods are particularly useful when the researcher wants to describe a phenomenon or find solutions for it. (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002; Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2000.)

In comparison, quantitative research methods enable collecting a much larger pool of data. Quantitative data can be collected rather easily using a survey questionnaire, which allows a big sample size and better representativeness of the population. Other benefits of quantitative research methods are the relative easiness of administration, tabulation and analysing of data compared to qualitative methods. (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002, 272; Hirsjärvi *et al.* 2000.) Furthermore, the language barrier is not a problem as a survey questionnaire can relatively easily and accurately be translated into another language.

4.2 Explanation of Methodology and Sampling

The study was conducted using a survey questionnaire. Survey questionnaires are often used to collect information about facts, behaviour, knowledge, values, attitudes, beliefs, ideas and opinions. (Hirsjärvi *et al.* 2000.) Thus, it is a suitable research method for studying images.

The sample consisted of Japanese people arriving in Finland. The sample was suitable for the study because most Japanese people arrive in Finland on a plane due to the long distance. Thus, the sample should quite well represent Japanese people arriving in Finland. The arrivals probably have a formed image of Finland, which was of interest in this study. However, as they have not been to Finland yet, their images have not been affected by their visit yet (unless they have been to Finland before). This allowed better quality data than if the people had filled out the survey while in Finland. Furthermore, distributing the questionnaire on a flight enabled the researcher to obtain a much larger sample that would otherwise been possible due to time and economic constraints. The respondents were also likely to have time and will to fill out the questionnaire during the long flight. Thus, the results were not as likely to be affected by the respondents getting tired of answering than they would have been if collected elsewhere.

4.3 Questionnaire Design

The design of a questionnaire can affect the results. (Hirsjärvi *et al.* 2000). This was taken into account when designing the questionnaire. The questions, which entailed pictures were put on the first page to grab the respondents' attention. The most important questions were put in the beginning and the least important (such as background factors) were at the end. In the beginning there was a short explanation of the purpose of the research and the respondents were told to fill out the questionnaire independently and were encouraged to answer according to their own feelings. (See appendix 1.)

The questionnaire consisted of both structured and unstructured questions. The advantage of using structured question is that they are easy to code into statistical programs. However, unstructured parts were also used in order to

allow the respondents to answer differently, if none of the given categories felt like the right response alternative.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts: The first part studied the country image of Finland. Especially images (i.e. pictures) were used in order to study the Japanese' associations and mental images in order to determine the Japanese' images of Finland. In question number one, four pictures were presented, and the respondents were asked to mark the one they thought best corresponded to their image of Finland. One of the pictures was a typical Finnish landscape from Punkaharju with lakes and forests. The other three pictures were a picture of the Alps, a picture of Norwegian fjords and a picture of a beach. All the pictures were chosen so that they were not too obviously not Finnish. Of course Finland does not have fjords or big mountains, but all the pictures contained elements, which were "Finnish", i.e. snow, pine trees and water. The picture of the beach could have been from Finland as well, as there were not any palm trees or anything that Finland does not have.

In question number three, six pictures from Finland were presented and the respondents were asked to choose the ones they thought best corresponded to their images of Finland. The pictures were a picture of pine forest, picture of a lake, a picture of a hay field with haystacks, a picture of Helsinki (main street Aleksanterinkatu) with a tram and people, a picture of a winter forest, and a picture of Lapland with a barren landscape and a Sami people's shelter in it. All the pictures could have been rather easily been recognised as being Finnish by a Finn. Some of the pictures contained elements of people and buildings (pictures four and six), and different times of the year (picture five).

Furthermore, an unstructured part was included in this section, where the respondents were asked to name up to five things that came to their minds when they thought about Finland. This enabled the respondents to think about their associations with Finland without the constraints of the structure of questionnaire and set alternatives.

The second section studied the respondents' attitudes towards and ideas of Finland and compared Finland with other countries. In question number four, the respondents were asked to give their opinion towards their friend's marriage with different nationalities. The aim of the question was to figure out how the respondents felt towards Finns compared to other nationalities. The different nationalities were Chinese, Finnish, French, American, Swedish and Korean. The Chinese and Koreans were chosen because of their close location with Japan. Also the war between Japan and China (1894-1895) and Japan's invasion of China again in World War II, and the Japanese colonial rule in Korea (1910-1945) make these two countries interesting targets of comparison. The Americans were chosen because of the U.S. occupation of Japan after World War II (1945-1952). The Swedes were chosen in order to compare the attitudes towards the Finns and Swedes, and the French were chosen as they represent another Western country with a relatively neutral relationship with Japan.

In question number five, the respondents were asked to compare Finland with Japan in terms of prices, social security, people's education and professionalism, technology, athletes' achievements, equality among genders, and differences in income. These seven cases were chosen in order to see if the Japanese had an image of Finland as a welfare state (see e.g. Karppinen 2004), and to see how the Japanese saw Finland in comparison to Japan.

In question number five, the Likert technique was employed. Likert scale is a commonly employed research technique when measuring attitudes. (Hirsjärvi *et al.* 2000). The respondents were given several statements concerning Finland, and then the respondents were asked to express agreement or disagreement of a five-point scale. Each degree of agreement was given a numerical value from one to five (1=strongly disagree…5=strongly agree). Thus a total numerical value could be calculated from all the responses.

The third part studied the images of the Finns. The purpose of this section was to test if the findings of Lehtonen's (1993) and Rusanen's (1993) studies were comparable with the Japanese image of the Finns. These previous studies had analysed how foreigners perceived the Finns and how the Finns perceived themselves. Osgood's semantic differential was used in this part. The respondents were asked to evaluate Finns on a five-point scale, on which the opposite ends were opposite adjectives (e.g. shy – confident, reserved – outgoing), taken mostly from Lehtonen's and Rusanen's research findings.

The fourth section of the questionnaire tested the respondents' level of knowledge about Finland. The respondents' level of knowledge was tested in order to see how much the respondents actually knew about Finland. The respondents were first asked to evaluate their own level of knowledge. The questions included a question about Finland's location on the map, Finnish brands, celebrities, imaginary characters, number of inhabitants, main language, main religion, and in which drink the consumed most in the world per inhabitant. This question was added mainly in order to see if the Japanese were familiar with Finnish culture. Also, there is a strong stereotype of Finns being vodka drinking people, whereas Finns actually have the world's highest consumption rate per inhabitant in coffee. (Reimavuo 2002).

Finally, the fifth section provided background information about the respondents including for example sex, age, place of residence, level of education, reason for travel, duration of stay, number of visits to Finland, information sources concerning Finland, and reasons for choosing Finland as a travel destination. The questions were asked in order to make cross-tabulation according to socio-economic characteristics.

4.4 Questionnaire Translation

The questionnaire was originally produced in English. A native Japanese person then translated it into Japanese. After this, another Japanese speaking person translated it back into English. This double-checking enabled the researcher to reduce inaccuracies and mistakes in the translation process.

The questionnaire was nine pages long (see appendix 2.). It was translated into Japanese most importantly in order to allow more recipients to reply thus reducing educational bias. This provided a broader sample not only in quantity but also in quality.

Problems in the translation process are discussed later in chapter 6.4.

4.5 Procedures for Data Analysis

250 questionnaires were distributed on ten Finnair flights from Japan between July 21st and August 8th 2004. Half of the flights flew from Osaka to Helsinki and the other half from Tokyo to Helsinki. There were 25 questionnaires on each flight that were distributed. The cabin crew was asked to distribute the questionnaires to Japanese people both in business and economy classes. Questionnaires were distributed to only people over 16 years old and one per family or group. When distributing the questionnaire,

the cabin crew was asked to inform the customers saying it was a customer survey. (See appendix 3.)

In order to get a valid sample, 100 responses were needed. It was then calculated that 250 questionnaires would give enough responses. Finnair's own previous research projects had shown that in average about 40 percent of the questionnaires were returned. This quite low response rate is due to delayed flights, problems on the flights and other factors, which make it impossible to distribute questionnaires during the flight.

4.6 Analysis of the results

The results were analysed using statistical program SPSS. Frequencies, cross-tabulations, one sample T-test, and calculation of means were the most commonly used methods for analysis. Content analysis was employed for the analysis of unstructured questions.

5 RESULTS

5.1 Data collected

Of the respondents, 70.1 % flew from Osaka and 29.9 % flew from Tokyo. Tokyo's lower response rate was partly explained by the fact that one of the 25 questionnaire packages could not be delivered on a Tokyo flight due to a flight attendant's injury. Thus, the remaining cabin crew did not have time to distribute the questionnaires on the flight.

5.2 Response Rates

Of the returned questionnaires 177 were either completed or partly completed the remainder being untouched, the response rate thus being 78.7 %. This includes the incomplete questionnaires but not the undistributed or those that were distributed and weren't initiated. The response rate was significantly better than expected and the big sample size allows generalisations.

5.3 The respondents

The following chapters provide information about the characteristics of the respondents including their sex, age, education, area of residence, reason for

travel, previous contacts with Finland, duration of their stay and information sources.

5.3.1 Sex and age

Of the respondents, 31.8 % were men and 68.2 % of the respondents were women (see figure 5.1). 30–45-year-olds were the biggest age group accounting for 32.2 % of the respondents, the second biggest age group being people over 60 years, accounting for 29.9 % of the respondents. 46–59-year-olds accounted for 23.7 %, people between 16 and 29 accounted for 14.0 % of the respondents. Figure 5.2 shows the distribution of different age groups.
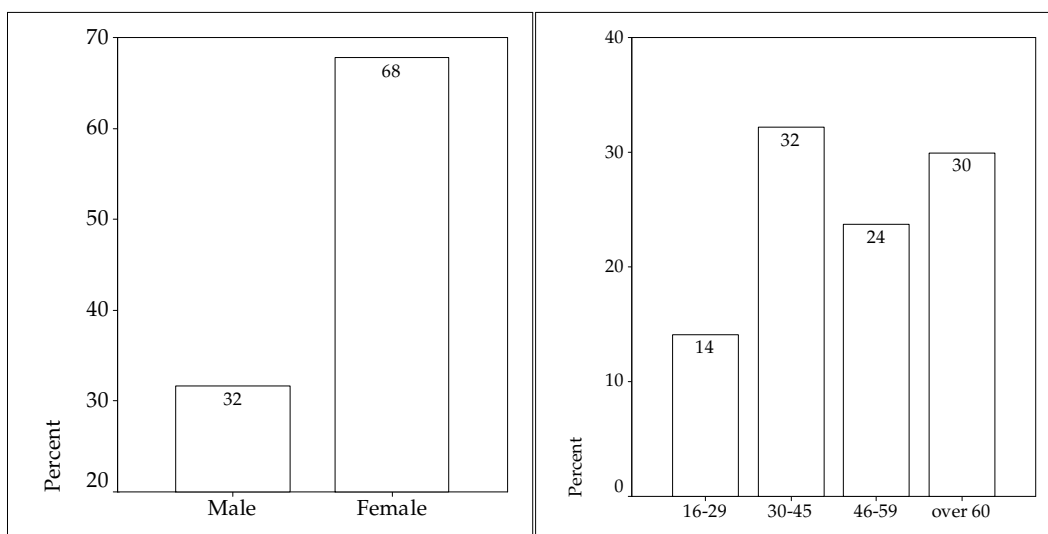
Figure 5.1 Sex   Figure 5.2 Age

5.3.2 Area of residence

Two thirds of the respondents were from cities: 39.0 % of the respondents were from the capital area and 28.2 % of the respondents were from a city with over one million inhabitants. The remaining 32.6 % were from smaller cities or the countryside. The metropolitan Tokyo area is overpresented

compared to the whole population, where the 14 million Tokyo people correspond to about 11 % of the total population. However, Japan is a very urban society with a 77 % urban population. (Japan Visitor 2004). Area of residence is presented in figure 5.3.
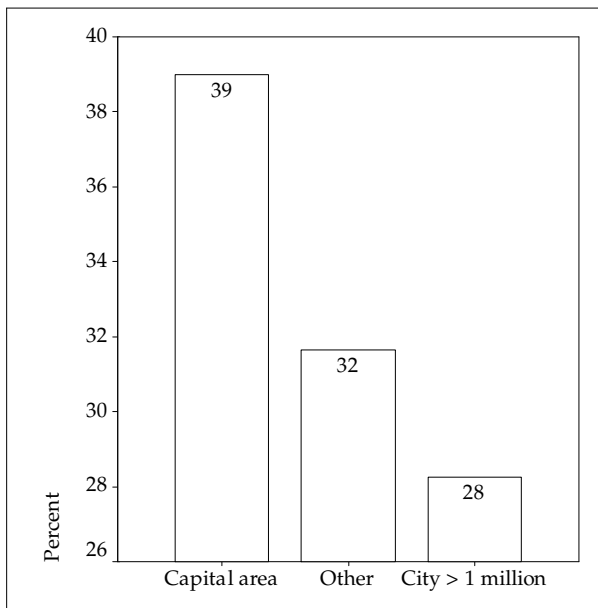

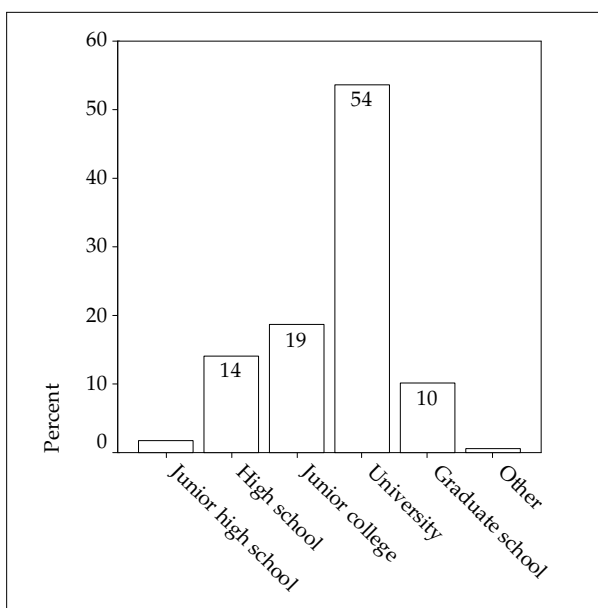Figure 5.3 Area of residence

5.3.3 Level of education

Figure 5.4 Highest level of education

When asking the highest level of education, 54.3% had a university degree and 10.3 % had graduated from a graduate school. Other respondents' highest levels of education were junior college (18.9 %), high school (14.3 %) and junior high school (1.7 %). The remainder of people (0.6 %) received another form of education. The level of education is presented in figure 5.4.

5.3.4 Reason for travel

People who came to Finland came for a holiday were a majority (62.9 %). Business people were the second biggest group (10.3 %), following by visitors of friends or relatives (4.6 %). Almost a quarter (24.0 %) reported that the reason for travel was another reason. Of this 24.0 %, 28.6 % reported being on a Scandinavian tour. Reason for travel is presented in figure 5.5.
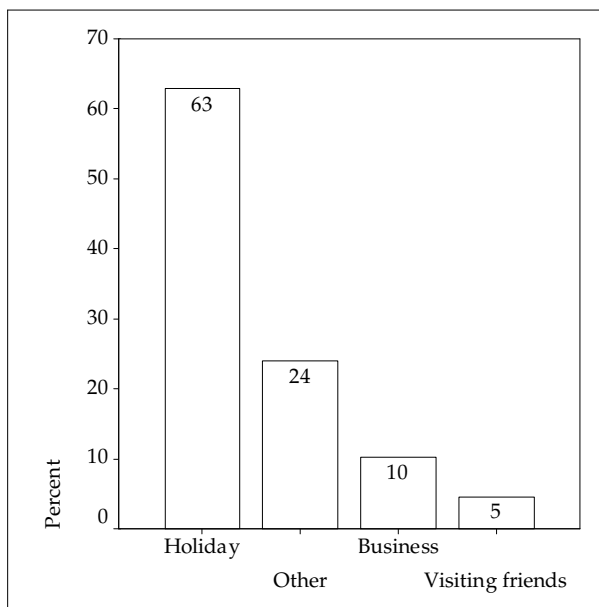
Figure 5.5 Reason for travel

5.3.5 Previous contacts with Finland

Of the respondents, majority (77.7 %) had come to Finland for the first time. Less than a third (22.3 %) had been to Finland before. Their mean number of visits was 3.73. The times visited varied between 1 and 25 times, both mode and median values being 2.

Of the respondents' relatives and friends about two thirds (66.0 %) had not visited Finland before, and a third (34.0 %) had. The respondents' friends or relatives had usually been to Finland once earlier (59.3 %).

5.3.6 Duration of stay

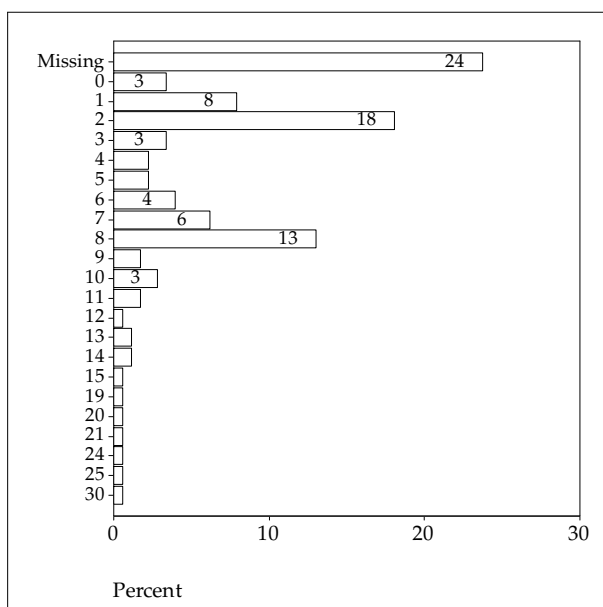The duration of stay varied between 0 and 365 days. The mode for the

Figure 5.6 Duration of stay

respondents' duration of stay was 2 days. This accounted for 18.1 % of the replies. More than half (55.0 %) of the respondents reported staying for eight days or less and 12.4 % reported staying for one day or less. The response rate for the questions was 76.3 %. The durations of stay are presented in figure 5.6. Half days have been omitted from the figure

5.3.7 Information sources

When considering use of sources of information about Finland, respondents had read about Finland in books (59.8 %) and travel brochures (46.6 %). Other sources of information had been the Internet (32.8 %), friends or relatives (20.1 %) and the mass media (TV, radio or newspapers) (15.5 %). People who believed they had seen or heard no information about Finland were 10.4 %. The use of information sources is presented in figure 5.7.
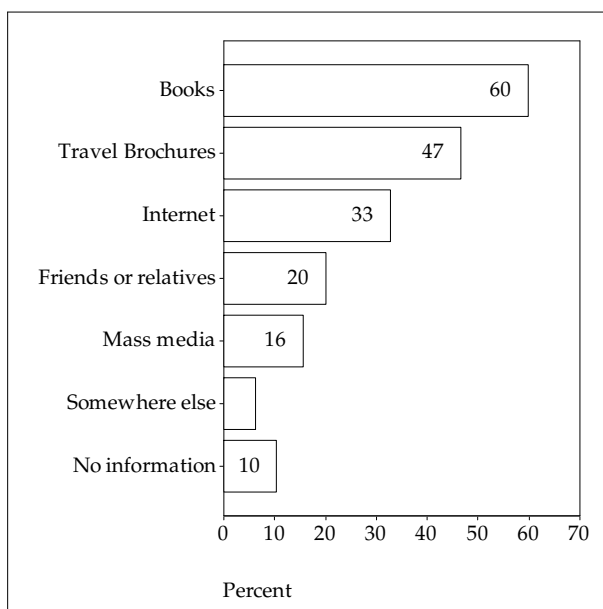

Figure 5.7 Information sources

5.3.8 Reason for travel

The reason for coming to Finland was for the majority to take part in a Scandinavian tour (40.7 %). For others the reason for coming to Finland was a general interest in Finland (30.1 %), a direct flight (19.3 %), a recommendation by friends or relatives (11.4 %) or a recommendation by a travel agency (7.2 %). Other reasons were usually a stop-over on their way to the Baltic states, Sweden, Russia or Denmark. Reasons for travel are presented in figure 5.8.
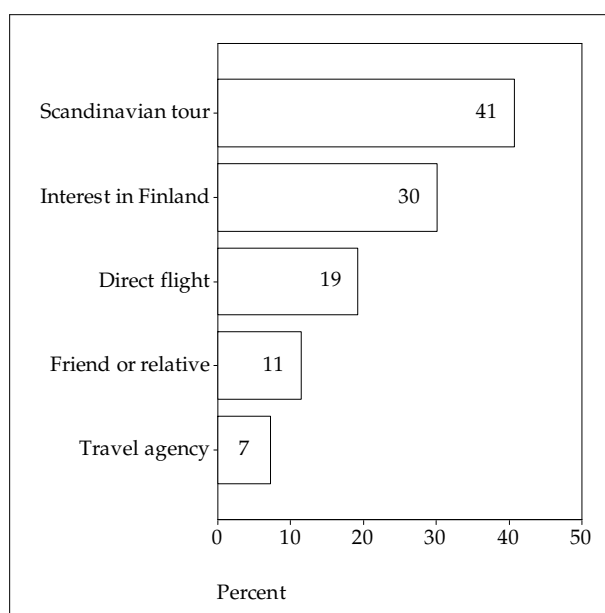

Figure 5.8 Reason for travel

5.4 Finland's image

Chapter 5.4 presents the results for questions 1, 2, 3 and 27, which most directly aimed at defining Finland's image among the respondents.

5.4.1 Which one is Finland?

Question number one included four pictures (Finnish lakes, Swiss Alps, Norwegian fjord and a beach) out of which the respondents were asked to mark the one they thought corresponded to their image of Finland best. 176 respondents answered question number one, one of the respondents did not. The responses were divided clearly between two options. Over half of the respondents (50.3 %) thought that the picture of lakes corresponded to their image of Finland. The other half (49.2 %) had chosen the image of fjords. One (0.6 %) of the respondents chose the image of beaches and only two respondents (1.1 %) thought the image of mountains corresponded to their image of Finland.

Majority (81.1 %) of the people, who had been to Finland before, had ticked the picture of lakes. Of the people who had not been to Finland before, 43.0 % ticked the picture of image. The correlation is highly significant (χ^2 = 16.692, df = 1, P < 0.0001).
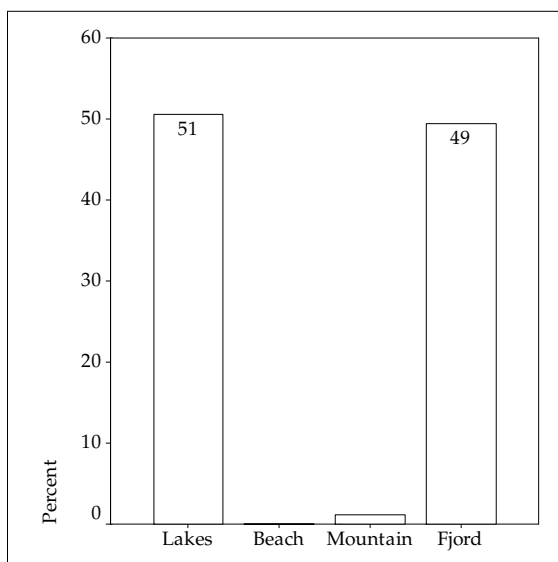

Figure 5.9 Division between the four alternatives

Similarly, people who had not visited Finland before ticked the picture of fjords more often (57.0 %) than those who had visited Finland before (18.9 %). (χ^2 = 16.692, df = 1, P < 0.0001).

The statistical analysis did not reveal any significant differences between sexes, age groups, area of origin or education. The results are shown in figure 5.9.

5.4.2 Associations with Finland

In question number two the respondents were asked to list five things that came to their mind when thinking about Finland. 96 different associations were named. The most often mentioned things were as follows:

1. The Moomins (n=89)
2. Lakes and water (75)
3. Forests (68)
- Forests and lakes (16)
4. Santa Claus (52)
5. Nightless nights (37)
   Northern lights (37)
   Sauna (37)
6. Reindeer (23)
7. Nokia, mobile phones (20)
8. Fjords (18)
9. Xylitol (15)
10. Winter sports; (skiing, skijump, ice-hockey) (14)
11. Sibelius, Finlandia symphony (13)
12. Cold place/weather (10)
13. Snow (10)
14. Social welfare (10)
15. Helsinki Olympics (9)

All the things mentioned are listed on appendix 4.

Not many adjectives were used when listing the associations with Finland. However, adjectives cold (n=10), beautiful (n=9), clean (n=5), calm or peaceful (n=4), blue (n=1), green (n=1), mysterious (n=1), neutral (n=1) and slow (n=1) were used.

5.4.3 The Finnish images

In question number three, there were six pictures of Finland. The respondents were asked which ones corresponded to their image of Finland best. The respondents could choose more than one answer. They could also choose "none of these" option.

Three pictures were clearly chosen more often than others: the picture of lakes (57.6 %), the picture of snowy pine trees (49.2 %) and the picture of a pine forest (39.5 %). The options chosen less frequently were Lapland (13.6 %), Aleksanterinkatu in Helsinki (12.4 %), and Finnish fields (4.5 %). 0.6% didn't choose any of the options. The results are shown in figure 5.10.
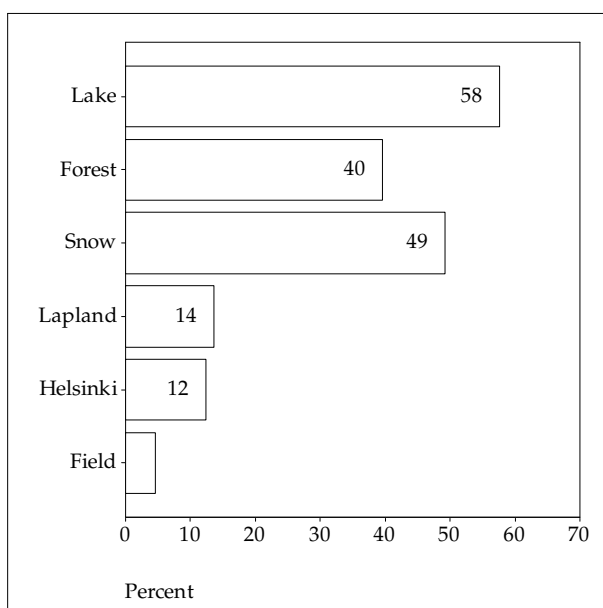

Figure 5.10 Pictures chosen by the respondents

The differences between different age groups were significant when the picture of snowy trees was concerned (χ^2 =17,205, df = 3, P = 0.001). The younger the respondent, the more likely (s)he had reported the picture of snowy trees to correspond to his/her image of Finland. Of respondents aged between 16-29 years, 70.8 % had chosen the picture of snowy trees, whereas only 26.4 % of people over 60 had done so. The snowy trees were chosen by 59.6 % in the age group from 30 to 45, and by 52.4 % in age group from 46 to 59.

Also gender was a significant factor when the snowy picture was concerned (χ^2 =7.897, df = 1, P = 0.005). Of female respondents, 56.7 % ticked the picture of snowy trees, whereas only 33.9 % of male respondents did so.

People who had been to Finland before, ticked the picture of lakes more often than the people who had not been to Finland before (75.7 % and 49.6 %, respectively). The difference was significant (χ^2 = 7.906, df = 1, P = 0.005).

Area of residence or education were not significant factors when determining the image of Finland.

5.4.4 Pictures drawn of Finland

At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to draw what comes to their mind first when they think of Finland. Even though this was the last question and needed a little bit more of respondents' effort, 112 pictures were drawn, response rate for the question thus being 63.3 %. The pictures included forests, lakes, loghouses, moomin figures, Santa Claus, winter, northern lights, fjords, (Nokia) mobile phones, Finnish flags,

Table 5.1 The respondents' drawings of "What comes to your mind when you think of Finland" categorised into seven categories and two subcategories.

1. Forests and lakes (55) (38+13+4)	2. The Moomins (14)	3. Santa Claus (8)	4. Winter (4)	5. Two elements (7)	6. Three elements (20)	7. The miscellaneous (4)
1.1 Forests, lakes and loghouses (13)						- Finnish flag - Dog and reindeer ride - Finland's location on the map
1.2 Forests (4)						

reindeer, saunas, Sami people, Finland on a map, Neste rally, dog sledging, ski jumping and mountains. The pictures were divided into seven categories and two subcategories as follows: 1) forests and lakes, 2) the Moomins, 3) Santa Claus, 4) winter, 5) pictures including two of the elements mentioned above, 6) pictures including three of the elements mentioned above, and 7) the miscellaneous. The category of forests and lakes was further divided into two subcategories, wit pictures with forests, lakes and loghouses and pictures with forests. The categories are presented in the table 5.1. with their corresponding figures. Some of the pictures are presented in appendix 5.

5.5 Finnish society and people

Chapter 5.5 presents the results for questions 4, 5, 6 and 7, which studied the respondents' ideas about Finnish society and the Finns.

5.5.1 The respondents' attitudes towards different nationalities

Question number four was aimed at differentiating attitudes towards different nationalities. The respondents were asked how they would feel if his/her friend wanted to marry a foreigner. The options were "I would approve of the marriage", "no opinion for or against the marriage" and "I would not approve of the marriage". The respondents were asked to answer one of these options for each of the following nationalities: Chinese, Finnish, French, American, Swedish, and Korean. The results are presented in table 5.2.

The most common answer was "no opinion" (for or against marriage). As you can see, this varied between 62.9 % and 68.0 %. However, marriages with two nationalities were perceived differently, namely marriages with the Chinese and Koreans. Only 19.9 % of the respondents would approve if their friend wanted to get married with a Chinese person and 15.8 % would not approve. Similarly, 20.5 % would approve of a marriage with a Korean and 16.4 % would not approve. The differences are highly significant when comparing with attitudes with Finns or any other nationality.

Of the respondents, 29.7 % would approve a marriage with an American, 2.3 % disapproving and 35.5 % would approve friend's marriage with a Swede,

1.2 % disapproving. The attitudes were the most positive towards Finns: 36.6 % would approve a marriage with a Finn only 0.6 % disapproving.

Table 5.2 Attitudes towards marriages with foreigners

Nationality	Would not approve	No opinion	Would approve
Chinese	15.8 %	64.3 %	19.9 %
Finnish	0.6 %	62.8 %	36.6 %
French	5.2 %	64.0 %	30.8 %
American	2.3 %	68.0 %	29.7 %
Swedish	1.2 %	63.3 %	35.5 %
Korean	16.4 %	63.1 %	20.5 %

There were visible differences among different age groups. The age group of people over 60-years old was more negative towards all other nationalities. Among the age group, they had least positive responses (would approve a marriage) and most negative responses (would not approve). They also answered "no opinion" more often. For example, whereas over 23 % of all other age groups would have approved a marriage with a Chinese, only 10.2 % of respondents over 60 would have approved it.

The distinction between different age groups is even clearer when studying the attitudes towards the Koreans. Whereas the younger generations (30.4 % of people from age 16 to 29) approved a marriage with a Korean, only 6.1 % of respondents over of 60-year-olds would have approved a marriage. Similarly, 30.6 % of people over 60 would not approve a marriage with a Korean, whereas only 7.1 %–13.0 % of other age groups would not have approved a marriage with a Korean. In comparison, 41.7 % of people from 16 to 29 would approve a marriage with a Finn, only 31.4 % of people over 60 would have approved it.

In general, male respondents were more reserved concerning marriages with any nationality. Men approved marriages with foreigners less than women, and disapproved them more often than women. However, statistical analysis did not reveal significant differences among genders.

Area of residence or education was not significant when considering attitudes towards different nationalities.

5.5.2 Comparison between Finland and Japan

In question number five, the respondents were asked to compare Finland to Japan in terms of prices, social security, education and professionalism, technology, athletes' achievements, equality among genders and differences in income.

Social security and equality among genders were considered to be better in Finland than in Japan. One-sample T test revealed that the tendency was highly significant (χ^2 = 22.408, df = 166, P < 0.0001. and χ^2 = 28.328, df = 170, P < 0.0001, respectively). People's education and professionalism were considered better in Finland by 54.7 % of the respondents (χ^2 = 8.691, df = 169, P < 0.0001). Also the differences in income were considered smaller in Finland by more than two thirds (67.1 %) in comparison to Japan (χ^2 = 11.771, df = 166, P < 0.0001).

People who thought prices were the same in Finland as Japan were 37.7 % of the respondents. The majority of people thought that athletic achievement was the same in both countries (60.0 %). Japanese technology was considered better than Finnish technology by almost half of the respondents (49.7 %).

Area of residence, age, gender, previous visits to Finland or educational background did not make a difference in comparison of the two countries.

5.5.3 Perceptions of Finland

The respondent's attitudes towards Finland were tested by six statements, which the respondents evaluated using a 5-dimensional Likert-scale. Number one equaled to strongly disagree and number 5 to strongly agree. The respondents agreed strongly with the sentences "Finland is a country of lakes and forests" (mean 4.60, χ^2 = 21.166, df = 174, P < 0.0001), "Finland is a good travel destination" (mean 4.24, χ^2 = 16.499, df = 168, P < 0.0001), "Finland is a safe country" (mean 4.17, χ^2 = 15.965, df = 164, P < 0.0001), "Finland is a cold country" (mean 4.17, χ^2 = 13.447, df = 174, P < 0.0001) and "Finland is a wealthy country" (mean 3.79, χ^2 = 11.842, df = 158, P < 0.0001).

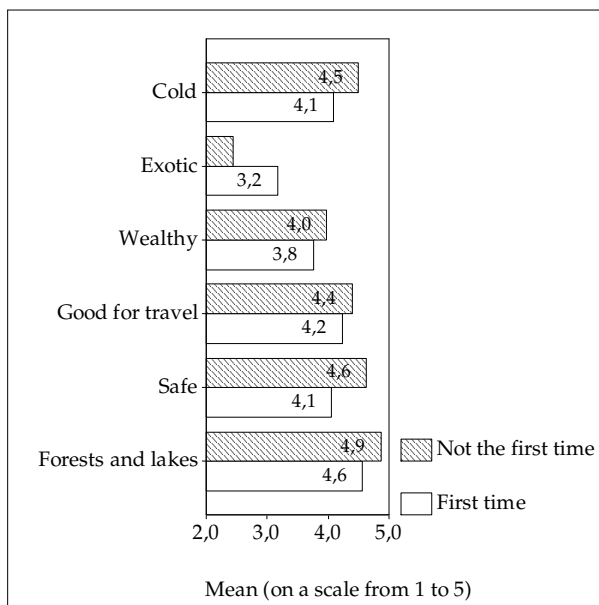Statement "Finland is an exotic country" (mean 3.00) was not agreed nor disagreed with.

Figure 5.11 Comparison of means among the first-time and repeat visitors.

More than half (51.2 %) of both first-timers and those who had been to Finland before (55.6 %) strongly agreed with the sentence, "Finland is a good travel destination". If the respondent had been to Finland before, the more likely (s)he was to think that Finland was a safe country (χ^2 = 13.848, df = 4, P = 0.008). Of those who had been to Finland before, 94.7 % strongly agreed or agreed to some extent with the sentence "Finland is a safe country". Of those who had not been to Finland before, 82.0 % strongly agreed or agreed to some extent with the sentence. The image of Finland as a cold country was stronger among those who had been to Finland before. The exotism of Finland disappeared after having visited Finland. If the respondent had been to Finland before (s)he was more likely to disagree with the sentence "Finland is an exotic country". The probability was significant (χ^2 = 16.304, df = 4, P = 0.003). Comparison between first-time and repeat visitors is presented in figure 5.11.

Education, gender or place of residence were not significant factors in comparison of the two countries. Age was not a significant factor either, even though elder people thought more often that Finland was safe than the younger respondents.

5.5.4 Perceptions of the Finns

The respondents were asked to evaluate Finns on a 5-point scale, on which the opposite ends represented opposite adjectives. According to the respondents, Finns were shy, quiet, persevere, reliable, patient, friendly, calm, relaxed, comfortable, sociable, humorous, warm, direct, polite, hard-working, honest and prejudiced and spoke many languages.

As seen in table 5.3 on the next page, the adjectives got mean values between 2 and 3.09. Even though the mean value was very close to the average (3), the

normal distribution of responses was small, thus making the differences significant. Thus, also the corresponding P-values are presented in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Adjectives used to describe Finns.

Adjective pair	Mean value
shy – confident	2.75*
quiet – talkative	2.60*
reserved - outgoing	2.80**
rigid - easygoing	2.91
persevere–give up easily	2.19*
speak many languages -don't speak many languages	2.28*
reliable – unreliable	2.08*
patient – impatient	2.04*
friendly – unfriendly	2.38*
calm – restless	2.14*
relaxed – nervous	2.23*
Comfortable - uncomfortable	2.32*
sociable – unsociable	2.65*
humorous – serious	2.79**
warm – not warm	2.25*
direct – subtle	2.70*
polite – impolite	2.20*
hard-working – lazy	2.17*
honest – dishonest	2.10*
prejudiced – open-minded	2.29*
complacent - modest	3.09

*highly significant (P < .000), **significant or almost significant (P < .001, P < .005). Others not significant (P > .05)

5.6 Level of knowledge

The respondents were asked to evaluate their level of knowledge on a scale from 1 (nothing at all) to 5 (good general knowledge). The mean was 2.15 and mode 2, indicating that the respondents didn't think they knew much about Finland. The standard deviation was .960, which indicates that the respondents' evaluations of their level of knowledge were approximately the same. Chapter 5.6 presents the results related to the respondents' level of knowledge.

5.6.1 Finland on the map

The respondents were asked to mark Finland on the map. Of the respondents, 88.1 % marked Finland correctly on the map, 9.6 % suggesting other countries. These countries were Sweden (n=13), Ireland (n=1), Norway (n=1), Denmark (n=1), and Russia (n=1). The remaining 2.3 % did not answer the question.

5.6.2 Familiarity with "Finnish" companies and brands

Question number ten studied how familiar the respondents were with Finnish brands. Six out of twelve brands were Finnish, and the respondents were asked to "tick the Finnish brands they recognized". So the respondents were let assume all the mentioned brands were Finnish, whereas only half of them were.

The most well recognized Finnish brand was Nokia, 48.8 % recognising it. Marimekko was recognized by 30.2 %. Marimekko was followed by Volvo, (23.8 %), Lego (25.6 %), Nestle (22.1 %), Heineken (22.1 %) and Ikea (9.9 %). Finnish brands and companies Oras and Kone were not recognized at all,

Stora Enso being recognized by 0.6 % and Benecol by 1.7 %. Neither did anyone recognize Cadbury, the British chocolate manufacturer. The Finnish brands are presented in figure 5.12.
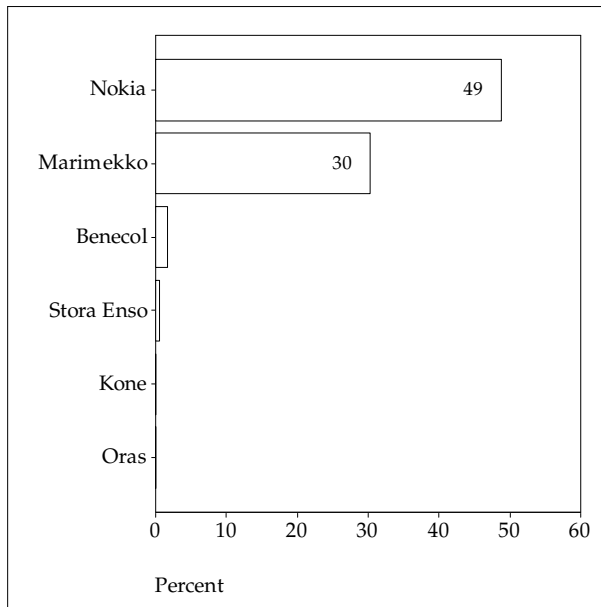

Figure 5.12 Recognition of Finnish brands

5.6.3 Familiarity with "Finnish" characters

In question number 11, the respondents were asked to tick the characters they recognized among six "Finnish" imaginary characters (i.e. only two of them were actually Finnish, they other four not being Finnish. The big majority of respondents recognised Santa Claus (78.7 %) and the Moomins (92.5 %). Japanese Hello Kitty was recognised by 8.2 % of the respondents, British Harry Potter by 10.3 %, French Asterix by 1.7 %, and Belgian Tintin by 2.9 %. The Finnish characters are presented in figure 5.13.
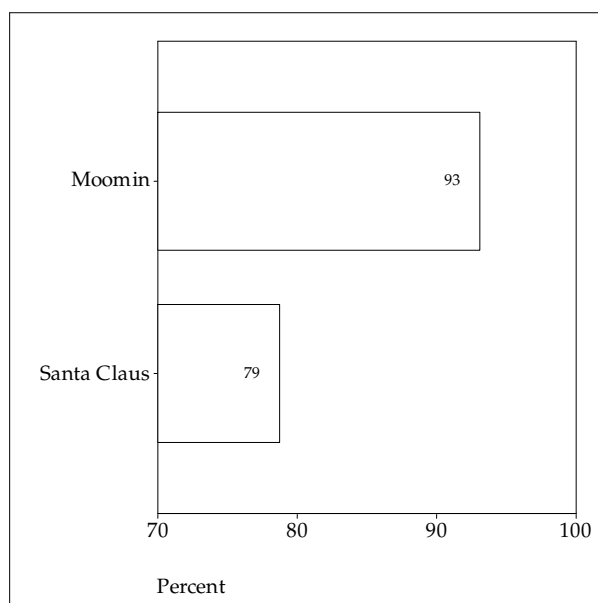
Figure 5.13 Recognition of the Moomins and Santa Claus

5.6.4 Familiarity with "Finnish" celebrities

Question number ten studied which celebrities the respondents recognized. As in questions number 10 and 11, the respondents were let assume all the celebrities were Finnish, whereas actually only seven out of twelve were Finnish. Most respondents (58.5 %) recognised Jean Sibelius. Formula 1 driver Mika Häkkinen was recognised by 32.7 % of the respondents and Finnish ski jumper Janne Ahonen was recognised by 26.3 % of the respondents. The rest of the celebrities were not very well known. 13.0 % recognized Norwegian composer Edward Grieg and 13.0 % of the respondents recognised German formula 1 driver Michael Schumacher. Finnish architect and designer Alvar Aalto was recognised by 11.7 % of the respondents. Austrian painter Gustav Klimt was recognised by 11.2 %, and another Finnish formula 1 driver Mika Salo, who is married to a Japanese woman, Noriko Salo, was recognised by 7.6 %. Contemporary music was not the strength of the respondents: Finnish band The Rasmus was recognised by 0.6 % and Ville Valo, a Finnish rock star and the key figure of the band HIM, was not recognised by anyone. Popular Irish band The Corrs was recognised

by 1.2 %, and Norwegian ski jumper Tommy Ingebrigtsen by 0.6 %. Finnish celebrities and their corresponding percentages are presented in figure 5.14.
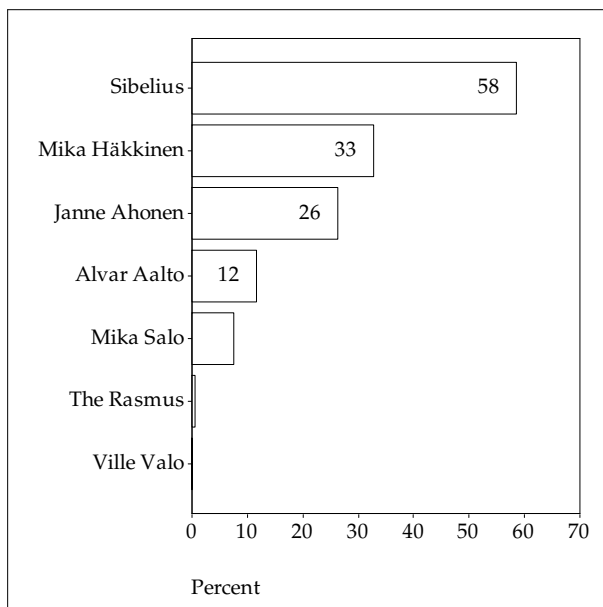

Figure 5.14 Recognition of Finnish celebrities

5.6.5 Number of inhabitants

In question number 13, the respondents were asked the number of inhabitants in Finland. The options were 2, 5, 10 and 20 million inhabitants. Of the respondents, 49.4 % answered the question right by saying the number of inhabitants was 5 million. However, almost a third (27.3 %) thought that the number of inhabitants in Finland was 10 million. Of the respondents, 14.9 % thought the right figure was 2 million, and the remaining 8.4 % thought it was 20 million inhabitants.

5.6.6 Language spoken in Finland most commonly

Almost nine out of ten respondents (89.4 %) answered that the most commonly spoken language in Finland was Finnish. 6.5 % thought it was

Russian and 3.5 % thought it was Swedish. Only 0.6 % thought the official language of Finland was English (see figure 5.15).
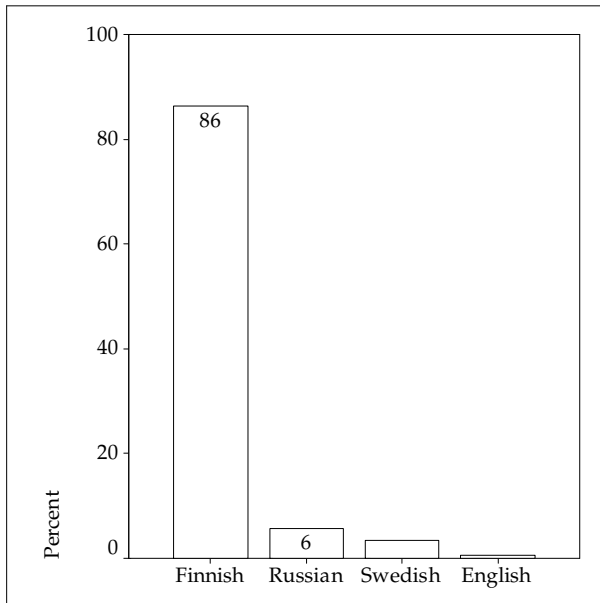

Figure 5.15 The respondents' idea of the most commonly spoken language in Finland
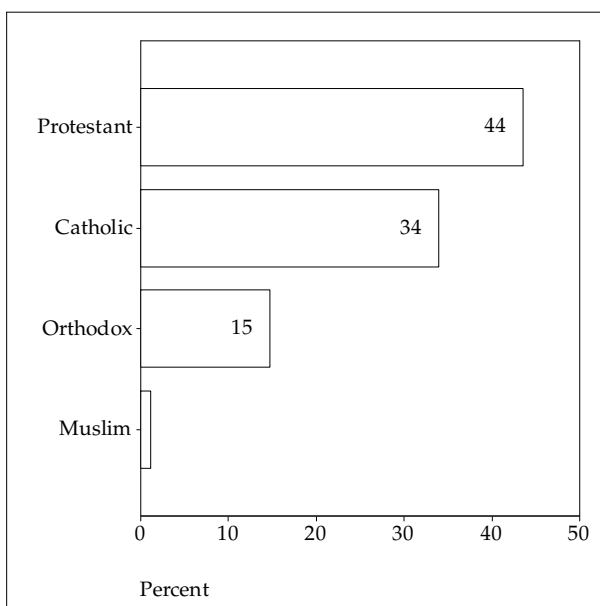
5.6.7 State religion

Figure 5.16 The respondents' idea of the state religion in Finland

46.1 % of the respondents thought Finns were Protestants. 36.4 % thought Finns were Catholic and 15.8 % thought Finns were Orthodox. 1.8 % thought Finns were Muslims (see figure 5.16).

5.6.8 World's highest consumption rate per inhabitant

The respondents were asked if the Finns had the world's highest consumption rate in vodka, coffee, tea or beer per person. The right answer was coffee. The question would have been difficult even for a Finn, but its purpose was to find out what kind of image the respondents had about Finnish people's habits. 47.2 % of the respondents thought that Finns had the world's highest consumption rate in vodka. Coffee came second (26.4 %), beer third (19.5 %), and tea last (6.9 %). The percentages are presented in figure 5.17.
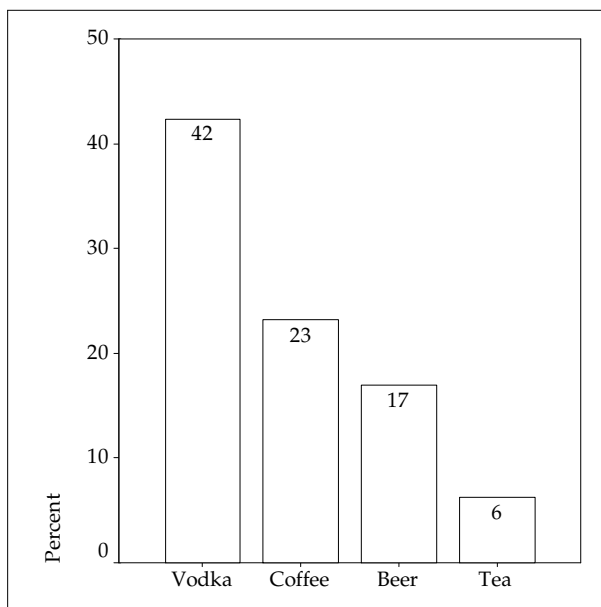
Figure 5.17 The respondents' idea of the most commonly drunk drink per inhabitant in Finland

6 DISCUSSION

These results have shown that the image the Japanese hold of Finland upon arrival is in general quite homogenous. Especially when considering the questions number one and three, where the respondents had to choose one or more picture among the sets of pictures, the answers were divided clearly among only two or three options.

Also, when the respondents could freely list things they associate with Finland and draw their impression of Finland, the same attributes were presented repeatedly. In the question where the respondents could freely list their associations with Finland, the answers show a bigger variety but the "top ten" list shows the same attributes as many other answers.

Whether the respondent had been to Finland before or not was more defining than any other background factor. The respondents who had been to Finland before had a stronger image of Finland as a safe and cold country. They were less likely to think Finland was exotic. They also thought that the picture of lakes corresponded to their image of Finland better than the image of a fjord. This is quite natural as there aren't any fjords in Finland and you probably notice this when you visit Finland. Furthermore, you probably cannot avoid noticing the great number of lakes, at least if you leave the Helsinki area. It is impossible to say whether this supports Gunn's model of

image formation (i.e. the image of those who have visited a country is a more complex one), but it refers to a changed image. Another problem is how to define the term "complex image" and how to make a distinction between complex and simple.

In most answers age was not a significant background factor. This can mean that the images are stereotyped and rather fixed and stable, and possibly passed from one generation to another. There were some differences in the answers among different age groups (e.g. Helsinki was more often mentioned by elder respondents, and the younger the respondent was, the more winter-like their image was), but the differences between different age groups did not prevail throughout the study. There were not significant differences in the number of times younger and older respondents had been to Finland, so this cannot explain the differences between different age groups. There were no significant differences with the perceived image of Finland and the level of education or between different age groups – over half of the respondents had a university degree in all age groups. However, the education the different age groups have received is different. Also the media (newspapers, TV, radio, Internet, books etc.) that they are exposed to is probably different for different age groups. The younger generations have probably had a chance to go traveling more than their parents or grandparents and they have thus had more international contacts – maybe with Finnish people as well.

Gender was a significant factor in some of the answers, but just like age, these were only single answers. Women had a more winter-like image of Finland than men. Women were also more prone than men to approve a friend's marriage with a foreigner.

Area of origin did not have any significance in any of the answers. Education was not significant either.

The attitudes towards Finns were very positive, in fact the most positive among all the nationalities. The responses might have been affected by the Japanese's courtesy towards the researcher and by the fact that most respondents were on their way to Finland and thus had positive expectations. However, the question revealed a clear difference in the Japanese's attitudes towards their Asian neighbours China and (South) Korea compared to Western countries (Finland, Sweden, France and the United States).

According to Boulding (1990), there is a tendency towards both consistency and reciprocation in terms of attitudes towards other nationalities. In other words, the Chinese's and the Koreans' dislike towards the Japanese (due to their history) is reflected into the way the Japanese feel towards them. Furthermore, these feelings are likely to remain the same over time, i.e. the Japanese will have antipathies towards their closest neighbours and liking towards Finland and other countries. Ironically, however, the most common mixed marriages among the Japanese and foreigners are with the Koreans and the Chinese.

The image of Finland as a welfare society was strong. Comparisons between Finnish and Japanese societies revealed a consensus among the respondents that there was a greater social security and equality among sexes, smaller differences in income, and greater professionalism and education of people in Finland than in Japan. The Finnish welfare society was also mentioned frequently in question number two, where respondents could freely write about their associations with Finland.

The winter war and later Finland's rapid pace of development have gained publicity and hence the Japanese's leaning and support (Kasurinen 1992). Kasurinen (1992) also states that Finland's transformation from a farm/forest economy to a diversified modern industrial economy has gained attention in Japan.

The Japanese media may have affected the image of Finland as a welfare society. In 2003, the Japanese media reported about many aspects of the Finnish welfare society. It is noteworthy, that Finland was often presented as a model country for Japan. For example, the world's biggest newspaper Yomiuri Shimbun presented Finland as a model country of gender equality in a double page article. Also Anneli Jäätteenmäki's selection to be the prime minister was noticed by the Japanese media. Finnish people's good level of education was the topic of three television programs and Japan's biggest financial paper Nihon Keizai Shimbun analysed Finnish society and its success in IT industry and suggested that the Japanese should use Finland as their model country instead of the United States. (Länsipuro & Tikka 2003.)

Santa Claus and the Moomins were the most well recognised Finns. They were recognised by the vast majority of the respondents. This notion was supported by the responses of several questions. For most Japanese people, Finland is still the country of the Moomins and Santa Claus. (See Länsipuro & Tikka 2003). The fact that Santa Claus is considered Finnish is not a matter-of-course. In 1989, the Finnish Tourist Board and Finnair together managed to launch the concept of "Finland's official Santa Claus" (Wallin 1995). Wallin (1995), who has studied the role of Santa Claus in marketing of Finland, says that he believes that Santa Claus has a lot of potential in terms of marketing Finland and Finnish products in Japan. For Japanese people, Santa Claus is the "official" country representative of Finland. In Japanese society reciprocity of gifts and favours is very important. For them, Santa Claus

represents something good and unselfish as he brings presents, takes care of children and does not expect anything in return. According to him, this has in part given the Japanese an impression of a "good" society, where the disadvantaged are taken care of. (Wallin 1995.)

Other Finnish celebrities were rather unknown. Composer Jean Sibelius, Formula 1 drivers (most importantly Mika Häkkinen), and ski jumper Janne Ahonen were recognised most often, but the rest of the Finnish celebrities were not recognised.

Architect Alvar Aalto was mentioned in some of the responses, as well as Finnish design and artifacts, glass and ceramics. Finnish design got publicity in Japan during and after the *Feel Finland* exhibition held there, organised by the Finnish Institute in Japan with the support of the Finnish Embassy. Also three significant interior and design magazines devoted their October 2003 issues to Finland and Finnish design. (Länsipuro & Tikka 2003). However, at least Alvar Aalto was quite unknown for the majority of the recipients tested.

Finnish brands were hardly recognised, apart from Nokia. As said before, Nokia in particular and the Finnish IT industry in general have got publicity in the Japanese media. For example, in 2003, Nihon Keizai Shimbun released three thorough and extensive articles about Finland. Maybe Nokia is also known for the reason that it is not Japanese. In Europe, people often wrongly believe that Nokia is Japanese because of its Japanese sounding name.

For the majority, Finland was considered as a cold, safe and wealthy country of lakes and forests, which is a good travel destination, - whch is not a not a surprising result considering that the respondents were on their way to Finland (see chapter 6.3). Adjectives used to describe Finland were cold, beautiful, calm, peaceful, blue, green, mysterious, neutral and slow. These

can be all considered positive adjectives, maybe with the exception of slow. On the other hand, slow can be also considered a positive adjective if it means the opposite for people's hectic everyday lives.

Hard-working, shy, honest, prejudiced, persevere and quiet were adjectives which Finns had used to describe themselves. (Lehtonen 1993). These were also supported by the Japanese respondents. However, Finns' autostereotype of being complacent and rigid as well was not supported. However, the respondents did not think Finns were modest or easygoing either as the opposite for complacent and rigid. The respondents also thought that Finns spoke foreign languages, which does not match with the stereotype of Finns "being silent in many languages". (Lehtonen & Sajavaara 1997).

The respondents also thought Finns were patient and comfortable. This notion supports Rusanen's (1993) study. Besides this, the respondents thought Finns were reliable, friendly, and polite, which supports Törnroos' findings of his study (1991). They also thought Finns were direct, which supports Salo-Lee's notion (1993). Furthermore, the respondents thought Finns were calm, relaxed, sociable, humorous and warm.

Fourteen out of 18 adjectives can be considered positive, three neutral and one clearly negative. (see table 6.1.) Direct can be considered negative from the Japanese perspective, where the communication style is more subtle and sometimes more meaning is bound to rather what is said, than to what is not said. (Irwin 1996.) Quiet is an adjective, which is said to be common to both Finnish and Japanese cultures. It is said that both the Finns' and the Japanese's "tolerance" for silence (an Anglo-Saxon biased term) is much higher in Finland and Japan, than for example, in Spain or the U.S.

Table 6.1 Adjectives used to describe Finns categorised in positive, neutral and negative categories

negative adjectives (-)	Neutral adjectives (-+)	Positive adjectives (+)
prejudiced	shy	persevere
	quiet	patient
	direct (-)	friendly
		calm
		relaxed
		comfortable
		sociable
		humorous
		polite
		hard-working
		honest
		speak many languages
		reliable
		warm

The great number of positive adjectives may reflect the respondents' positive attitudes towards Finland as a whole. Or it is possible that the respondents just do not know Finnish people enough to dislike them. For example, the attitudes towards the Koreans and the Chinese were much more negative than the attitudes towards Finns. This is to say that maybe the stereotyped image of Finnish people is a little exoticised, just like the westerners' image of Japan and Japanese has been exoticised for centuries.

With some exceptions, the Japanese's perceptions of Finns were also quite similar to the Europeans' perceptions. Maybe the Japanese really perceive Finns in the same way and culture is not a very significant factor when evaluating different nationalities. However, I am more inclined to think that the Japanese (as well as other foreigners) do not know Finns very well and

thus answer in a rather neutral way and rather in a positive than in a negative way.

6.1 Is there a stereotyped image of Finland?

Now I will attempt to answer the research questions posed in chapter 3. When it comes to the first research question ("Is there a stereotyped image of Finland?").

Firstly, the respondents' responses showed sometimes amazingly homogenous results. This is well illustrated by the clear bisection among the image of lakes and the image of a fjord in question number one. Also when asking which image of Finland best corresponded to their image of Finland, three out of seven alternatives got considerably more support than the others. Furthermore, when the respondents could freely write and draw about their associations with Finland, the same things were mentioned time after time. This shows that the image the respondents had was widely shared among respondents.

Secondly, as many as 10.4 % of the respondents reported not having heard or read anything about Finland, and the mean of 2.15 that the respondents gave to themselves when asking to evaluate their level of knowledge, both indicate quite a modest level of knowledge. Low level of knowledge is also supported by the fact that nearly half of the respondents associated fjords with Finland, whereas there are not any in reality. Considering this, it is noteworthy that the respondents still answered the question in a very similar manner.

Thirdly, when the respondents could freely list their associations with Finland, mostly visible, rather than cultural things were mentioned. This

notion supports Saraniemi and Komppula's (2003) findings of their study. According to Hofstede (1997, 7-9) culture consists of values and three aspects, which are visible also to an outsider. Most attributes mentioned by the respondents clearly fall into these three categories (symbols, heroes and rituals). This does not let us assume that the respondents were very familiar with Finnish culture's values (maybe with the exception of social welfare if that can be regarded as a value rather than a social system).

Fourthly, the image consisted of attributes, which are relatively stable. In other words, the image included hardly any elements, which could be considered being affected by, for example, recent news. This shows that the images are fixed in nature which matches with the definition of a stereotype.

Furthermore, the image can be said to include an affective component (see the adjectives used to describe Finland and Finns), which is also typical of stereotype.

Based on the analysis presented here, I think it is warranted to claim that there is a stereotyped image of Finland among the Japanese arriving in Finland.

6.2 Deeper into the stereotyped image

The stereotyped image of Finland was very nature oriented. Lakes, forests, fjords, mountains, northern lights, nightless nights, reindeer, snow and cold were things mentioned frequently by the respondents and they all refer to nature. Nature-oriented image is supported by other studies conducted in European countries. (e.g. Saraniemi & Komppula 2003).

Pictures with human input (a tram, hay bales, and a Sami person's shelter) were chosen clearly less often than pictures without a trace of a human

being. This may mean that the Japanese expect Finland to be an unspoilt country. Clean or fresh air was also mentioned in some of the answers, which refers to the same expectation: the Japanese people arriving in Finland expect to experience a natural environment. This is perfectly understandable considering the environmental problems and congested cities of Japan.

The Japanese's stereotyped image was also loaded with expectations of an imaginary wonderland. The Moomins, Santa Claus, northern lights and nightless nights were all on top of the list where people could freely write or draw about their associations with Finland. The Moomins and Santa Claus are clearly imaginary figures, but also northern lights and nightless nights can be regarded as something that can seem like "magic" and thus appeal to your imagination if you have never experienced them. This imaginary aspect is something that makes the Japanese's stereotyped image of Finland original and different from the Europeans' image.

According to Schmitt & Yang (1994, 41), Asians are perhaps the most image-conscious consumers in the world. They rely on, and abstract meaning from, symbolism to a much larger extent than consumers in the West. Word-of-mouth and other unofficial information sources are more efficient and important means of communication than mass communication. This is because of close family connections. The Asians are also the most brand-loyal consumers in the world. According to Kleppe, Iversen & Stensaker, (2002, 70), this implies that Asian consumers will be receptive to product-country images based on extensive symbolism rooted in social rather than functional or experimental meanings.

Three image-enhancement strategies have been found quite useful with Asian consumers: 1) capitalising on Asians' beliefs in the supernatural, 2) providing appealing aesthetics and 3) associating the corporation or brand

(why not a country) with prestige and an upscale image. (Schmitt & Yang 1994, 41)

For small countries, a COO (country of origin) marketing strategy constitutes a possibility to enhance its international competitiveness with products and services that would be otherwise too small to position themselves on a global scale. The Norwegian fish industry decided to use COO strategy in their marketing of fish products in Japan and elsewhere in East Asia. Even though Norway is not very well known in Japan, Norwegian fish (especially salmon) has an established position in the Japanese market. The fish industry has used the image of Norwegian fjords and fresh water when marketing their products thus creating an image of freshness to their customers. (Kleppe *et al.* 2002.)

One noteworthy character was how strongly fjords belonged to the respondents' image of Finland. This clearly indicates that the stereotyped image of Finland is not specifically Finnish. Rather, it is an image of the Nordic countries. Also social welfare can be considered as an attribute that is common to all the Nordic countries and thus cannot be considered Finland specific.

Sauna, xylitol, Sibelius, Nokia and the Helsinki Olympics were attributes frequently associated with Finland. These show a more complex image of Finland, which is Finland specific, i.e. these things are of Finnish origin or can mostly be found in Finland. However, they were clearly outnumbered by attributes associated with nature and imagination as mentioned before.

The respondents knew facts about Finland, such as the location on the map, number of inhabitants, language, or state religion. They did not know which drink Finns drank most per person in the world, but that would have been a

difficult question even for a Finn. However, almost half of the respondents thought that Finns had the world's highest consumption rate in vodka instead of coffee (a quarter thought it was coffee). This fact can tell us two things about the Japanese: either that (1) the Japanese think Finns drink a lot, or (2) they do not know Finnish culture enough to tell that Finns drink a lot of coffee. However, Finns' alcohol consumption did not come up in any of the responses. Considering the low level of knowledge in general, it is more probable that the Japanese simply did not know enough about Finnish culture to answer the question correctly.

6.3 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

When studying stereotyped images there is a danger of the stereotyped image becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy. In other words, the researcher starts to study stereotyped images and then, eventually, finds them even if they do not actually exist. I have thought about this and tried to figure out if I have committed myself to this kind of reasoning. Did I expect the respondents to have a stereotyped image of Finland, and more importantly, did it affect the study design, results, and analysis? I must admit I was expecting the respondents to have a stereotyped image of Finland. Still though, I do not think that my own expectations directed the research process too much. As I did not carry out surveying in person, my influence was limited when data was collected. The results of the research have spoken for themselves. If the results had been less homogenous, there would have been a wider range of different answers and if the same attributes were not repeated time after time, then I would have come to a different solution. But given the results that I have got, it seems reasonable to claim that there is a stereotyped image of Finland. I have described what it is like in this chapter.

6.3.1 Evaluation of the research method

The major advantage of this research method was that it enabled overcoming the language barrier. As English was not the native language of the focus group, survey questionnaire enabled the study of images without the language barrier. Interviews would have provided more in-depth results and possibly enable the understanding of the more complex images better. However, it is my belief, that interviews conducted in English would not have provided sufficient data for two reasons: First, the people interviewed would have a certain socioeconomic background that would have limited the sample considerably. Second, English would not have been the interviewees native language and thus there might have had been communication problems affecting the quality of data obtained. Thirdly, saving face is very important for the Japanese (Irwin 1996.) and thus any critical remarks about Finland might have been suffocated if a researcher was present asking questions face-to-face. Furthermore, the respondents could have felt uncomfortable answering questions if they did not know the "right" answers. Thus, it is my belief that a questionnaire, which was translated into Japanese, provided better quality data. This is because it not only enables bigger samples, but also because it is possible to remain anonymous and thus express your true feelings and ideas more freely.

The major limitation of the method employed was that it did not allow very deep analysis. The researcher was not able to ask further questions to understand the respondents better. Similarly, the respondents were not able to ask further questions if they did not understand a question, and thus there is no certainty if all the questions were understood in the originally designed. This problem was minimised by conducting a small pre-test among a few Japanese people.

Another problem, which is worth mentioning here, is the possible cultural difference in questionnaire answering style compared to other countries or cultures. An experiment conducted by Custom Research Inc. (CRI), resulted in the finding that there were extraordinary differences from culture to culture in the way respondents used common survey scales. This would lead to a bias if comparing several countries, but it is still particularly noteworthy, as this result can let us assume that the Japanese are particularly reluctant to use the highest or lowest ends of a scale. (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002, 404-405.)

When studying the respondents' ideas about Finnish people, it is possible that the respondents grew tired and did not consider their answers carefully or did not complete the questionnaire. This could also be because they did not know what to answer. Some respondents had written on the questionnaire that they cannot answer the question as they don't know any Finnish people. However, even if the respondents did not know any Finnish people, it is not a problem. Then the image is based on something else than knowledge. All in all, most of the 177 returned questionnaires were completed and most answers were answered.

One of the major limitations that affect the generalisation of the results is the fact that the respondents were on their way to Finland. As most of the respondents were on a holiday, they probably had quite positive expectations concerning their travel destination (if they didn't they probably wouldn't have been on their way to Finland and other Nordic countries). Also the fact that all the respondents were using only one flight company might have affected the research results. '

The respondents were very well-educated and thus did not represent the Japanese population as a whole. However, this is not particularly a problem

considering this study as the purpose was to study the images of the Japanese arriving in Finland.

The results show rather positive attitudes towards Finland and Finnish people. It is possible that the respondents answered the question according to what they thought they were expected and what was "the right thing to say". This is called social desirability. (Hirsjärvi *et al.* 2000, 190).

Yet another problem arose when analysing the data. As in some questions there was not an "I don't know" option, it was impossible to tell, which respondents had not answered the question and which ones could not answer the question. Thus, it was impossible to calculate a response rate for some questions. This was especially a problem with questions number 10–12. Another problem concerning questions 10–12 was that they were translated incorrectly. Instead of asking "Which ones of the following do you think are Finnish brands/celebrities/imaginary figures", the question was "Which ones of the following Finnish brands do you recognise". This was despite the double-checking. These are limitations, which make it impossible to use the questions as originally designed. However, if this is taken into concern when analysing the results, it does not affect the reliability of the data. As far as other questions were concerned, the lack of use of the "I don't know" option was not so significant, as most respondents had answered all the questions.

6.3.2 Problems in and remarks concerning the translation process

When working in a multicultural and multilingual project, misunderstanding and misinterpretations often occur, as it did this time despite the double-checking. Some of the problems have been presented in the previous chapter. Furthermore, one of the questions (number 26) was translated differently compared to the original English version. Consequently, the question could

have been understood in two different ways and thus it could not be analysed at all.

In questions number 24 and 27 the term relative was used. In Japanese, the term relative does not include family members like in Finnish or in English. Thus, some of the respondents did not probably understand the question in the sense that the researcher thought they would.

6.5 Critical evaluation of country image research

When studying country images, it is noteworthy that the images are not stable but rather organic. In other words, the stereotyped image of Finland may have elements, which change over time. Some aspects of the image might be historical and centuries old, some might be few decades, years or months old, and some aspects of the image might be only a few hours old. The image can thus change daily depending on the news, happenings, and the personal factors. For example, the World rally championship was mentioned by a few respondents, which was most probably due to its presence in the media and people's interest in the Rally. The world rally championship competition was held in Jyväskylä in August 6th–8th. Also the time of the year when the research is conducted can significantly affect the image. The survey of the research was conducted in July and early August. This has probably had an effect on the results: if the survey would have been conducted during winter months, Lapland, snow and other winter related activities would have probably been more prominent as they would have naturally been in people's minds more often as possible reasons for travel.

However, the aspects of the stereotyped image presented in this study cannot be said to have been affected by daily news coverage very much. The attributes mentioned probably remain the same over years and despite the time of the year. I think this is typical of stereotypical images, which are

rather stable. It is likely though, that the image of Finland in winter would be different from the summer image. It is my belief that the same elements could be found both in winter and in the summer, but the emphasis would be different. However, this would be worthy of another study.

Considering the strengths and limitations of the study, it is my belief that they do not significantly affect the validity and reliability of the results. They mostly affect the way some results could be used or interpreted. The results must be interpreted bearing in mind that they might have been affected by the answering situation, the respondents' fatigue and the time of the year when the research was conducted. Bearing in mind that stereotyped images are rather stable, it is my belief that the stereotyped images found in this study would be rather similar – maybe with a different kind of emphasis however - even if the research was conducted by another person at a different time of the year.

6.4 Public Relations in Image Cultivation

Finland's image and measures that could be taken to improve it have been of concern for several committees nominated by the council of state since the early 1960's. In 1972, UTKT (ulkomaantiedotuksen koordinaatiotyöryhmä, i.e. coordination task force for foreign communications) started to coordinate communications from Finland to abroad. Finpro, The Finnish Tourist Board, media service unit Finnfacts, Finnair, and the foreign ministry's press and cultural office are parts of this co-operation. Besides this, embassies, Finnish institutes and other actors work abroad in order to cultivate Finland's image. In Japan, the Finnish Embassy, the Finnish Institute, the Finland Trade Center Finpro, and the National Technology Center TEKES all contribute towards Finland's image in Japan.

As far as image cultivation of Finland is concerned, there can be seen a shift from reactive to proactive communications. Until the 1990's, the importance of the role of the media and the travel industry was emphasised in image cultivation abroad. All the "wrong" information presented about Finland in the foreign media had to be corrected and as much positive information to be presented in order to "educate" foreigners. There was also a strong belief that Finland had to be "experienced" in order to understand its uniqueness. Journalists from all over the world were taken to Finland in hope of more positive visibility in foreign media. Since 1990 the scope has widened. More emphasis has been put on actually improving the target of the image, Finland itself. UTKT suggested that Finland should especially pay attention to the quality of education, environmental issues, security policies, just to name a few. As soon as Finland is in a position to be an example for other countries, then there is a real chance to improve Finland's image. (Loppuraportti 1990). Also Kunczik (1996, 283–285) points out that as far as images of nations are concerned, the best form of image cultivation for nations is for them to be democratic, to observe human rights, and to pursue policies of openness. It can be said that the image cultivation of Finland has been moving in the right direction. In 2003, Finland was considered as a model country for Japan at many aspects of social life.

Paid-for advertisements, given their time and space constraints, do not have the same credential as for example, cultural events and the objective third-party endorsement through independent editorial and literary comment. This is also because the consumers are becoming more and more apt at recognising – and discarding - paid-for promotional messages. (Anholt 2002, 238.)

Aula & Heinonen (2002), as well as Kunczik (1996) stress the importance of public relations. P.R. has an important role in cultivating a country's image

abroad. Countries that wish to maintain or create a positive image of themselves must maintain active publicity campaigns. The more a country is dependent on exports, the more important P.R. and image cultivation become. (Kunczik 1996, 21-25.) This is noteworthy, as exports equal to a third of Finland's GDP (CIA World Factbook 2004).

A good example of successful P.R. was the *Feel Finland* exhibition held in Japan in 2003. The event aimed at presenting Finland as not jus the country of the Moomins and Santa Claus but also as a high quality, onward country of technology, culture, design and societal know-how. The event got a lot of media publicity. There were 312 newspaper articles about the events, and some of the articles concerning Finland released later that year were probably influenced by the events. (Länsipuro & Tikka 2003).

It is also interesting to notice how far-reaching effects for a country's image special happening such as the Olympics can have. The Helsinki Olympics was still one of the first things some of the older respondents mentioned – and they were held in 1952 – more than half a century ago.

7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Stereotyped country image is a rather stable mental construction of a country and its people. As shown in this study, the Japanese's image of Finland is a particularly stereotyped one.

Stereotyped images have been formed over years and several factors have affected the image formation. Long geographical distances give raise to stereotyped images. Image and stereotype formation are complicated processes and it is very difficult to say what has affected the formation of the image and to what extent. In chapter six I discussed to some extent the role media has played in image formation process, but I do not think that I have in any way offered a sufficient explanation for the complicated process as a whole.

This study has showed that the images the Japanese people arriving in Finland have, are somewhat different from the Europeans' images of Finland. What makes the Japanese's images unique and different is the strong role imaginary figures and attributes play in the images.

The Japanese respondents' had a stereotyped image of Finland as a country of thousands of lakes. The stereotyped image itself is rather positive or at least a neutral image. The image of Finland is very nature-oriented. For the

majority of the public, Finland is the country of Santa Claus and the Moomins. Actually the strong part the Moomins have in the Finnish image is quite noteworthy. The Moomins have only become "the Finnish thing" in Japan over the last ten years or so. This is the result of continuous image cultivation, which is now clearly coming to fruition.

Finland has some qualities which were widely shared among the respondents and which could be used in marketing purposes when Finland as a travel destination as well as Finnish companies and brands are concerned. These are the attributes, which appeal to your imagination (the Moomins, Santa Claus, northern lights and nightless nights). Furthermore, appealing aesthetics is the image the Japanese people arriving in Finland have of Finland already. These two strategies could be used in marketing. The third strategy, which has been found useful when targeting the Asian markets, is creating an upscale image. This method is more difficult to employ unless there as a significant improvement, for example, in the quality of services.

When marketing Finland, also other attributes should be highlighted besides nature. For example, Finland's knowledge in high-tech and other industries could be presented together with the soft natural values. *Feel Finland* was a good attempt at this respect and more similar happenings must continuously take place.

One of the challenges of Finland's image cultivation is the fact that Finland is not clearly distinguished from other Nordic countries. At this point a question should be raised, if we want to be part of Nordic countries or if we want to be known for ourselves. In 1969 a committee discussed Finland's image abroad, and in his speech Jörn Donner concluded that it does not harm Finland's image being considered as a part of the Nordic countries. The goal

then seemed to be making people associate Finland with other Nordic countries. This goal has now been achieved, but the question should be asked, if this is beneficial for us anymore and, more importantly, is it realistic or even possible to try and differentiate Finland from the rest of the Nordic countries?

If Finland wants to differentiate itself from other Nordic countries, Finland will have to try and find attributes that make it especially Finnish and different from other Nordic countries. According to Kleppe *et al*. (2002), if an image of the country is lacking or vague, then conveying a clear and consistent message will be crucial. On the other hand being part of the Nordic countries probably does not harm Finnish companies. However, in the end, making Finland better known or improving Finland's image depends on Finnish companies, athletes, and other Finnish phenomena. It is Finnish people themselves who must do something remarkable and then it has to be communicated to the target audiences.

Kunczik (1996) reminds us that "image cultivation begins at home". It is important to bear in mind that the target image must correspond to the reality or otherwise image cultivation can hardly be successful. Thus, image cultivation is a long-term and continuing process. In order to create a sustainable positive image of a country, the artistic image cannot be better than the reality. As discussed earlier, Finland is considered a model country for many aspects of social life in Japan at the moment and in 2003 this created more publicity in the Japanese media than ever before accounting for 2880 articles. (See Länsipuro & Tikka 2003). Thus, the most effective way to have a good image is to be the best within all sectors of social life.

According to Anholt (2002), the challenge for all countries is to find ways of continually presenting and re-presenting their past cultural achievements

alongside their modern equivalents in ways that are fresh, relevant and appealing to younger audiences (236). This is definitely the case for Finland's image as well.

Ageing population, globalisation, gender equality, sustainable development and education are issues, which are of importance to both Finnish and Japanese societies. According to the media publicity in 2003, Finland seems to be one of the countries that Japan wants to learn from in these respects. Thus, active image cultivation measures should be continued, and the image of Finland should be deepened. Finland is in a good position to do this as the image of at least the Japanese arriving in Finland is positive.

7.1 Ideas for future research

This study could be continued by comparing the findings of this study to the Japanese people's responses on a return flight using the same questionnaire. This would provide material for the research of how images change and to what extent they do and don't change. The results of this research have shown that the image of Finland was different among those who had been to Finland before compared to first-time visitors. Gunn's (1972) theory suggested that after visiting the place a more complex image is developed. This study did not provide sufficient material to see if his theory was supported or what the more complex image would be like. It would be interesting to see how the image has changed after a visit to Finland.

Furthermore, it would be interesting to know to what extent these images correspond to the images of the Japanese population. The sample of this study cannot be considered to represent Japanese people as a whole. The Japanese in Japan do not probably know as much about Finland as the respondents of this study. Thus, it would be interesting to study what is the image of Finland in Japan. Furthermore, the image of Finland in China

would be worth a study of its own. Considering the booming economy, growing number of Chinese tourists and the shift of production of Finnish companies to China, it would well worth a study to conduct a similar study among the Chinese. Furthermore, country of origin information is very important for the Chinese (Li, 2001).

Most importantly, an instrument to study Finland's image should be created. It should be something that would enable long-term observation and would thus allow comparisons of the images over time. The questionnaire created for this study could be modified in order to create one. This would also allow comparisons among different nationalities.

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Appendix 1: English Questionnaire

Anna-Kaisa Varamäki, B.A.
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FINNISH IMAGE SURVEY

Welcome to Finland! I'm Anna-Kaisa Varamäki. I am a student in organisational communication and P.R. in Finland and I'm studying the Japanese's image of Finland for my Master's thesis.

Please, help me by participating in the survey. In this survey there are 28 questions. Please answer each question instinctively, according to how you feel. There are no right or wrong answers. The results will be analysed confidentially and the results will only be used for research and analysis.

Thank you for your help!

*****

1. Which photo do you think best corresponds to your image of Finland? Please, circle the corresponding number.

1.

2.

3.

4.
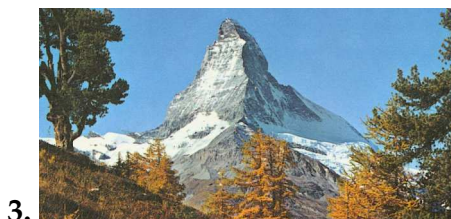
2. When Finnish people think of Japan, they often first come to think of cherry flowers, geishas and electronic appliances. Please, list up to 5 things that first come to your mind when you think of Finland. If you cannot think of 5 things, write as many as you can.

1)

2)

3)

4)

5)

3. Which photo do you think best corresponds to your image of Finland? Please, mark the corresponding number. You can choose more than one answer.

□ 1.

□ 2.

□ 3.

□ 4.

□ 5.

□ 6.

□ 7. **None of these**

4. For some reason, you may like some people more than others. If your friend was getting married with one of these nationalities, how would you feel? Please tick the appropriate box.

	I would approve this marriage	I do not have an opinion	I would not approve this marriage
A Chinese person			
A Finnish person			
A French person			
An American (U.S.A.) person			
A Swedish person			
A Korean person			

5. When comparing Finland to Japan… (Please tick the right alternative.)

	Below the Japanese level, smaller than in Japan	The same level as in Japan	Above the Japanese level, bigger than in Japan
a) Prices in Finland			
b) Social security in Finland			
c) Finnish people's education and professionalism			
d) Finnish technology			
e) Finnish athletes' achievements			
f) Equality among genders in Finland			
g) Differences in income in Finland			

6. Maybe you don't *know* much about Finland but you might have a *feeling* about what Finland is like. Please, answer the following claims according to how you *feel*. There are no right or wrong answers. When you are of the same opinion, answer 5, when you are of the opposite opinion, answer 1. If you do not have an opinion, tick "I don't know".

It is very cold in Finland

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Finland is an exotic country

        Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Finland is a wealthy country

        Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Finland is a good destination for travel

        Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Finland is a safe country

        Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Finland is a country of lakes and forests

        Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly agree   □ I don't know

Maybe you don't know any Finnish people, but you may have a feeling of what Finnish people could be like. Please answer the following things according to how *you feel*. Please, feel free to use both ends of the scale. There are no right or wrong answers.

7. In my opinion, Finnish people are

Shy 1 2 3 4 5 Confident

Quiet 1 2 3 4 5 Talkative

Reserved 1 2 3 4 5 Outgoing

Rigid 1 2 3 4 5 Easygoing

Persevere 1 2 3 4 5 Give up easily

Speak many languages 1 2 3 4 5 Don't speak foreign languages

Reliable 1 2 3 4 5 Unreliable

Patient 1 2 3 4 5 Impatient

Friendly 1 2 3 4 5 Unfriendly

Calm 1 2 3 4 5 Restless

Relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 Nervous

Comfortable 1 2 3 4 5 Uncomfortable
Sociable 1 2 3 4 5 Unsociable

Humorous 1 2 3 4 5 Not humourous

Warm 1 2 3 4 5 Cold

Direct 1 2 3 4 5 Subtle

Polite 1 2 3 4 5 Impolite

Hard-working 1 2 3 4 5 Lazy

Honest 1 2 3 4 5 Dishonest

Prejudiced 1 2 3 4 5 Open-minded

Complacent 1 2 3 4 5 Modest

In the following section I am going to ask some questions concerning Finland. It does not matter if you don't know the right answers. Please, don't ask for help if you don't know the answer but you can try and guess.

First I would ask you evaluate your level of knowledge:

8. How much do you think you know about Finland?

Nothing at all 1 2 3 4 5 Good general knowledge

9. This is the map of Europe. Please mark Finland on the map.
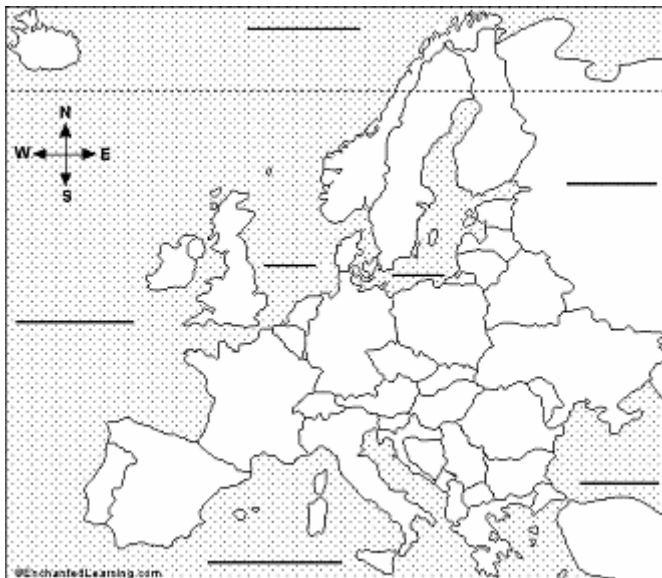
10. Which ones of the following brands are Finnish?

□ Marimekko   □ Lego   □ Nestlé   □ Cadbury

□ Kone   □ Benecol   □ Heineken   □ Oras

□ Stora Enso   □ Ikea   □ Nokia   □ Volvo

11. Which ones of the following characters are Finnish?

□ Hello Kitty   □ Asterix   □ Harry Potter

□ Santa Claus   □ Tintin   □ The Moomins

12. Which ones of these people or groups are Finnish?

□ Mika Salo   □ Gustav Klimt   □ Mika Häkkinen

□ Alvar Aalto   □ Sibelius   □ Edward Grieg

□ Michael Schumacher   □ Ville Valo   □ Janne Ahonen

□ The Corrs   □ The Rasmus   □ Tommy Ingebrigtsen

13. The number of inhabitants in Finland is about

□ 2 million   □ 5 million   □ 10 million   □ 20 million

14.What is the language most people in Finland speak as their mother tongue?

□ Finnish   □ Russian   □ Swedish   □ English

15. The majority of Finnish people are

□ Catholic   □ Protestant   □ Orthodox   □ Muslims

16. Finnish people have the world's highest consumption rate in

□ Vodka   □ Coffee   □ Tea   □ Beer

****

Finally, I would ask you to fill out some personal data. This information is only for the statistical analysis and individuals will not be identified.

17. Sex   □ Male   □ Female

18. Age   □ 0-15   □ 16-29   □ 30-45   □ 46-59   □ over 60

19. Area of Residence

□ Capital area   □ Other city (more than 1 million inhabitants)

□ Other

20. Highest level of education

□ Junior High School   □ High School   □ Junior College

□ University   □ Graduate School   □ Other

21. Reason for travel   □ Holiday   □ Meeting friends or relatives

                             □ Business   □ Other, what?

22. Duration of stay in Finland: _____ days

23. Have you been to Finland before? □ No □ Yes; if yes, how many times?___

24. Have any of your close friends or family members been to Finland?

□ No □ Yes; if yes, how many times (altogether)? _____

25. Where have you heard/read about Finland?

□ Nowhere

□ Friends or relatives

□ TV, radio, magazines

□ Travel guide/brochures

□ Books

□ Internet

□ Other, where?_____

26. What is important to you when choosing a travel destination?

□ Relaxation

□ Activities (e.g. sports)

□ Visiting new places

□ Cheap prices

□ Visiting places that no-one I know has visited

□ Shopping

□ Friends' or relatives have recommended this place

□ Other, what? _____

27. Why did you choose Finland as a travel destination?

□ Direct flight from Japan

□ Recommendation by friends or relatives

□ General interest in Finland

□ Recommendation by travel agency

□ Part of Scandinavian tour

□ Other, what? _____

28. Finally, please, draw what comes to your mind when you think of Finland. It doesn't matter how well you can draw, just draw what first comes to your mind. This should not take more than a minute or two.

Thank you for your time and help! For further information concerning the study, please contact me at akvarama@jyu.fi or by phone +358(0)40 720 2582. Sincerely, Anna-Kaisa Varamäki

Appendix 2: Japanese Questionnaire

FINNAIR

<フィンランド イメージ アンケート>

はじめまして！ 私の名前はアンナ・カイサ・バラマキ。フィンランドで日本語を勉強している大学生です。修士論文作成のため、日本の皆さんが抱くフィンランドへのイメージを調べています。ぜひ、ご協力ください。

このフィンランドイメージアンケートには28の設問があります。それぞれの質問に対して、パッと思い浮かんだイメージを、できるだけ直観的にお答えください。

尚、このアンケート結果は厳しい情報管理のもと分析・研究以外に用いませんのでご安心ください。

では、さっそく「あなたの抱くフィンランド像は？」。

●全体編

設問1－7ではフィンランドの全体像についてご質問します。

社会制度や国民性について、あなたはどのように感じていますか？

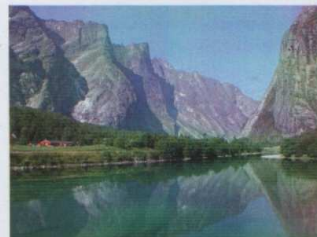1 あなたがイメージするフィンランドを写真で表現すると、以下のどれでしょうか？適当と思われるものに〇をつけてください。

1)

2)

3)

4)

2 フィンランド人が「日本」と聞いて思い浮かべるものは、桜、芸者、電化製品。　さて、あなたが「フィンランド」と聞いてイメージするものは何？（なるべく具体的なモノを最大５つあげてください。５つ以下でもけっこうです）

1）

2）

3）

4）

5）

3　もう一度、写真のイメージです。次の写真のうち、あなたが「フィンランドらしい」と感じる写真はどれですか？適当と思われるものに○をつけてください。（複数選択可）

1）

2）

3）

4）

5）

6）

7）その他（どれもイメージにあてはまらない）

4 もしも、あなたの親友が外国人と結婚するとしたら、相手の国籍が以下の場合、あなたはその親友にどんな反応をしますか？適当と思われるものに〇をつけてください

中国人の場合　　　　　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）
フィンランド人の場合　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）
フランス人の場合　　　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）
アメリカ人の場合　　　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）
スウェーデン人の場合　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）
韓国人の場合　　　　　　　（結婚に賛成・とくに意見はない・結婚に反対）

5 以下の社会状況に関して、日本とフィンランドを比較すると？適当と思われるものに〇をつけてください

フィンランドの物価　　　　（日本より高い・日本と同程度・日本より安い）
社会保障制度　　　　　　　（日本の方が整っている・日本と同程度・フィンランドの方が優れている）
教育制度と職業意識　　　　（日本の方が整っている・日本と同程度・フィンランドの方が優れている）
テクノロジー　　　　　　　（日本の方が進んでいる・日本と同程度・フィンランドの方が進んでいる）
スポーツ選手の活躍　　　　（日本人選手の方が優秀・日本と同程度・フィンランド人選手の方が優秀）
男女平等　　　　　　　　　（日本の方が平等・日本と同程度・フィンランドの方が平等）
賃金格差　　　　　　　　　（日本の方が格差が少ない・日本と同程度・フィンランドの方が格差が少ない）

6 フィンランドをイメージした以下の言葉について、あなたはどの程度、賛同しますか？　最適と思われるレベルの数字に〇をしてください。

「フィンランドはとても寒い」
　　　1　　　　　　　2　　　　　　　3　　　　　　　4　　　　　　　5　　　　　　わからない
←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

「フィンランドはとてもエキゾチックな国」
　　　1　　　　　　　2　　　　　　　3　　　　　　　4　　　　　　　5　　　　　　わからない
←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

「フィンランドは豊かだ」

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | わからない |

←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

「フィンランドは素晴らしい旅先である」

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | わからない |

←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

＂フィンランドは安全」

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | わからない |

←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

＂フィンランドは森と湖の国である」

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | わからない |

←まったく違う　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　そのとおり！→

7　フィンランドの人々に対するあなたのイメージをお答えください。それぞれの項目について、設問6と同様、あなたが最適と思われるレベルの数字に〇をしてください。

フィンランド人は…

←シャイ	1	2	3	4	5 自信家→
・口数が少ない	1	2	3	4	5 おしゃべり→
←内気	1	2	3	4	5 外交的→
・厳格	1	2	3	4	5 おおらか→
←粘り強い	1	2	3	4	5 飽きっぽい→
←語学に堪能	1	2	3	4	5 語学力は劣る→
←信頼できる	1	2	3	4	5 信頼できない→
←がまん強い	1	2	3	4	5 忍耐力がない→
・フレンドリー	1	2	3	4	5 フレンドリーでない
←落ち着いている	1	2	3	4	5 落ち着きがない→
←リラックスしている	1	2	3	4	5 緊張している→
←一緒にいて心地良い	1	2	3	4	5 心地良くない→
←社交的	1	2	3	4	5 閉鎖的→

←ユーモアがある	1	2	3	4	5	ユーモアがない→
←あたたかい	1	2	3	4	5	冷ややか→
←直接的	1	2	3	4	5	間接的→
←礼儀正しい	1	2	3	4	5	不作法→
←勤勉	1	2	3	4	5	怠惰→
←正直	1	2	3	4	5	不正直→
←偏見がない	1	2	3	4	5	偏見がある→
←得意気	1	2	3	4	5	控え目→

●基礎知識編

設問8－16 では、フィンランドに関する基礎知識をお聞きします。クイズではありませんので、回答の正否は問いません。仮にわからなくても、調べたり、周囲に相談したりせず、あなた自身の印象でお答えください。

8 あなたはフィンランドをどの程度知っていると思いますか？自己評価してください。

←まったく知らない 1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5とても良く知っていると思う→

9 フィンランドはどこにありますか？　下のヨーロッパ地図に印を付けてください。
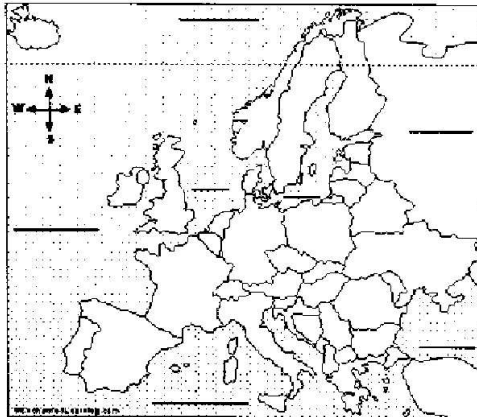
10 あなたが知っているフィンランドのブランドにチェックを付けてください。(複数回答可)

　□マリメッコ　　　　　□レゴ　　　　　　□ネスレ　　　　　□カドブリー

　□コネ　　　　　　　　□ベネコル　　　　□ハイネケン　　　□オラス

　□ストラ・エンソ　　　□イケア　　　　　□ノキア　　　　　□ボルボ

11 あなたが知っているフィンランド出身のキャラクターにチェックを付けてください。(複数回答可)

　□ハロー・キティ　　　□アストリクス　　□ハリー・ポッター

　□サンタクロース　　　□タンタン　　　　□ムーミン

12 あなたが知っているフィンランド出身の有名人にチェックを付けてください。(複数回答可)

　□ミカ・サロ　　　　　　　□グスタフ・クリムト　□ミカ・ハッキネン

　□アルバ・アールト　　　　□シベリウス　　　　　□エドワード・グリーグ

　□ミハエル・シューマッハ　□ビッレ・バロ　　　　□ヤンネ・アホネン

　□コアーズ　　　　　　　　□ラズムス　　　　　　□トニー・インゲブリグステン

13 フィンランドの人口は?

　□約200万人　　　　　　□約500万人　　　　　□約1000万人　　　　□約2000万人

14 大半のフィンランド人の母国語は?

　□フィンランド語　　　　□ロシア語　　　　　□スウェーデン語　　□英語

15 大半のフィンランド人の宗教は？

　　　□カトリック　　　　　□プロテスタント　　□ロシア正教　　　□イスラム教

16 フィンランド人が最も愛する飲み物は？（フィンランド人はこの飲み物を世界一消費しています）

　　　□ウォッカ　　　　　　□コーヒー　　　　□紅茶　　　　　　□ビール

●パーソナル編

最後に、あなた自身のことについてお聞きします。ここでお答えいただいた個人情報は、あくまでも統計分析のために使用し、それ以外の用途に使われることはありません。

17 性別　　　　　□男　　　　　　□女

18 年齢　　　　　□15歳以下　　　□16－29歳　　　□30－45歳　　　□46－59歳
　　　　　　　　　□60歳以上

19 居住地　　　　□首都圏　　　　□人口100万人以上の都市　　　　□その他

20 最終学歴　　　□中学校　　　　□高等学校　　　□短大・専門学校　□大学 □大学院
　　　　　　　　　□その他

21 今回のフィンランド旅行（滞在）の目的
　　　　　　　　　□休暇　　　　　□友人や親戚に会うため　　□仕事
　　　　　　　　　□その他（支障のない範囲で具体的に／　　　　　　　　　　　）

22 今回の滞在予定日数　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　日

23 フィンランド旅行は初めてですか？

　　　　　　　　　□はい　　　　　　□いいえ（今回で　　　　　　回目）

24 あなたの家族や友人は、フィンランドに来たことがありますか？

　　　　　　　　　□ない　　　　　　□ある（過去に　　　　　　回くらい）

25 あなたはフィンランドの情報をどのように入手していますか？

　　（複数回答可／最も有効と思われる情報源のみで言って下さい）

　　　　　　　　　□情報は何も持っていない

　　　　　　　　　□友人・知人の口コミ情報

　　　　　　　　　□テレビやラジオ

　　　　　　　　　□航空会社や旅行会社のパンフレット、資料など

　　　　　　　　　□書店で売られている旅行雑誌や書籍

　　　　　　　　　□インターネット

　　　　　　　　　□その他（なるべく具体的に　　　　　　　　　　　　）

26 今回の滞在先（ホテルなど）を決定する際に最も重視した条件は？（複数選択可）

　　　　　　　　　□ リラックスできるかどうか

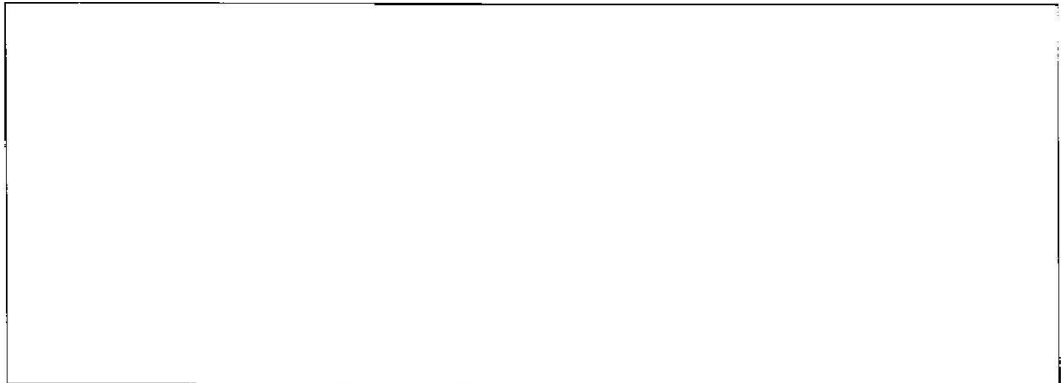　　　　　　　　　□ 現地での活動（スポーツや観光など）がしやすいかどうか

　　　　　　　　　□ 新しい場所への訪問（未知の場所を選んだ）

　　　　　　　　　□ 価格

　　　　　　　　　□ 知人、親戚などからの推薦

　　　　　　　　　□ その他（なるべく具体的に　　　　　　　　　　　　）

　　　　　　　　　□ ショッピング

　　　　　　　　　□ 私自身が今まで行ったことがない場所への訪問。

　　　　　　　　　□ 知人や親戚がまだ一度も行ったことがない場所（私自身は何度も訪問している）。）

27 あなたが旅先にフィンランドを選んだ理由（複数回答可）

　　　　　□日本からの直行便があったため

　　　　　□ 友人、知人などから勧められたため

　　　　　□ フィンランドに興味があったため

　　　　　□旅行会社から勧められたため

　　　　　□北欧諸国の旅行ツアーに組み込まれていたため

　　　　　□その他（なるべく具体的に　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

28 「フィンランド」と聞いて、最初に浮かぶイメージを絵にしてください。
　　（なるべく短時間で思いつくままに自由にお描きください）

ご協力ありがとうございました。

＊本アンケートに関するご質問、ご意見は akvarama@jyu.fi　または Tel. 358 (0) 40720 2582 までどうぞ。

アンナ・カイサ・バラマキ

Anna-Kaisa Varamaki

Appendix 3: Letter of instructions to the cabin crew

JAKO-OHJE

SUOMIKUVA-TUTKIMUS / NRT-HEL JA KIX-HEL
Ohje 13.7.2004

Hyvä matkustamomiehistö!

Opiskelija Anna-Kaisa Varamäki yhdessä Palvelun tuotekehityksen kanssa tekee Pro Gradutyönään tutkimuksen japanilaisten matkustajien suomikuvasta 21.7 – 8.8.2004 lennoillamme.

Tutkimuskuoria on tarkoitus jakaa sekä bisnes-, että turistiluokassa. Jaon ei tarvitse mennä tasan molempiin, matkustusluokalla ei tässä tutkimuksessa ole kovin suurta merkitystä.

Lomakkeiden jako-ohje:

1. Pussissa on 25 tutkimuskuorta, joiden sisällä on japaninkielinen kyselylomake.

2. Tutkimus tehdään vain **suuntaan NRT/KIX-HEL**.

3. Jaa kynät ja kuoret siten, että **ne menevät vain japaninkielisille** (arviolta yli 16-vuotiaille) **matkustajille**, kuitenkin vain yksi lomake / perhe tai seurue.

Lomakkeen voi ojentaa asiakkaalle ja samalla mainita, että kyseessä on asiakastutkimus. Asiakas voi päättää lennon aikana, vastaako hän lomakkeen kysymyksiin vai ei.

4. Laita palautetut täytetyt sekä täyttämättömät lomakkeet lennon lopussa takaisin pussiin sekä täytä raporttilomake. Laita pussi FWD-keittiön juomakärryn päälle. Kuormaushenkilökunta toimittaa sen Cateringiin.

KIITÄMME YHTEISTYÖSTÄ!

Tiedustelut: Susanne Heikkinen YXB/69, Irina Lehto YXC/69

Anna-Kaisa Varamäki
Palvelun tuotekehitys

Appendix 4: List of all the things mentioned in question number two ("What are the five things that come to your mind first when you think of Finland?")

Nature	Society	People
(Full of) nature (7)	Divorce (1)	Alvar Aalto (2)
Clean air (4)	Equality (1)	Blond hair (2)
Cold place/weather (10)	Finn tribe (1)	Diligent (1)
Fjords (18)	Helsinki Olympics (9)	F1 race drivers (2)
Forests (68)	High level of education (1)	Hard-working (1)
Forests and lakes (16)	Independent women (1)	Healthy teeth (1)
Hot spring (3)	Kalevala (1)	Mika Häkkinen (1)
Ice (1)	Nobel prize (1)	"-nen" at the end of Finnish
Iceberg (1)	Recovery from the 1990's	names (3)
Lakes (66)	crisis (1)	Santa Claus (52)
Mountains (5)	Reliable public	Serious (1)
Nightless nights (37)	transportation (1)	Sibelius, Finlandia (13)
Northern lights (37)	Sami people (4)	Turunen (Japanese legislator)
Pine trees (5)	Social welfare (10)	(1)
Reindeer (23)	Strenght (high ability and	Vikings (3)
Sea (3)	literacy) in math (1)	
Seal (1)	The country used to be	
Sleet (1)	under Russian rule (1)	
Snow (10)	Winter Olympics (2)	
Sun bathing (1)	Winter sports (14)	
Water (9)		
Wind (1)		
Winter (1)		

Industries and companies	Food	Events, things to do and places to visit
Biotechnology (1)	Alcohol drinks (1)	Cruising (1)
Finnair (1)	Berries (3)	Dog sled (1)
Heavy industry (shipyard, steel) (1)	Fish (5)	Marathon (1)
High-tech, IT, ICT (5)	Herring (2)	Rally (2)
IKEA (1)	Lapin Kulta beer (1)	Second hand bookshop near the lake (1)
Marimekko (2)	Rye bread (1)	
Nokia, mobile phones (20)	Salmiakki (1)	
Pulp/paper industry (1)	Salmon (3)	
Ship industry (1)	Sardine (1)	
Whaling (1)	Sausage (2)	
Location	**Design and handicraft**	**"Finnish things"**
Arctic	Artifacts (table, chair, wooden work) (3)	Choir (1)
Baltic States	Ceramics (1)	Churches (3)
Helsinki (1)	Design (4)	Sauna (37)
Lapland (5)	Glass art (3)	The Moomins (89)
Nearest Nordic country from Japan (1)		Tram (1)
Norway+Russia= Finland		Word "Suomi" (2)
Scandinavia (3)		Xylitol (15)

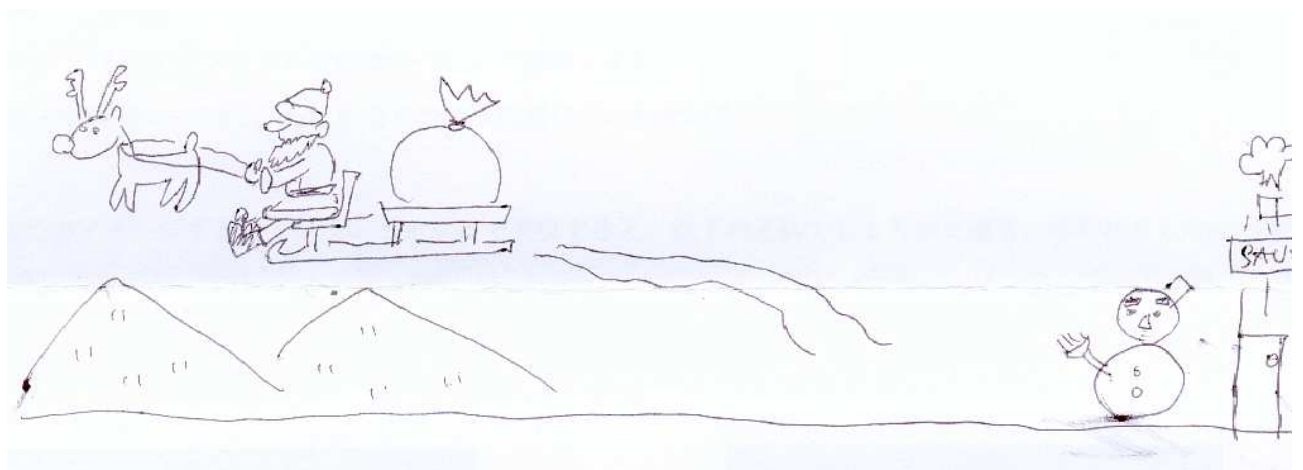**Appendix 5: A sample of drawings in question number 28.**

Picture 1.

Picture 2.

Picture 3.

Picture 4.

Picture 5.

house

lake

Picture 6.