DESIGNING FOREST-BASED WELLBEING TOURISM SERVICES FOR JAPANESE CUSTOMERS – CASE STUDY FROM FINLAND

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Key words:

new service development, customer involvement, tourist experience

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Acknowledgements:

We want to thank the Forest Wellbeing project for enabling this research, and M.Sc. (Econ,) Lotta Snicker, whose contribution in gathering and analysing the data in the first two phases of the study was indispensable.

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1 Introduction

Customer needs and expectations are the starting point for new service development. Price and Wrigley (2015) emphasize the importance of deep customer insight especially when a new, for the service provider unknown national customer segment is considered as a potential market. Previous findings of market research may help in building a broad picture of the potential market, but getting in touch with the actual customer would be the best way to learn to understand the customer (Price, Wrigley & Straker, 2015). When the potential customer target group is new and no previous experience of the behaviour of the customer is available, a challenge is to find out methods of acquiring deep customer insight for new service development. The purpose of this chapter is to introduce and evaluate methods of customer involvement in new service development for a new target group. First, it presents a short introduction to the theoretical underpinnings behind customer involvement in new service development, and then the development process in a form of a case study is presented phase be phase. Then, it discusses the challenges and advantages of those methods of customer involvement that were applied in this case study.

The starting point for this study was an idea of developing forest based wellbeing tourism services for Japanese clients in Eastern Finland, proposed by a Japanese physician Fumio Hirano. He introduced to the Finnish partners the Japanese idea of forest therapy or Shinrinyoku, which is a relaxation activity associated with forest recreation (Park et al., 2009) and has been shown to reduce stress (Tsunestugu, Park & Yoshifumi, 2010). Several other studies have reported about the positive effects of forest based activities on mental and physical health (Lee, Park, Tsunetsugu, Kagawa & Miyazaki, 2009; Lee et al., 2012; Li, 2010; Korpela, Ylen, Tyrväinen & Silvennoinen, 2010; Morita et al., 2007; Morita et al., 2011; Ohtsuka, Yabunaka & Takayama, 1998; Park et al., 2008) and it is widely believed that coming into contact with forest environments is somehow beneficial to human wellbeing and comfort. In Finnish context forest-based wellbeing tourism might refer to culture, nature, peace and quiet in the countryside (Konu, Tuohino & Komppula, 2010). The location of the service offering would be in a rural environment, where acquiring a sense of one's own wellbeing through a peaceful environment and slow-life are core elements of a wellbeing holiday (Konu, 2010; Pesonen & Komppula, 2010; Pesonen, Komppula & Kronenberg, 2011).

According to Edvardsson, Kristensson, Magnusson and Sundström (2012), methods that permit potential customers to identify their own needs and ideas, and which are elicited in the natural use context, provide most concrete and immediately applicable information in service development. Magnusson, Matthing and Kristensson (2003) state that if customers are given the opportunity to deliberate at a location where user needs and information are sensible, new ideas and solutions that were unthinkable beforehand may evolve. This chapter presents a case study of a new service development project of which the aim was to develop service modules that could be included in a forest wellbeing packaged tour for Japanese tourists. As the aim of the research was to acquire deep customer insight about the expectations and characteristics of a new and unfamiliar target group, a decision was made to apply a

combination of diverse methods of customer involvement, some of them borrowed from service design.

2 Customer involvement in new service development for new target groups

According to Prideaux, Cave, Thompson and Sibtain (2012) destinations should be active in searching new potential markets, and when such are identified, the destinations should ensure that the supply side pull-factors match with the demand-side push-factors successfully. They continue by stating that developing new tourism markets requires a holistic understanding of consumer push factors, and an ability of the destination to respond to these by harnessing its pull factors to create a tourism experience.

As the service-dominant logic (SDL) proposes, customers are co-creators of value (Payne, Storbacka & Frow, 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2006) together with the service providers, which implies that customers should be involved in service development processes (Edvardsson et al., 2012). Tourism products are experience-centric services, which engage customers emotionally, physically, intellectually or even spiritually (Shaw, Bailey & Williams, 2011; Stickdorn, 2009; Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010). Hence, customer involvement in tourism service development is particularly crucial when defining and designing the experience (Prebensen, Vittersø & Dahl, 2013). Although co-creation and customer involvement in service development in tourism has been recently pointed out by a few researchers (e.g. Prebensen & Foss, 2010; Prebensen et al., 2013; Shaw, et al., 2011) only limited empirical evidence of the level of innovative activities in tourism and hospitality industries can be found in research (Hjalager, 2010). Hjalager and Nordin (2011) state that the future research on tourism innovation should focus on topics related to user-driven innovation practices and methods. This case study in hand is a small step to this direction.

Wetter Edman (2009) notes that some of the key principles of SDL, focusing on the needs, wants and expectations of the customer, are similar to those of Service Design (SD). Traditional market research methods, referring to interviews, surveys and questionnaires, explore the how, what and where in relation to the customer or the product, but a need for a deeper customer insight when developing services for an unknown consumer group requires understanding of customers' why questions (Price et al., 2015). Price and Wrigley (2015) suggest that design-led approach offers "an intimate shared understanding of the unspoken, latent current and future needs of the customer" (pp. 1). According to Moriz (2005) "Service design is the overall experience of a service, as well as the design of the process and strategy to provide the service" (p. 39). Service design is about understanding the customer needs, expectations and behavior, and developing and implementing solutions (Moriz, 2005). According to Mager (2009) service design is a holistic, interdisciplinary and human-centered approach, which aims to integrate the customers into the exploration and development processes with the service providers.

Wetter Edman (2009) points out that the similarities between SDL and SD has given a fruitful ground for management and business in adapting service design methods and tools in

development of products and services. According to Miettinen (2009) traditional research methods (surveys, questionnaires, interviews and experiments) serve their purpose well at supporting the design process. Nevertheless, in adapted methods, such as observation and ethnography in a participatory setting enable the researcher to understand the user's tacit knowledge in the use situation. Service designers use often innovative ways of collecting user information such as design workshops, collage, visual diaries, storyboarding and mindmapping having strong emphasis on visualizing (Miettinen, 2009).

According to Cayla and Arnould (2013) ethnography has become a popular research approach in market research practice, and several large companies employ ethnographers in new product development projects or to explore new market opportunities. Nevertheless, according to them, research on ethnographic practices in the corporate world are still scarce. Cayla and Arnould (2013) discuss the advantages of ethnographic storytelling and persona method as a means of provoking, inspiring and increasing organizational innovation, but they do not make any reference to service design or design led methods. Hence, as Wetter Edman (2011) notes, the relation between service marketing and management and service design can be seen as complementary, especially in tools and methods for user involvement and co-creation.

A few attempts have been made to adapt service design thinking to the development of tourist services. One example of this is an application of mobile ethnography (myServiceFellow) in selected European tourism destinations, reported in a book edited by Stickdorn and Frischhut (2012). Another example is presented by Trischler and Zehrer (2012), reporting the findings of a study which applied 'persona', 'observation', 'guided interviews', and 'visualization' methods for evaluating service experiences at a theme park at the Gold Coast, Australia. Price and Wrigley (2015) sought deeper understanding of nationality segments in an airport context by utilizing shadowing, personas, touchpoint time line, customer narratives, interviews, focus groups as well as co-design workshops. Komppula and Lassila (2014) conducted a multiple case study in which they applied several methods of customer involvement, including focus group interviews, participatory observation, drama method, empathy based method and contact point evaluation done on mobile devices. Their findings indicate that the qualitative methods produced in-depth understanding about the consumer needs and expectations, but were demanding, time consuming and required lots of expertise, which in many cases is not available for the small tourism entrepreneurs, the majority in the tourism and hospitality industry. Hence, Komppula and Lassila (2014) as well as Russo-Spena and Mele (2012) recommend the enterprises to cooperate with a broad spectrum of collaborations, which would involve resource integration with several kinds of stakeholders (Payne et al., 2008) and improve the co-creation practices of innovation. Zehrer (2009) recommends small tourism businesses to act synergistically in cooperation with other tourism enterprises in adapting service design as a tool in developing the service experience.

3 The case study - the service development process

The development project started in June 2011, when the network of eighteen entrepreneurs, regional tourism marketing organization, municipality representatives and other stakeholders was invited by University of Eastern Finland to the first meetings. The first phase of the

project, literature review was conducted during the summer 2011 and the group interviews of potential Japanese tourists took place in autumn 2011. The findings of the literature review were presented to the entrepreneurs in February and the findings of the group interview in October 2012. Based on these findings and additional training about the Japanese as customers, entrepreneurs started to design product modules, which were then tested virtually among potential Japanese tourists in spring 2013. In May 2013 a group of members of the product development network made an excursion to Japan to meet with the initiators of the project and potential customers, as well as to familiarize with the Japanese forest therapy services. The findings of the virtual testing and the experiences of the excursion were discussed with the entrepreneurs and the final offering for the test group visit was created by the entrepreneurs. In August 2013 the experiences of the Japanese test group were studied by utilizing an ethnographic method. The feedback of the findings of the ethnographic study were discussed with the members of the network in a seminar in November 2013.

The phases of the research conducted in the development project are described in more detail in the following sections.

3.1 Phase one: Literature review and market information search

In the first phase a literature review on Japanese culture and the research on "shinrin-yoku" and effects on forests on the wellbeing of a human being was conducted, in order to build basic understanding about the potential segment. As Watkins and Gnoth (2011) state, it is widely accepted that for developing new products for Japanese tourists, an in-depth understanding of the characteristics of this market is required.

Finland attracts from Japan especially young females to individual cultural trips to the capital region and elderly segments to Lapland to see the Northern Lights (Finnish Tourist Board, 2013). The literature review gave insight into the characteristics of Japanese as consumers. Japanese consumers are relatively homogenous, co-operative and loyal, harmony is highly valued and social obligations and reciprocity are underlined (Synodinos, 2001). According to Wieszbicka (1997) conformity to group norms and building trust is an important goal for relationships-oriented Japanese, who promote a personality which is humble, dependent, self-limiting, adaptable, harmonious and passive. Synodinos (2001) also mentions the implications of a well-informed society and the importance of age and aesthetic values when approaching a Japanese potential customer. Genestre, Herbing and Shao (1995) state that the quality of services in Japan is highly appreciated, and for the Japanese the quest for status and prestige items is an important consideration. Customers are always treated with extreme courtesy and respect (Synodinos, 2001). Reluctance to give negative feedback is one specific feature of Japanese and connected to "reserved" behavior, indirect speaking and to avoidance of giving opinions personally (Wierzbicka, 1997).

The Japanese have still relatively little free time compared to Europeans, and many people still do not take all the holidays to which they are entitled, but instead prefer to take time off during official public holidays (Synodinos, 2001). Nevertheless, Watkins and Gnoth (2011) state that a new movement, *shinjinrui*, towards travel and leisure activities has emerged.

Japanese travellers are often inexperienced, and travel in a group (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011) but in recent years amount of individually arranged travel has increased (Synodinos, 2001; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011). The top-ranking attributes for Japanese travellers are outstanding scenery, historical or archeologically interesting places, nice weather, high standards of hygiene or cleanliness and availability of sufficient information before the trip (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011).

According to Watkins and Gnoth (2011) the middle-aged packaged tourist segment is in accordance with the existing literature on Japanese culture and travel styles, but the younger segment, Japanese backpackers, represent values that reflected a very personal search for meaning and fulfilment. The largest segment travelling from Japan to Europe are experienced female travellers aged fifty years and over (19.3%), but the highest departure rate is among women in their twenties (25.2%) (Japan Travel Bureau, 2011).

3.2 The second phase: Group interviews with SD methods

In order to get more in-depth understanding about the target group, a focus group method was chosen, as the outcome is richer than that of individual interviews (Hjalager & Nordin, 2011). As the budget for this study was limited, Japanese people currently living in Finland were invited as informants. Informants were sought via Finnish-Japanese associations and other stakeholders having connections to Japanese people living in Finland. Finally, five women and three men agreed to be informants.

Two focus group interviews were conducted, using methods borrowed from service design approach. As Japanese often find western frankness in expressing their opinions immature and as directly eliciting someone's preferences is deemed impolite (Wierzbicka 1997), generative exercises for supporting the focus group interview were found effective. The topics were discussed in groups, and feelings or opinions were captured in "designerly artefacts" (Miettinen, 2009). In the first group meeting with four informants (1 male and 3 females, age of 22-55 years, 2 students and 2 working people) a forest walk was undertaken, during which fifty-one photographs were taken. The participant was asked to explain why he or she chose to take the particular pictures. After the walk, there was an interview session with mind map building. In the second group (2 males and 2 females, age of 22-25 years, students) the research data was collected in an interview session with mood board and mind map building. The sessions were recorded on video and transcribed. Both focus group interviews lasted about four hours.

The transcriptions were organized, summarized, categorized and interpreted. The visual and verbal data was then analysed using content analysis. Following the guidelines by Roulston (2010), the data was organized into thematic groupings. In the artefacts, the number of triggers and the structure of the artefact were compared. From the presentation of the artefact, the length, the breadth and the depth were analysed (Sanders, 2005.) The recurring elements were collected in an Excel table, in order to gain an understanding of the basic elements needed for a functioning service product and then to identify the new ideas presented by the participants.

Persona method was adapted with an aim to illustrate the potential target segments found as a result of the literature review and the focus group interview, Personas represent user archetypes and lifestyles and each profile should represent a composition of subpopulation of users (Moritz, 2005; Trischler & Zehrer, 2012). Personas are fictional user profiles and may include personalities, behaviours, details about specific interests, goals and even names (Miettinen, 2009). Brangier and Bornet (2011) posit that persona method is often used as complementing other user centred methods. The strength of the technique is claimed to be its user-sensitizing impact, which enables understanding the user better for further analysis and research (Trischler & Zehrer, 2012). Personas can shift the focus from demographics and other traditional segmentation criteria towards actual wants and needs of the consumers (van Dijk, Raijmakers & Kelly, 2011) but as (Brangier & Bornet, 2011) note, the interpretation of the data is challenging and the findings that emerge from the personas method may vary from researcher to another. According to Cayla and Arnould (2013), persona method has become a common and widespread tool in ethnographic approaches to market segmentation. They state that personas help the executives to make sense of the world of the customer, and serve as a symbolic device that helps them to connect with their customers.

Four fictive personas representing the possible segments in target market were built from features given by the informants, and supported by the literature review. They do not represent single person or informant, but instead, they symbolize the main characteristics of possible customer segment leaving the too detailed information aside. Seiko represents a young female well-educated target group with active life-style and high awareness of environmental issues. Sonny represents a young target group with appreciation of adventurous activities. These two young segments would be interested in individual travel instead of groups. Monoke represents a segment which would travel with children, and would appreciate family friendly services. Sakiko would represent the elderly female target group with a preference on group travel.

The feasibility of the focus group method was discussed among the actors in the project. Using focus groups composed of mostly students and people who already have in a way absorbed in the context, may reduce the credibility of the findings as a representation of pure Japanese opinions. Nevertheless, from the managerial point of view using Japanese consumers living in Finland as informants was cost efficient. It was concluded that the findings can be taken only as tentative reflections of potential Japanese tourists' expectations towards Finnish forest-based wellbeing tourism offering. Although the focus group method combined with context mapping techniques was laborious and challenging in terms of interpreting the data, the findings concerning Japanese travel habits and values behind them seemed to be substantiated in the literature. On the other hand, important details concerning the similarities and differences of Finnish and Japanese people in terms of in their relationship with forests were pointed out, which might help Finnish tourism entrepreneurs in designing forest based itineraries for Japanese target groups.

3.3 The third phase: Virtual testing

Based on the findings of the focus group interview, the entrepreneurs developed service modules, among which the representatives of the university chose fifteen activity service modules and five accommodation module descriptions, which were carefully translated into Japanese. Then, a web based virtual testing environment was created in the platform, presenting the modules by giving a short written description and showing pictures or a video related to the module. This phase would correspond to a "service test drive" suggested by Edvardsson, Enquist and Johnston (2010) referring to a potential customer's opportunity to familiarize with the service in a virtual "in-use" situation.

Convenience sampling was used and the link to the test environment was sent to Japanese partners of the development project, with a request to distribute the link in their networks. The respondents were asked to evaluate the service modules by telling about the feelings the module gives to them, what is good and what should be changed, and to whom the service would be suitable for. They were also asked to give a star rating on the attractiveness of each module. Altogether 130 responses were received together with star ratings. In addition, feedback from the test environment itself was received by e-mail.

The received comments about the modules brought forth four different themes and gave good ideas related to diverse modules. First theme revealed travel motives and reasons to participate to particular kinds of services (being together with a family, relaxation, and gaining energy and strength). The second theme was comments on diverse components and content of the modules. More practical information was inquired related e.g. to suitability and accessibility of the offering. The comments and star ratings gave a very clear idea which services were the most appealing. The third theme was ideas and suggestions for new services and additional themes for services. E.g. related to a module that focused on farm tourism the respondents pointed out that it is possible to visit a farm everywhere in the world. Instead, it would be interesting to know more about local wildlife. Fourth, suggestions to improve the module descriptions and the marketing messages of the offering were received. The respondents pointed out that the module descriptions should include more concrete and practical information. Some respondents gave also alternative possibilities for some phrases used in the descriptions. They said that using a slightly different words the offering could be more attractive for the Japanese.

The findings of the virtual testing show that the information gained was versatile, and the comments did not solely focus on evaluating the service modules but also additional information was gained. Although this was the first application of the virtual testing platform, it showed to be successful in resulting to concrete suggestions for further development of the modules, and gave us understanding about which modules should be included in the actual test trip and which should be removed. Additionally, in technical terms, several ideas for further development of the method as such was received (Konu, 2015b) and the platform was later applied for another virtual testing in domestic market.

3.4 The fourth phase: Ethnographic study during the test group visit

After the virtual testing, the modules were further developed, and the final set of service modules were chosen for the external testing of the offering. A test group of eight Japanese tourists and two representatives of a tour operator visited the destination in August 2013 for five days. The second author of this chapter travelled with the group and collected data by means of participant observation, group interviews, and customer feedback surveys. Utilising a variety of data collection methods is common in an ethnographic study (Fettermann, 2010) and enables gathering of a more comprehensive picture from the phenomenon examined. The goal was to gather feedback about the service modules and the entire offering from the end users and from the intermediaries. The detailed report of the ethnographic study is presented in Konu (2015a).

As it is suggested that test customers should be interested and motivated to test the product and the testers should represent the potential target market (Hoyer, Chandy, Dorotic, Kraft & Singh, 2010), the customers were selected to represent people interested in nature and nature activities, and wellbeing. Based on the findings of the earlier phases of the study the participants should also comprise different age groups, both genders and should show an interest in Finland. The responsibility for the final selection of the test customers was given to the project's collaborative partner in Japan, who sought out the test customers with help of the Finnish Japanese Society. Additionally, representatives of the most important tour operator partner of the Finnish Tourist Board in Japan were invited on the test trip. In this case, the selected test customers paid for their flights to the destination and back, but the services at the destination were free for them.

The observation started at the airport when the test group arrived and continued until their departure. In addition to the researcher, an interpreter and a local Finnish tour guide were present for the duration of the trip. During the participant observation, the researcher focused on observing the customers and the interaction between service providers, customers and the environment. She also took a number of pictures to support the field notes.

In the beginning of the trip the feedback surveys were delivered and the participants were asked to fill in the forms on a daily basis and to return the forms to the researcher. In the open-ended questionnaire, they were asked to describe what activities and/or things were the best during the day, what they would improve, and their overall assessment of the day. In addition, they were asked to evaluate each service module of that day by using a star rating, similar to that virtual testing phase. The Japanese test customers filled out the questionnaire in Japanese and the representatives of the tour operator in English. By the end of the trip, they also filled an additional form as an overall assessment of the whole trip. The Japanese comments and responses were translated into Finnish after the trip.

At the end of the test trip, two group interviews were conducted, one with two Japanese women and the other with two representatives of the tour operators. The interviews were carried out in English but the interpreter was present in case of need for clarifications during the interview. The interviews dealt with e.g. what the most memorable experience/the best part of this trip was, and what they would improve.

The overall data consisted of the field notes (26 pages), translated responses of the test customers (53 pages) and the two interviews. The analysis was written in a form of a trip description including a depiction of all activities day by day and activity by activity, telling the story of the whole week. The interpretation of the data was discussed with the interpreter and the tour guide that had gained experiences from the whole trip. To increase the trustworthiness (Creswell, 2014) the interpretations of the researcher were also discussed and checked with the informants.

The service providers received practical and detailed information for product development purposes. The data showed that some service modules were not seen as being appealing for this target market, but e.g. the guided activities in a natural environment were the ones that brought the most positive emotional experiences among the test group. Some of the service modules divided opinions quite drastically, meaning that these service modules could be offered as optional services. Additionally, some service modules were more ready than others, meaning that more in-depth analysis of the customer journey and the touchpoints is needed as well as internal testing of the service processes. It was evident that the activities in some modules took longer than expected as the service providers had underestimated the time needed. As this was a test trip the timetable was very tight because many activities and service modules needed to be tested. This felt rather exhausting for the test customers. For the final product it is important to set a reasonable number of activities per day and also leave some free time in the itinerary in addition to the guided activities. The tour guide also needs to be firm in guiding the group and keeping up the schedule. Information about the product and the service modules in it should be detailed enough.

4 Discussion and conclusions

The main purpose of this research was to gain deep customer insight about potential Japanese customers to be able to develop new tourism services targeted to this new segment. This study responses to the call for using more qualitative, interpretative and interactive methods and approaches in increasing deep customer insight in new service development (e.g. Edvardsson et al., 2012; Price et al., 2015). This case shows that the methods used were efficient in helping to identify emotional responses of customers and in getting deeper understanding of the wishes and needs of potential customers. Hence, our experiences during this project support the notions of Cayla and Arnould (2013) indicating that ethnographic stories and the development of narrative personas created a tool which enabled the entrepreneurs to immerse to the narrative content of the study, describing the characteristics and behavioural features of the potential customer. According to Cayla and Arnould (2013) ethnographic stories are unique modes of market sensemaking and sensegiving, enabling executives an access to explanations of consumer behaviour. Having said that they remind that ethnographic stories are always told from a specific point of view and for a specific audience, indicating that they are not trying to reach an objective truth. Cayla and Arnould (2013) note that ethnographic approach focusing on a few informants often conflicts with knowledge regimes that focus on scale and numbers.

During the NSD process advantages and challenges of applying the diverse methods in diverse NSD phases were identified. Despite of the technical problems and a few shortcomings of the web based platform in the virtual testing, the method enabled the

provision of information in a manner that gave the potential customers an ability to "feel" the activities and the nature in the service modules, which is in accordance with the findings of Edvardsson, Enquist and Johnston (2010). Nevertheless, using other than traditional methods may be time-consuming and expensive for company, and applying them may be problematic as companies may lack the knowhow to implement them (Konu, 2015c; Konu & Komppula, 2016). Hence, utilization of this kinds of customer involvement methods may require collaboration between tourism companies and research units that are familiar with these methods (Komppula & Lassila, 2014).

In addition of gaining information through the customer involvement activities it must be noted that an important phase of the new service development project was also the excursion of the entrepreneurs in order to familiarize with the source market. This trip gave them an opportunity to experience the Japanese courtesy and hospitality in practice. Own experience only can show what the phrase "The customer is the king" really means in that market in practice, in the expression, gesture and movement of the service personnel. This highlights the notion of Edvardsson, Enquist and Johnston (2010) emphasizing the importance of understanding the human interaction in the service experience. We conclude by arguing that as in tourism the customer experience is in the core of the service offering (Zomerdijk & Voss, 2011), the customer should be involved actively in the new service development in order to access deep customer insight.

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