

# Chapter One

## Introduction

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### **Introduction: Where are goods and services commodities from and why does it matter?**

From the regional heyday of producing a quarter of the world's ships in the opening decade of the twentieth century (Hudson 1989), Tyneside in north east England established a reputation for engineering innovation and manufacturing prowess. The 'carboniferous capitalism' of coal, iron and steel underpinned specialization and international technological leadership in heavy engineering in Britain's imperial markets (Tomaney 2006). Industrial pioneers such as William Armstrong, Charles Parsons and George Stephenson in concert with skilled and unionized urban labour meant 'Made in Tyneside' was commercially meaningful and valuable (Middlebrook 1968). During the 1950s and 1960s, Historian Paul Kennedy described this time and place as:

A world of great noise and much dirt... [where] ... There was a deep satisfaction about making things ... among all of those that had supplied the services, whether it was the local bankers with credit; whether it was the local design firms. When a ship was launched at Swan Hunter [Wallsend, North Tyneside] all the kids at the local school went to see the thing our fathers had put together and when we looked down from the cross-wired fence, tried to find Uncle Mick, Uncle Jim or your dad, this notion of an integrated, productive community was quite astonishing (quoted in Chakraborty 2011: 1).



**Figure 1.1** HMS York. Source: Newcastle Libraries & Information Service.

Vessels, such as HMS York (Figure 1.1), were made in the shipyards of Hebburn, Walker and Wallsend, and, once departed from the slipway, travelled the world as functional commodities embodying the meaning and commercially valuable reputation of where they were from and who built them.

Although Tyneside has since been ravaged by waves of deindustrialization and a highly socially and spatially uneven transition to a service-dominated economy (Pike *et al.* 2006), the geographical associations in what a place is known for live on in certain specialist market niches. In the kinds of connections, for example, made in the corporate logo of Tyneside Safety Glass, including a silhouette of the Tyne Bridge, and the marking of some of its products with the slogan ‘Tyneside Toughened’. Tyneside Safety Glass is a privately owned specialist glass processor established in 1937 with its headquarters in the Team Valley south of the river Tyne in Gateshead. It employs around 200 people and operates three factories in north east England. The company articulates authentic claims to provenance as part of its creation and communication of meaning and value for its customers in international architectural, automotive, defence and security markets. There are no intrinsic ties that mean such goods and services commodities could not technically be produced

elsewhere beyond Tyneside in north east England. But commercial advantage is being sought by the owners through the company name, logo and slogan making strong and geographical connections to the historical traditions, character and reputation of the place of Tyneside for engineering ingenuity, technological innovation and manufacturing precision.

As Tyneside Safety Glass demonstrates, where goods and services commodities are from and are associated with – and, crucially, are *perceived* to be from and associated with – and why is important. Raising such issues encourages reflection upon how we understand and explain critical spatial concerns about the geographies of economy and their organization and dynamics: the call centres, design studios, factories, laboratories, logistics hubs, market stalls, offices, shops, trading floors, warehouses and the investments, jobs, incomes, livelihoods and identities in cities, localities, regions and countries with which they are entwined. Such concerns make us think about how, why, where and by whom goods and services commodities are associated with specific and particular geographical attributes and characteristics of spaces and places as part of attempts by myriad actors to create meaning and value.

Longstanding connections and connotations are evident especially where the geographical associations of goods and services commodities are strong, enduring and decisive commercial and trade advantages. Well known examples include ‘Danish furniture, Florentine leather goods, Parisian *haute couture*, Champagne wines, London theatre, Swiss watches before digitization, Thai silks, recorded music from Nashville ... Hollywood films’ (Scott 1998: 109). The list could go on. For over four decades, researchers in the discipline of marketing have recognized this phenomenon and call it the ‘*Country of Origin*’ effect (Bass and Wilkie 1973). By this, they mean the consumer views of the different capabilities and historical reputations of countries for particular goods and services. These perceptions influence consumer assessments of attributes such as quality, style and taste, and interpretation of meaning and value that shapes their purchasing decisions (Phau and Prendergast 2000). Importantly, these geographical associations and reputations tend to be sticky, slow changing and, once accumulated, can become difficult to change or dislodge. As Harvey Molotch (2002: 677) puts it, ‘perfume should come from Paris not Peoria, watches from Geneva not Gdansk’. Such geographical associations are powerful in the ways in which they create – and potentially destroy – meaning and value through what they explicitly demonstrate or imply for specific goods and services commodities in particular spatial and temporal market contexts.

## The origins of brands and branding

Historically, goods and later services commodities bore marks or brands as means of distinction from competitors and signs of quality and reliability (Room 1998). Artisanal producers in ancient Greece and Rome marked their goods such as pottery with distinctive signs to communicate their origin and quality (Lindemann 2010). Individual marks or seals that identified particular craft producers or traders were evident c.300 BC. Merchants initially used generic symbols to communicate the

business in which they traded, including ‘a ham for butchers, a cow for creameries’ (Chevalier and Mazzolovo 2004: 15). Makers’ marks began evolving into brands and became more evident and important during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. This development involved especially craft goods such as furniture, porcelain and tapestries, particularly when travelling for sale beyond face-to-face transactions in localized markets (Room 1998). As David Wengrow (2008: 21) argues, ‘commodity branding’:

has been a long-term feature of human cultural development, acting within multiple ideological and institutional contexts including those of sacred hierarchies and sacrificial economies of a certain scale. What *has* varied significantly over time and space is the nexus of authenticity, quality control, and desire from which brand economies draw their authority; the web of agencies (real or imagined) through which homogeneous goods must be seen to pass in order to be consumed, be they the bodies of the ancestral dead, the gods, heads of state, secular business gurus, media celebrities, or that core fetish of post-modernity, the body of the sovereign consumer citizen in the act of self-fashioning (emphasis in original).

Industrialization and mass production in the nineteenth century underpinned and reinforced the commercial value and meaning of branding, especially for packaged goods: ‘Through industrialization the production of many household items, such as soap, moved from local production to centralized factories. As the distance between buyer and supplier widened the communication of origin and quality became more important’ (Lindemann 2010: 3). The naming of ‘Platt’s *Brand* Raw Oysters’ and the explicit use of the term brand in the advertising of ‘Jackson Square Cigar – America’s Standard 5¢ *Brand*’ as particular kinds of commodities demonstrate the early and explicit incorporation of the term ‘brand’ into product names and their circulation and promotion (Figure 1.2). Mass production and distribution generated economies of scale and lowered production costs, but required mass markets and the communication and demonstration of superior quality to dislodge local consumer preferences for local producers.

The etymological roots of the word brand as a noun lie in several linguistic traditions. These refer commonly to a fire or flame as well as firebrand, piece of burning wood and torch: the Old English of *brand* and *brond*; the Old Norse *brandr*; the Old High German *brant*; the Old Frisian *brond* and the German *brand* (Collins Concise Dictionary Plus 1989). Historically, from around the 1550s, as a noun a brand was defined as an identifying mark to signify ownership burned on livestock as well as criminals and slaves with a branding iron. With the emergence of craft production and later industrialization, brand became defined as a type or kind of good or service from a specific company sold under a particular name, often referred to as its ‘brand name’ and encapsulating a particular design, identity and/or image. As a verb, from the 1400s, to brand meant to mark, to cauterize – often wounds – and to stigmatize typically criminals and slaves. From the 1580s, the meaning of the verb evolved to refer to the marking of property and ownership.



**Figure 1.2** 'Platt's Brand Raw Oysters' and 'Jackson Square Cigar – America's Standard 5¢ Brand'. Source: Historical images from Baltimore Museum of Industry.

Branding emerged as a process that tries to articulate, integrate and enhance the attributes embodied and connected in brands in meaningful and valuable ways. Jan Lindemann (2010: 3) describes how:

Although the initial purpose of branding was to demonstrate the origin of an animal it quickly grew into a means of differentiation. Over time a farmer would establish a certain reputation for the quality of his cattle expressed by the branded mark on the animal. This enabled buyers quickly to assess the quality of the cattle and the price they were willing to pay for it.

Branding developed rapidly to become part of connecting meaning and value through associations across a wider range of goods and services. Branding has underpinned the process of brand extension by actors into certain spatial and temporal market settings. Examples include Italian fashion house Prada's excursion into the mobile phone business with LG, and UK supermarket Tesco's development of Tesco Bank financial services (Figure 1.3). In the era of industrialization and mass production and consumption, branding sat within Raymond Williams' (1980: 184) broader definition of advertising as 'a highly organized and professional system of magical inducements and satisfactions, functionally very similar to magical systems in simpler societies, but rather strangely co-existent with a highly developed scientific technology'.



# TESCO Bank

**Figure 1.3** Brand extension: Prada and LG mobile phone and Tesco Bank financial services. Source: Prada SA; Tesco Bank.

## The rise of brands and branding

In the transition from a producer to a consumer-dominated economy, society, culture, ecology and polity (Bauman 2007), the brands and branding of goods and services commodities have risen to prominence in dramatic fashion. Brands and branding have proliferated. In the United Kingdom alone, the number of brands has risen from an estimated 2 million in 1997 to over 8 million in 2011 in a marketing context in which ‘80% of categories are seen as increasingly homogenous’; amidst the proliferation of media channels in the digital era consumers are being ‘bombarded with up to 5,000 marketing messages every day’ (Noble 2011: 29). Brands were traditionally treated in accounting as ‘goodwill’: the difference between the purchase price of a business and the book value of its assets (Lindemann 2010). Brands have now increased sufficiently in importance to become explicitly recognized as economic entities necessitating calculation of their financial value and incorporation into corporate accounts. As Jan Lindemann (2010: 5) explains:

In financial terms, the brand constitutes an intangible asset that provides its owners with an identifiable and ownable cash flow over the time of its useful economic life. This can span more than 100 years as evidenced by brands such Coca-Cola, Nokia, and Goldman Sachs. The brand is an economic asset that creates cash flows on a stand-alone basis (e.g. licensing) or integrated with other tangible and intangible assets. The mental impact of branding is only economically relevant if it results in a positive financial return

**Table 1.1** Brand valuation methodologies, 2009 (\$m)

<i>Brand</i>	<i>Business Week Interbrand</i>	<i>Milward Brown</i>	<i>Brand finance</i>	<i>Brand value average</i>	<i>% of market capital</i>
Coca-Cola	68 734	67 625	32 728	56 362	49
IBM	60 211	66 662	31 530	52 801	34
GE	47 777	59 793	26 654	44 741	30
Nokia	34 864	35 163	19 889	29 972	74
Apple	15 433	63 113	13 648	30 731	21
McDonald's	32 275	66 575	200 003	39 618	65
HSBC	10 510	19 079	25 364	18 318	17
American Express	14 971	14 963	9944	13 293	37
Google	31 980	100 039	29 261	53 760	38
Nike	13 179	11 999	14 583	13 254	48

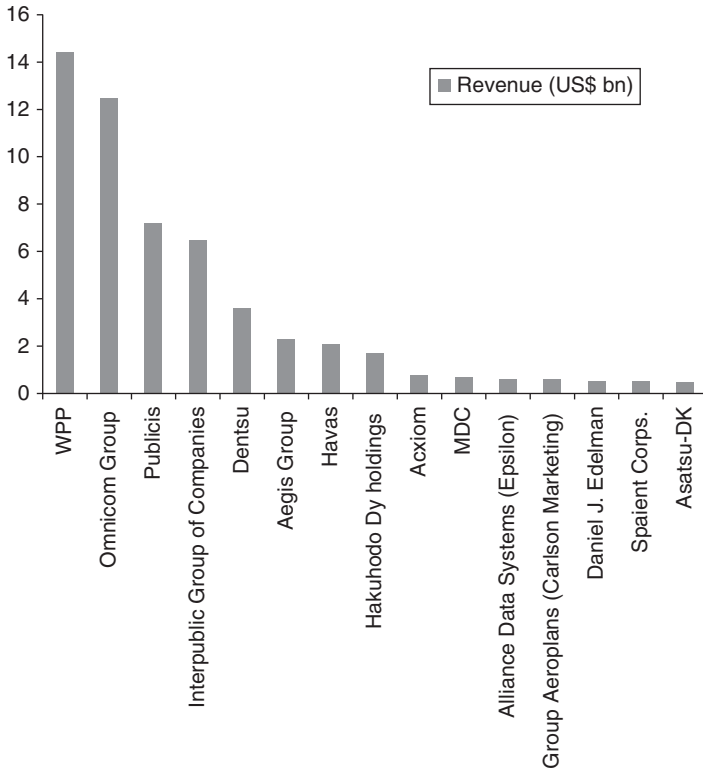
Note: "Nominal prices.

Source: Adapted from Lindemann (2010: 10).

for the user or owner of the brand that outstrips the investments into the brand. The impact of brands on shareholder value is substantial and can amount up to 80 per cent of shareholder value.

In acquisition, merger and takeover activities, the difference between the purchase price of the company and the value of its material or tangible assets has been attributed to the intangible asset of the brand (Lindemann 2010). Brands and branding have become critical sources of often enduring economic meaning and value, integral to shaping the agency of actors involved in corporate and industrial strategies internationally.

Amidst competition amongst consultancies offering proprietary methodologies, brands are now valued and ranked. Specific techniques such as Interbrand's 'Best Global Brand', Millward Brown's 'Brand Dynamics/BrandZ', Brand Finance's 'Brand Valuation' and Young and Rubicam's 'BrandAsset Evaluator' attribute different values to particular brands (Table 1.1) (Lindemann 2010). Derided as the 'professional persuaders' in Vance Packard's (1980: 31) classic book, media holding companies providing assorted advertising, branding and media planning services are now amongst the world's largest companies. Market leader the WPP group grossed over \$14 billion in sales revenues in 2010 (Figure 1.4) (see Faulconbridge *et al.* 2011). As the media landscape has fragmented, splintered and proliferated across emergent technologies and multiple channels (e.g. billboard, on-line, print, radio, social media, TV), media planning companies working with brand owners and managers to place and position their brands have grown in importance, size and value (Kornberger 2010). While it is difficult accurately to count the complete volume and value of activity in the world of brands and branding, Liz Moor's (2008: 413) analysis concludes that 'branding is an increasingly significant component of the design



**Figure 1.4** Global advertising agencies by revenue (US\$bn), 2010. Source: Calculated from AdAge data. Note: “Nominal prices.”

industry in Britain, while design itself is one of the largest sectors within the “creative industries”. Liz Moor (2008: 415, emphasis in original) further notes how ‘Part of what distinguishes branding from advertising is its extended spatial scope and broad conception of the potential *media* for commercial communication’ such that ‘corporate identity and branding consultancies had finally come close to realizing James Pilditch’s original aspiration of becoming not simply an adjunct of advertising, but rather “the new total”’.

The dramatic rise, pervasiveness and importance of brands and branding in contemporary economy, society, culture, ecology and polity has been widely recognized. Martin Kornberger (2010: xi) interprets the emergence of a ‘brand society’ wherein brands as ‘ready-made identities’ are ‘so mashed up with our social world that they have become a powerful life-shaping force’. He goes on to claim that brands may be ‘the most ubiquitous and pervasive cultural form in our society’ that are ‘rapidly becoming one of the most powerful of the phenomena transforming the way we manage organizations and live our lives’ (Kornberger 2010: xii, 23). Adam

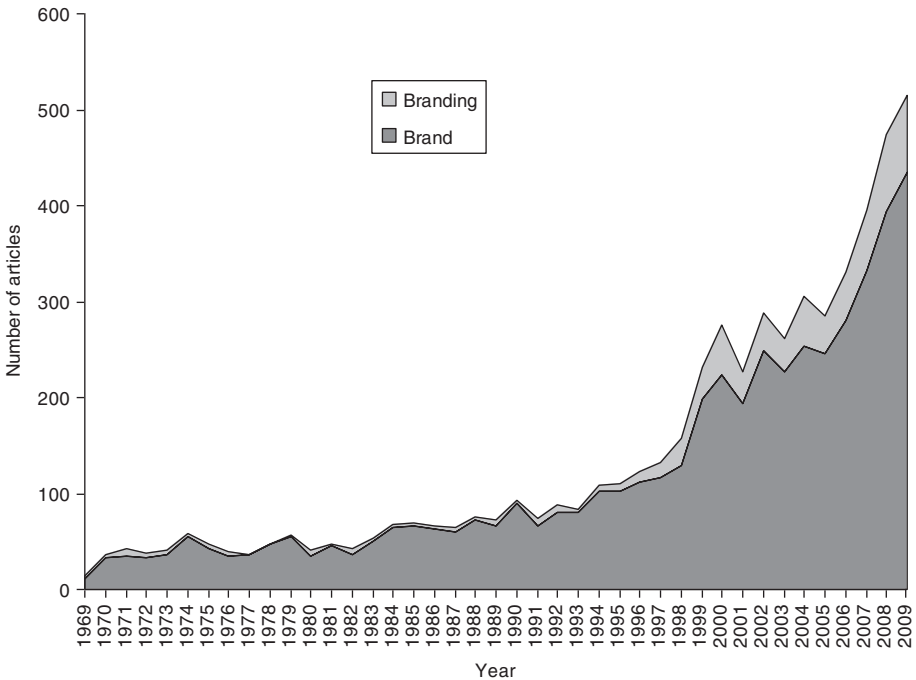
Arvidsson (2005: 236) too interprets ‘a well nigh all-encompassing brand space’. Søren Askegaard (2006: 93) even argues that:

in the face of growing competition in global markets and rising costs and clutter in mass-media advertising, leading to demands for efficiency, integrated communication and a search for alternative communication vehicles, the presence and importance of brands has arguably never been greater globally.

For practitioners working in the world of brands and branding, ‘Brand is much more than a name or a logo. Brand is everything, and everything is brand’ (Pallota 2011: 1) and ‘there is no such thing as a world without brands’ (Chevalier and Mazzolovo 2004: 3). Brand gurus, such as Wally Olins (2003: 7), see ‘that what marketing, branding and all the rest of it are about is persuading, seducing and attempting to manipulate people into buying products and services. In companies that seduce, the brand is the focus of corporate life. Branding is everything.’ For Naomi Klein (2000: 196) in her influential and popular political-economic critique, *No Logo*, brand consultancies have become the new ‘brand factories, hammering out what is of true value: the idea, the lifestyle, the attitude. Brand builders are the new primary producers in our so-called knowledge economy.’ In academic social-scientific accounts, brands are now seen to constitute ‘a central feature of contemporary economic life’ (Lury 2004: 27), branding is a ‘core activity of capitalism’ (Holt 2006a: 300), and their prevalence and importance in shaping the organization and dynamics of the economy in space and time signals ‘a major change in the character of contemporary accumulation’ (Hudson 2005: 68). Given such claims and views of the role and importance of brands and branding in economy, society, culture, polity and ecology, critical study of their geographies is overdue.

## The missing geographies of brands and branding

Despite their dramatic rise, pervasiveness and importance, the ways in which the geographies of space and place are inescapably intertwined with brands and branding have been unevenly recognized and under-investigated. There are at least several reasons for this relative neglect. First, the field of brands and branding is longstanding but recently fashionable and increasingly crowded in the academic, practitioner and popular literatures. Despite differences in meaning and usage, a simple count of articles with ‘brand’ and/or ‘branding’ in their title published between 1969 and 2009 demonstrates the dramatic growth in academic research since the late 1990s (Figure 1.5). This research effort has proceeded across numerous disciplines including architecture (e.g. Klingman 2007), business studies (e.g. Buzzell *et al.* 1994), economics (e.g. Casson 1994), economic history (e.g. da Silva Lopes and Duguid 2010), geography (e.g. Pike 2011b), international relations (e.g. Anholt 2006), marketing (e.g. de Chernatony 2010; Holt 2006a), communication and media studies (e.g. Aronczyk and Powers 2010; Aronczyk 2013), planning (e.g. Ashworth and Voogd 1990), political science



**Figure 1.5** Number of articles with 'brand' and/or 'branding' in their title, 1969–2009. Source: Calculated from ISI Web of Knowledge data.

(e.g. van Ham 2008), tourism studies (e.g. Hankinson 2004), sociology (e.g. Arvidsson 2006; Lury 2004) and urban studies (e.g. Greenberg 2010; Hannigan 2004).

Echoing the importance of what Nigel Thrift (2005) termed the cultural circuit of capital and the soft infrastructure of knowledge creation and circulation, the work on brands and branding is undertaken too by a burgeoning industry generating a multitude of prescriptive guides and analytical frameworks from gurus and practitioners (e.g. Anholt 2006; Hart and Murphy 1998; Olins 2003) as well as academics who also provide services as consultants (e.g. de Chernatony 2010; Kapferer 2005). Texts range from influential and multi-edition analyses (e.g. David Aaker's (1996) *Building Strong Brands*) through current or former practitioner reflections (e.g. Saatchi and Saatchi's Kevin Roberts' (2005) *Lovemarks*) to more populist business advice accounts (e.g. Al and Laura Ries' (1998) *The 22 Immutable Laws of Branding*) and even self-help-style manuals (e.g. Tom Peters' (1999) *The Brand You 50*). Books about brands and branding have proven popular and regularly feature amongst the best-selling business books (Table 1.2).

International consultancy groups – such as Brand Finance, Futurebrand, Interbrand, Landor, Place Branding, Saffron and Wolff Olins – are also active knowledge producers. Their businesses focus upon developing and communicating proprietary branded services such as strategic advice and valuation methodologies, contact networks and

**Table 1.2** Top five marketing books on branding, 2012

Title	Author(s)
1. <i>Emotional Branding: The New Paradigm for Connecting Brands to People</i>	Marc Gobé
2. <i>The 22 Immutable Laws of Branding</i>	Al and Laura Ries
3. <i>Unleashing the IdeaVirus</i>	Seth Godin
4. <i>Experiential Marketing: How to Get Customers to Sense, Feel, Think, Act, and Relate to Your Company and Brands</i>	Berndt H. Schmitt
5. <i>Building Strong Brands</i>	David A. Aaker

Source: Top 5 Marketing Books on Branding, <http://marketing.about.com/od/brandstrategy/tp/top5branding.htm>, accessed 14 November 2014.

commentary and analysis of the world of brands and branding (Aronczyk 2013; Moor 2008). As André Spicer (2010: 1736) points out:

a remarkable amount of collective cognitive effort is committed to ruminating about brands. ... There are a lot of people lurking in the lofts of our creative cities who devote their days to thinking about brands. The postmodern workforce is now glutted with brand workers who do everything from devising clever advertising campaigns to designing packaging or writing service scripts to be mouthed by bored teenagers working in a mall somewhere in nowhere-ville.

Specialized community building, networking events and media channels have blossomed too, including global conferences, web sites and community blogs organized by networks including *Brand Channel* and *Brand Republic*. Brands and branding are covered regularly in the wider business and financial press as well such as *Business Week's* annual Top 100 Global Brands ranking produced jointly with Interbrand, *The Economist's* (2009) edited collection on brands and branding and its periodic articles, surveys and futures pieces, and *The Financial Times* annual Global Brands Survey.

The world of brands and branding is, then, 'a young fledgling field ... still in the making, on the move, influenced by agencies and consultancies as much as by scholarship and research. The boundary between truth, half-knowledge, common sense and sales talk is often hard to draw' (Kornberger 2010: 5). The increased production of knowledge about brands and branding can be divided between two broad, sometimes overlapping, camps. In one, exponents are focused on prescriptive work concerned with developing specific definitions, frameworks and methodologies for brands and branding, and advising commercial practitioners how to improve their effectiveness and impact. In the other, protagonists are engaged in more reflective and sometimes critical studies seeking to conceptualize, theorize and question the specific and wider purpose, value and effects of brands and branding. The diversity and variety in the approaches, purposes, sources and ways of thinking about brands and branding in these two broad camps have fostered only limited, partial and fragmented engagement with their geographies.

Second, the ways in which actors conceive of and use brands and branding have become more sophisticated in their interrelationships with goods and services commodities, complicating the task of interpreting their geographies. The traditional 'social engineering' paradigm in marketing from the 1950s has fragmented and been replaced by the growing sophistication and variety of branding strategies of brand owners and specialized consultants (Arvidsson 2006; Holt 2004). The initial 'product-plus-brand' approach has evolved into a wider and more holistic notion of 'brand-as-concept' (de Chernatony and McDonald 1998). In this perspective, actors frame brands as 'the tools used to detach "things" from the limited functionality of products and make them the engine of an endless desire for self-actualization and lifestyle' (Kornberger 2010: 9). Branding practices have been extended and deepened beyond specific products to encompass wider and interconnected ranges of individual goods and services brands. Actors have sought to appropriate value through the construction of meanings in brands. This technique is an attempt to forge longer lasting relationships to lifestyles and social identities that appeal to sophisticated, aesthetically aware and reflexive consumers, especially from affluent and elite social groups (Kornberger 2010; Urry 1995). This rise and intensification of branding during the 1990s heralded a closer interrelationship with brands because:

Almost all accounts produced at this time saw brands as incorporating far more than simply a name, trademark and associated badge or logo, and assumed instead that brands should embody 'relationships', 'values' and 'feelings', to be expressed through an expanded range of 'executional elements' and 'visual indicators'. (Moor 2007: 6).

Growing saturation, competition and sophistication in especially advanced western consumer markets (Streeck 2012) coupled with the emergence of new forms of market research, consumer behaviour and media prompted the search for deeper and stronger brand attributes. This activity is focused upon constructing especially 'intangible ideals' (Holt 2006a: 299) that were not easily replicable or substitutable because 'differentiation in terms of function is less and less often able to sustain competitive advantage (because it can be imitated so quickly)' (Lury 2004: 28). The worth, visibility and burgeoning demand internationally for 'western' brands in emergent and faster growing economies and their nascent capitalist consumer societies further fuelled the logics of market segmentation, differentiated branding and the encouragement of brand literacy and loyalty (Ermann 2011). Brands and branding now pervade post-socialist transition economies such as Russia as well as emerging economies such as Brazil (Figure 1.6).

Last, brands and branding have extended their social and spatial reach beyond only goods and services commodities in the economy and culture more widely and deeply into society, polity and ecology. The world of brands and branding – to varying and uneven degrees – now encompasses architecture, art, associations, campaigns, charities, cities, clubs, communities, ethical and fair trade, events, exhibitions, festivals, internet domain names, knowledge, localities, nation states, organic food, people, places, political parties, prizes, regions, religions, social movements, spaces, sporting institutions, supranational entities, technologies and universities (Aronczyk and Powers 2010; Moor 2007; Pike 2011b; Van Ham 2001) (Table 1.3). Indeed, in the commercial sphere, it can



Figure 1.6 Brands and branding in Brasilia, Brazil, and Novosibirsk, Russia. Source: Author's images 2012 and 2013.

**Table 1.3** The world of brands and branding

<i>Sphere</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Architecture	Norman Foster, Zaha Hadid
Art	Banksy, Rachel Whiteread
Associations	Girl Guides, Scouts
Campaigns	Occupy, UK Uncut
Charities	Oxfam, Red Cross
Cities	Be Berlin, <b>I</b> amsterdam
Clubs	FC Barcelona, Borussia Dortmund
Communities	Coin Street (London), The Eldonians (Liverpool)
Ethical trade	Traidcraft, The Fairtrade Foundation
Events	Olympics, Tour de France
Exhibitions	The Turner Prize, Future Generation Art Prize
Festivals	Glastonbury, Venice Film Festival
Internet domain names	Amazon.com, Patagonia.com
Knowledge	Clusters, Creative Class
Localities	The City of London, Wall Street
Nation states	Cool Britannia, Brand Singapore
Organic food	Organix, Whole Foods Market
People	Beyoncé, Brand Beckham
Political parties	New Labour, Lega Nord
Prizes	Nobel, Oscars
Regions	Catalonia, Third Italy
Religions	Catholicism, Scientology
Universities	Harvard University, Shanghai Jiao Tong University
Social movements	The WOMBLES, Indignados
Spaces	Motor Sport Valley, Silicon Valley
Sporting institutions	Boston Celtics, LA Lakers
Supranational entities	International Monetary Fund (IMF), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Technologies	Microsoft Windows©, SAP©

at times appear ‘as if there is hardly any market arena, not even a niche, that has been left uncolonized by branding processes’ (Goldman and Papsen 2006: 328). Brands and branding have spread and pervaded beyond the market as branded commercial interests and their logos touch and even saturate realms of economic, social, cultural, political and ecological life. Brands and branding generate powerful memes capable of transmitting ideas, practices and symbols globally. In one geographical imagination, the United States of America can be mapped by each state’s most famous brands (Figure 1.7). Michel Chevalier and Gérald Mazzalovo (2004: 26) argue that:

it shouldn’t be surprising, in a society characterized by exponential growth of communication in all its forms and contents, that brands should be at the heart of contemporary



**Figure 1.7** 'The Corporate States of America'. Source: Steve Lovelace.

life. They guide the purchases we make, influence our judgements about products and persons, and force us to position ourselves in relation to the values (or counter-values, or the absence of values) they communicate.

Digitization and media pluralization have deepened, widened and accelerated such processes. In the burgeoning software applications market, a popular app is called 'Logos Quiz' in which players are tested on how many brands they can recognize from incomplete brand logo images. 'Logos Quiz' ranked 67th on the top list of Apps and formerly occupied first position 3 months after its initial release.

In the polity, brands and their branded logos have become the foci for political dissent and resistance in relation to specific high profile brands and wider consumer society. Popular accounts agitating and articulating this agenda include Naomi Klein's (2000) *No Logo*, the 'culture jamming' of Kalle Lasn's *Adbusters* (2012) and its 'meme wars', and graffiti artist Banksy's 'brandalism' (Gough 2012). Even language and forms of communication in our private and public discourse that provide ordering devices to shape social thought and action in powerful ways have been infiltrated by brands and branding (see O'Neill 2011). Martin Kornberger (2010: 192) even asserts that 'lifestyle is our grammar, brands our alphabet'. Particular branded goods and services commodities have become adjectives (e.g. something is described using the food brand name 'Marmite' to mean people will either love it or hate it), nouns (e.g. the name given to something is synonymous with a brand name such as

‘Rolls Royce’ to convey something of the highest quality), verbs (e.g. an internet search becomes ‘to Google’) and metonyms (e.g. where a particular brand name becomes the descriptor and figure of speech for whole product categories such as Aspirin, Post-It and Tipp-ex). For brand owners, achieving such a place deep in the ‘social lexicon’ is something to which to aspire (Rigby 2012: 1).

The multi-faceted, pervasive and – it is argued here – *inescapably* spatial nature of brands and branding lie at the heart of the task of interpreting their geographies. Brands and branding intersect economic, social, cultural, ecological and political worlds. They are simultaneously: ‘economic’ as branded goods and services commodities in markets; ‘social’ as collectively produced, circulated and consumed objects; ‘cultural’ as entities providing meanings and identities; ‘ecological’ as material transformations, uses of nature and protective marks of assurance; and, ‘political’ as regulated intellectual properties, traded financial assets and contested symbols (Pike 2009a). Despite attracting growing attention across academic disciplines and propelling the burgeoning output in publications, the dramatic rise, pervasiveness and reach of brands and branding have made it difficult for research and analysis to keep pace.

Although a literature is emerging (Cook and Harrison 2003; Edensor and Kothari 2006; Jackson *et al.* 2007; Lewis *et al.* 2008; Pike 2009a, 2009b, 2011a, 2011b, 2013; Power and Hauge 2008; Power and Jansson 2011; Tokatli 2012a, 2013), the *geographies* of brands and branding have been relatively neglected. They are under-researched and lack conceptualization and theorization, analytical and methodological approaches, and a cumulative and substantive body of empirical research. Economic geography, for example, has ‘consistently undervalued brands as an area of study’ and ‘many of our theories and accounts stop abruptly as the products leave the factory gates’ (Power and Hauge 2008: 123, 139). Brands and branding geographies are overdue critical enquiry. This research need is recognized in marketing because, first, its focus has been shifting from ‘Country of origin’ to ‘Country of origin of *brand*’ (Phau and Prendergast 2000: 159, emphasis added). Second, the now well-established and ‘ever growing use of origin identifiers by companies in marketing their products’ (Papadopoulos 1993: 10) has been afforded more attention. Last, studies have sought to understand how and why consumers are becoming ‘more interested in the origin of product ingredients and demand greater transparency over supply chain issues’ (Beverland 2009: 189). Actors involved in brands and branding are deploying increasingly sophisticated strategies, frameworks, techniques and practices, drawing upon geographical associations to differentiate the meaning and value of goods and services commodities. Connections to spaces and places are being made to summon up distinctive and commercially beneficial attributes such as authenticity, quality, durability, style and cool in specific market settings.

## The aims and organization of the book

Engaging the *inescapable* yet neglected geographies of brands and branding, this book aims to understand and explain what such geographical associations are, how and where they work, who creates and articulates them and what they mean for people

and places. The central idea of origination is introduced and conceptualized. Origination means the attempts by actors – producers, circulators, consumers and regulators inter-related in spatial circuits – to construct geographical associations for goods and services commodities. Such geographical associations are used to connote, suggest and/or appeal to particular spatial references. They form part of the efforts of actors to create, cohere and stabilize meaning and value in specific brands and their branding in particular spatial and temporal market contexts. In the midst of more thoroughly branded contemporary capitalism, origination connects to what Karl Marx (1976: 165) interpreted as the attribution of mystical powers to the commodity form of material objects in the ‘commodity fetish’. The argument addresses David Harvey’s (1990: 422) call to ‘get behind the veil, the fetishism of the market and the commodity, in order to tell the full story of social reproduction’. And it engages the ‘de-fetishization’ critique (e.g. Barnett *et al.* 2005). The conceptualization and theorization of origination offers a means of lifting what Miriam Greenberg (2008: 31) calls the ‘mystical veils’ woven around goods and services commodities by the increasingly advanced and sophisticated activities of actors for brands and branding. Their strategies, techniques and practices seek carefully to create, manage, rework and sometimes obscure the provenance of where goods are made and/or services are delivered from and – crucially – the economic, social, political, cultural and ecological conditions in which and where they are organized.

*Origination* makes its contributions in directly addressing the relative lack of research on the geographies of brands and branding. It provides the conceptualization and theorization capable of engaging the spatial dimensions of the brands and branding of goods and services commodities in more critical and geographically sensitive ways. The argument moves on from the narrow and simplistic interpretations of brands as carriers of homogeneity and uniformity in globalization and the limited geographies of the national frame of ‘Country of Origin’. *Origination* seeks to advance geographical theory and stimulate work on the geographies of brands and branding in other disciplines in social science by forging and demonstrating the worth of fresh linkages at the intersection of political *and* cultural economy approaches to understanding and explaining spatial circuits of meaning and value. The distinctive contribution is the new theory of origination. It foregrounds and illuminates the roles of a broader range of actors including circulators and regulators rather than just the producers and consumers that constitute the focus of much contemporary work on brands and branding. Such actors are interrelated and animated by logics and rationales in spatial circuits. They try to work with geographical associations to create and fix meaning and value in and through branded goods and services commodities and their branding in particular market times and spaces.

Chapter 2 establishes the conceptual and theoretical foundations of the geographical reading of brands and branding. The argument builds upon the growing recognition but limited and underdeveloped grasp of the spatial aspects of brands and branding in especially marketing and sociology in social science (e.g. Arvidsson 2005; de Chernatony 2010; Holt 2006a). It builds upon and advances the emergent geographical accounts (e.g. Edensor and Kothari 2006; Lewis *et al.* 2008; Power and Hauge 2008). What is meant by brand is defined as an identifiable kind of good and/

or service commodity comprising differentiated characteristics. Branding is conceived as making meaning from the articulation and communication of the brand's attributes. The inescapable geographical connections and connotations of brands and branding are explained. Brands and branding are understood as geographically differentiated in their manifestation and circulation and interrelated with spatially uneven development. The concept of geographical association is introduced. It is defined as the characteristic elements – material, symbolic, discursive, visual – of the identifiable branded commodity and branding process that connect and/or connote particular 'geographical imaginaries' (Jackson 2002: 3). Differentiated meaning and value are created, circulated and valorized in spatial circuits through the agency of interrelated actors: producers, circulators, consumers and regulators. Each tries selectively to construct, cohere and stabilize geographical associations in commodity brands and their branding in commercially valuable and meaningful ways for particular spatial and temporal market settings.

Chapter 3 defines and explains what is meant by origination: how and why actors try to construct geographical associations in branded commodities and their branding in efforts to create, cohere and stabilize meaning and value for particular goods and services in the times and spaces of specific markets. Geographical origin(s) and provenance are discussed before questioning the limited geographies of 'Country of Origin' research and its recent transitions to incorporate 'Country of Origin of Brand' (Phau and Prendergast 2000) and a wider range of geographies. Rather than referring literally to any essential primary source or genuine form from which others are derived, origination is variegated. Actors attempt to originate branded commodities. They deploy strategies, frameworks, techniques and practices of branding to articulate and communicate meaningful and valuable geographical associations: producing, circulating, consuming and regulating 'geographical imaginaries' (Jackson 2002: 3) in diverse and varied ways. But such actors constitute and are compelled by rationales of accumulation, competition, differentiation and innovation. Such logics continually disrupt their spatial and temporal fixes of geographical associations, risking the collapse of the commercial appeal, coherence and competitiveness of their branded goods and services commodities in specific market times and spaces. Examples from clothing and tele-mediated services are used to explain how the agency of actors unfolds and territorial and relational originations are deployed. Except perhaps when wholly new market entrants, brands are not just empty receptacles nor is branding unscripted narrative through which actors can simply invent, write and insert originated content afresh. Brands and their branding are inescapably imbued by meanings and values in particular contexts. They are shaped by their specific histories and geographies that mark and colour their originations. Such legacies and traditions circumscribe the scope of actors' agency to varying degrees and in different ways. The methodology and analytical framework situates Douglas Holt's (2006b) historical-sociological branding genealogies in geographical context and builds upon Michael Watts' (2005: 534) commodity 'lives' approach. The socio-spatial biographies method enables analysis of origination across a range of interrelated and shifting territorial scales *and* relational networks in the geographies of the brands and branding. The extended case analyses that follow illuminate, ground and test the value of origination as a conceptual and

theoretical framework in support of its wider explanatory claims. The discussion is about more than just documenting the particular and contingent detail of the geographies of specific branded commodities and their branding.

Chapter 4 examines the actors involved in constructing the ‘local’ geographical associations deployed in attempts to create and cohere meaning and value in the brand and branding of Newcastle Brown Ale (NBA). Demonstrating the value of socio-spatial biography method, the geo-historical origination of the brand lies in the construction of a particular ‘local’ drawn from the city of Newcastle upon Tyne and north east region of England. The brand producer, circulators, consumers and regulators created and appropriated meaning and value from its traditions and values in its urban and regional commercial heartland and subsequent national distribution in the UK. The regulatory device of the European Union Protected Geographical Indication was even used to fix its spatial attachment to the city of Newcastle upon Tyne. The distinctive ‘local’ origination proved only a temporary fix of meaning and value in the north east and UK. It was disrupted by shifts and segmentation in circulation and consumption in the alcoholic drinks market, shaped by consolidating brewing and outlet ownership, aggressive and targeted brand promotion, and innovation in new branded commodities. The brand management’s search for new markets articulated with a growing market segment in America. NBA’s management and importers changed its origination to the ‘national’ scale. It was reframed as ‘Imported from England’ to construct a premium meaning and value for its new college-educated, typically male and affluent younger consumers. Substantial sales growth in America raised questions about where NBA should be produced given its need for an ‘imported’ branding. Origination explains how what appear to be strong – and at times articulated by certain actors as intrinsic – geographical associations created in brands to particular places at specific scales can be temporary and lose their commercial meaning and value over time and space. Actors tried to reconstruct the origination of brands and their branding in new spatial and temporal market contexts through subtly different geographical associations, incorporating different scales and articulating them in new spatial circuits of meaning and value.

Chapter 5 examines efforts by actors involved in the brand and branding of Burberry to construct a national origination based upon the geographical imaginary of ‘Britishness’ to create and evoke meaning and value in the international fashion business. Burberry’s specific socio-spatial history afforded pliable sources of discursive, material and symbolic assets valued by consumers and protected by regulators. These resources have enabled the brand owner, designers and managers to construct meaningful and valuable geographical associations based upon characteristic attributes of authenticity, quality and tradition. A particular version of ‘Britishness’ propelled Burberry’s steady post-war growth but was undermined by its narrow product range, conservative consumers and weakly controlled circulation and regulation. Revitalizing the origination of the brand’s ‘Britishness’ has been integral to Burberry’s commercial modernization. The brand producers and circulators have successfully reworked its heritage assets and reconnected with emergent consumer tastes. This origination fix remains temporary in the context of internationalization, shifting markets and sub-cultural appropriation. Origination demonstrates that even as the brand’s material

geographical associations of production were being internationalized by its owners and managers *beyond* the specific national territory of Britain, the creative design, styling, detailing and advertising remain explicitly originated *in* and *with* the national frame of Britain and Britishness. As integral constituents of its meaning and value, Burberry's origination is produced, circulated, consumed and regulated in particular market times and spaces worldwide seemingly independent of the brand's material connections to particular production locations.

Chapter 6 examines the 'global' origination of Apple as an internationally pervasive, commercially successful and hugely influential brand. While some interpret Apple as a 'global brand' (Hollis 2010: 25), origination explains how the production, circulation, consumption and regulation of the 'global' in and through the brand and its branding are shaped by and constructed through meaningful and valuable geographical associations situated in the specific location of Silicon Valley – whether conceived of as a local, sub-regional or regional scale entity. Characteristic attributes and the reputation of the particular place of Cupertino, Santa Clara County, California in the heart of Silicon Valley provided discursive, material, symbolic and visual resources for actors' efforts to construct, cohere and stabilize Apple's meaning and value in specific market settings internationally. The brand's early growth was strongly geographically associated with the specific national territory of America. Disruption by competition, innovation and internationalization left Apple floundering commercially as its distinctive meaning and value were undermined. Renewal of the brand's characteristic and differentiated attributes – originated in the geographical associations of Silicon Valley – was undertaken following the return of its co-founder Steve Jobs in the mid-1990s. Commercial revitalization and global articulation of the brand was effected by the brand producer and circulators' new strategy, products and services, design, and value chain reorganization on a more internationalized basis. In the context of regulatory rules on country of origin and product labelling, the participant actors have had to experiment with origination more explicitly to reflect the spatial reorganization and internationalization of its functional operations. The '*Designed by Apple in California. Assembled in China*' origination enables Apple to sustain the meaning and value of its branded products and services, and reap the wide profit margins from its differentiated meaning and value, premium price *and* cost efficient production. Such origination remains a spatial and temporal fix, however, given ongoing competition, financialization, innovation and internationalization as well as regulatory rivalry over ownership and control of IPR, political and popular critique, and anti-brand and anti-Apple sentiment. Although an internationally prominent, influential and high profile brand across the world, the origination of Apple by the actors involved is not only and simply 'global'. Instead of being somehow 'placeless' and having no spatial connections in its apparent global ubiquity, origination of the brand's meaning and value in specific geographical associations in Silicon Valley have underpinned its most commercially successful periods of growth.

Chapter 7 examines origination and its relationships to the development of territories. Origination of brands and branding by the participant actors shapes geographical associations that pattern where specific economic activities take place. Origination influences the geographies of economy in the locations of investments, jobs, supply

contracts for goods and services commodities, distribution networks, retail outlets, regulatory approvals and so forth across the economic landscape. Against a background of inter-territorial competition and efforts by actors to brand spaces and places, geographical associations have become a focus of attempts by actors involved in territorial development to capture the benefits of output, investment and jobs as well as capability and reputation in the wider global value chains. Origination can contribute positively to indigenous, endogenous and/or exogenous development strategies, demonstrated in the cases of Harris Tweed, Scotland, and the regional government in Castilla La Mancha, Spain. Limitations of especially strong originations in brands and branding are explained in the problems of overspecialization, dependency and lock-in, exemplified by Eastman Kodak, Rochester, New York State and – demonstrating the ambiguous nature of brands and branding in territorial development – Harris Tweed, Scotland.

Chapter 8 draws out the argument and contributions of *Origination* in providing a more sophisticated understanding and explanation of the geographies of commodity brands and branding. Origination illuminates where goods and services are from and why. It explains how actors in spatial circuits try to construct and articulate geographical associations in brands and branding to particular spaces and places. These activities are attempts to create, cohere, stabilize and appropriate meaning and value in spatial and temporal market contexts. The main contributions of *Origination* are, first, defining and conceptualizing geographical associations various kinds, extents and characters as integral to the geographies of brands and branding. Actors in spatial circuits utilize geographical associations in their efforts to create and fix meaning and value in branded goods and services commodities in the times and spaces of particular markets.

Second, geographical associations are inherently unstable and subject to disruption by the rationales of accumulation, competition, differentiation and innovation that relate and compel actors in spatial circuits of production, circulation, consumption and regulation. Brands and their branding can only ever provide temporary and conditional coherence, shape and form to the meaning and value of geographical associations. They are constantly buffeted and troubled in the changing times and spaces of spatial circuits and market contexts. Third, origination demonstrates how social and spatial inequalities are reproduced over time and space as actors seek to create, fix and manage geographical associations in brands and branding in geographically uneven ways. Brand and branding dynamics are underpinned by socio-spatial differentiation. Actors perpetuate and, in turn, are propelled by processes of accumulation, competition, differentiation and innovation to seek out, create, exploit and (re)produce economic and social disparities and inequalities over space and time. Countering the ‘de-fetishization’ critique, origination provides a means of lifting the ‘mystical veils’ (Greenberg 2008: 31) woven by brand and branding actors in spatial circuits.

Fourth, socio-spatial biography of branded goods and services commodities and their branding provides a methodological and analytical approach to the empirical research of origination. This framework identifies and engages the actors involved in spatial circuits and their attempts to deploy geographical associations to construct and cohere meaning and value in brands and branding in shifting spatial and temporal

market settings. Fifth, origination furthers the intersection between political and cultural economy approaches within geography and broader social science. Origination enables closer integration of political economic interpretations of the dynamics and rationales of the creation, distribution and appropriation of economic value with accounts emphasizing the cultural construction of meaning and identity. Origination demonstrates how actors in spatial circuits work the meaning and value of geographical associations in goods and services commodities brands and their branding in territorial scales *and* relational networks. Last, origination encourages reflection upon the critical and normative issues in its politics. Origination focuses attention upon the limits of brands and branding and the question of ‘what kind of brands and branding and for whom?’ It addresses whether and how branded goods and services commodities could be geographically associated in more progressive and developmental ways for people and places by the actors involved. Origination seeks to promote dialogue and deliberation about brands and branding in territorial development in the context of material challenges to existing economic, social, cultural, political and ecological arrangements from climate change, financialization, resource shortages and social inequality.