The 4th Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association

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Welcome from the IPBA Founding Chair

Dear delegates,

It is with great pleasure that the International Place Branding Association (IPBA) welcomes you to Volos, Greece. We like to sincerely thank the conference chair, Alex Deffner and his team, the University of Thessaly, particularly its Department for Planning and Regional Development, for their hospitality and all the hard work that they have put into the preparations for this event. As you can see in this “Book of Abstract” the organisers have been able to put together a jam-packed, relevant and interesting programme for you over the coming days. It shows that the IPBA continues to be a strong association to represent the niche community of place branding experts.

We started off in 2016 in London with a very intense programme and 130 delegates. Back then, every contribution was only given 15 minutes for presentation as well as Q&A. Luckily, partly based on delegates’ feedback, we have since (Swansea 2017 and Macao 2018) been able to always slot 20 minutes per contribution in richly filled parallel sessions. However, the local organising team has been struggling this year to fit it all in, which seems to suggest that the IPBA conference continues to attract and strengthen the place branding community. We even have contributions from practitioners from Chengdu, China, this year.

As always, the local organising team and IPBA have collaborated closely to ensure a strong line-up of keynote speakers and social programme as well. We are very much looking forward to this fourth edition.

On behalf of the IPBA board,

Robert Govers

Founding Chairman
Welcome to IPBA, Volos 2019

Dear participants,

On behalf of the Organizing Committee, I would like to welcome you to the 4th Annual Conference of the International Place Branding Association (IPBA), which this year is held at the University of Thessaly, Volos, Greece. In the Department of Planning and Regional Development, established in 1989 and celebrating this year its 30th Anniversary, we are honored to be a part of IPBA’s successful course and we look forward to helping the association’s further success.

Although this is only the 4th Conference in the IPBA series, it has already become a prominent institution in the field of Place Marketing and Branding, due to the success of the previous conferences, a tradition that we plan to reinforce. The response from the academic community and the field practitioners has already been remarkable, confirming the ongoing interest in this particular field, which, although presenting different levels of development in different countries, does not lack international trends and perspectives that need to be explored and discussed.

In this context, we hope that the synergy of the academics and professionals from different countries will lead to a fruitful exchange of experiences, knowledge, and views, further cultivating the scientific dialogue and shedding light on the modern aspects of our growing field.

I wish you all a pleasant stay in our beautiful city, and also to take the best advantage of the opportunities offered by the conference.

Alex Deffner

Prof. of Urban and Leisure Planning

Chair of the Organizing Committee of the 4th Annual Conference of the IPBA

Department of Planning and Regional Development

University of Thessaly, Volos, Greece
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Professor of public diplomacy

DOXIADIS THOMAS
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VEGNUTI ROBERTO
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KEYNOTES

PLACE BRANDING AND PUBLIC DIPLOMACY: THE PARADOX OF REPUTATIONAL SECURITY

CULL NICK
Professor of public diplomacy

Abstract of keynote speech

This talk will look at the relationship between place branding and the struggle to secure what the author has termed Reputational Security: the degree of Security in the world that comes from being understood as of value of the wider global community. Cull points out that some elements of place and nation branding assist in such a project but paradoxically others - especially a focus on a unilateral or idiosyncratic role at the national level - work to undermine Reputational Security. He calls for an approach with renewed attention to issues of human rights and culture as areas of emphasis, and foreground cooperation as a virtue.

This presentation will consider the relationship between place branding and public diplomacy: the ways in which an international actor seeks to advance its foreign policy through engagement with a foreign public. More specifically, it will locate that relationship in the context of the ongoing struggle of actors to secure what the author has termed ‘Reputational Security’: the degree of security in the world that comes from being understood as of value of the wider global community. Implicit in this argument is the idea that the world has shifted in recent years into a more dangerous phase in which boundaries and futures are under threat. The presentation notes that while some elements of place and nation branding can assist in building and preserving Reputational Security, paradoxically others — especially a focus on a unilateral or idiosyncratic role at the national level — can be counterproductive. They work to undermine Reputational Security. The presentation calls for an approach with renewed attention to issues of human rights and culture as areas of emphasis, and foregrounds cooperation as a virtue.
BRANDING LANDSCAPES: LAND, PLACE AND IDENTITY

DOXIADIS THOMAS
Architect, Principal at doxiadis+

Abstract of keynote speech

Both as a natural and as cultural space, it contains and organizes the characteristic elements of many locations (the sights, destinations, buildings, views, leisure areas, agricultural produce etc). Landscape can in itself be a destination and a brand if it is correctly managed and communicated. Certain examples point to the common ground between landscape and the identity of a location, and how this can be mediated through landscape design.

On the hills surrounding the Acropolis, Dimitris Pikionis and his collaborators created in the 1950’s a truly astounding work. It is a system of paths to access the Acropolis and to experience the landscape, set out in such a way that they create a subconscious historical narrative. It is a subtle and crucial addition to the experience of the visitors and to the place identity of Athens. On Antiparos, the historic landscape has been the result of culture and nature interacting over millennia, with agriculture and pasturage the main activities. Tourism is now the dominant economy, destroying the very landscape that it is selling. Developing a different paradigm, doxiadis+ have effectuated a landscape of symbiosis, where new uses meld into instead of replacing what exists. As a result, Antiparos Design Properties has developed a strong and distinctive brand. On Milos, the important ancient city is still mostly unexcavated. Lying under a beautiful landscape of agricultural terraces which developed over millennia, the ancient forms are difficult to make out. doxiadis+ has worked with the Ministry of Culture to plan the Milos Archeological Park, making the layers of the past visible and adding a crucial missing element to the place identity of the island. In all three cases, the landscape is recognized as a valuable component of place identity and handled in a sensitive and creative way to enhance this identity.

Keywords: location branding, destination brand, place making, local identity, natural and cultural landscape, designing for symbiosis, Pikionis Acropolis paths, Antiparos, Milos Archeological Park
CINQUE TERRE, ITALY. A CASE OF PLACE BRANDING: FROM OPPORTUNITY TO PROBLEM FOR TOURISM

VEGNOTI ROBERTO
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Abstract of keynote speech

The subject of the report is the development of the Cinque Terre (meaning “Five Lands”) area, from rural and marginal area to fragile environmental heritage, tourist destination and, lastly, territorial brand recognized worldwide. This development, which is closely linked to tourism, has strongly accelerated over the last few decades, to such an extent that an opportunity could turn into a problem if the phenomenon of overtourism isn’t tackled through new management models. The first part of the speech will focus on the geographical and anthropic factors to better capture the Cinque Terre area, as well as to understand the geographical location and the distinctive elements of this territorial heritage, which in 1997 was recognized by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site and in 1999 as Italian National Park. Afterwards, the highlight will be on the tourist development within the area, from the first settlements and the planning of the network of tourism operators (the Consorzio, meaning the “Association”), to the recent exponential growth, which has shaped this area and the entire region from a social point of view. Data related to the flow of tourists and visitors, and the markets affected by this flow will be discussed. Furthermore, attention will be drawn to the great impact on the economy and on the employment situation within the area and the surrounding region, thanks to which the Cinque Terre area stands out as a tourist destination and as an international brand. Lastly, the focus will be on the current situation in the Cinque Terre area, particularly on the overcrowding and on the critical issues that arose because of the place marketing and place branding strategies pursued, and the aim will be to understand which remedial measure can be adopted in order to restore the sustainable use of the territorial assets and to protect the brand.
Abstract

Problem identification

Country brand and place marketing promise, which is communicated since 1990s, is about wealth and power. Public funding of country branding and place marketing programmes is justified based on the commercial and financial gains a place or a country may achieve through increasing interests from foreign investors, tourists, and international traders. State motivation in country branding is stimulated further with the promise that bringing more wealth to the country does not only strengthen a country’s economy, but will also, eventually, lead to more political power in the world stage. Nation Brand Index, which was established in 2008, followed by many other perceptual indexes as well as those that rank countries based on developmental aspects, stimulate competitiveness among states. This is led country branding to become a tool in politicians campaign for power, directly (e.g. Tony Blair and Cool Britannia in 1997) or indirectly (e.g. Oman Competitiveness). With the focus of practitioners on economic and political gains, limited empirical research was able to examine the impact of country branding on national people in the short and long term. Critical perspective into the practices of country branding is very limited and difficult to investigate.

Purpose

This paper explores practitioners’ awareness and consideration of any potential impact country branding campaigns may have on national peoples’ quality of life and identity from practitioners’ perspective.

Methodology

The research takes Interpretivist approach that benefits from an inductive analysis of qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews with 20 practitioners in country and place branding and marketing, and reflective observations of their campaigns.

Findings
The results of this paper highlight the extent to which the international practitioners in this sample are aware of country and place branding potential impact on national development, and social structure and identity; and their reflective practices of such impact while designing, implementing, and evaluating a place or country branding campaign.

Contribution and further research

The paper stimulates a much needed debate to enhance relevant authorities and practitioners’ insight into the social impact of country and place branding. It also develops the literature understanding of practitioners approach and awareness to potential social impact of their campaigns, and stimulates further research into the implications of country and place branding practices.

Keywords: country branding, nation identity, national development
CITY BRANDING CO-OWNERSHIP: DO EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS LISTEN TO STRATEGIES?

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Abstract

In a globalizing word, cities are under pressure and have to face an increasing competition. Territories are considered as strategic places using public marketing and branding processes. Indeed, city brand strategy defined by internal stakeholders (i.e. managers) can improve attractiveness by affecting the representation of external stakeholders (i.e. residents, companies and visitors). In a broad evolutionary shift, we consider the city brand in a progressive approach, and the city brand co-ownership as a collaborative and participatory process. The gap identified in the literature refers to the differences and the matches between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions. Indeed, the research question of this paper is: how city brand strategy from internal stakeholders is linked with city brand perceptions from external stakeholders?

We opted for an exploratory and qualitative research design with a multiple case study targeting three European metropolises: Amsterdam, Lyon, and Metz. The data collection is twofold, because we confront the city brand strategy defined by the internal stakeholders with the city brand perceptions of the external stakeholders. Indeed, on the one hand, public reports (i.e. secondary data) about the three city brand strategies deal with the goals and values of each city brand. On the other hand, a computer assisted web interview (i.e. primary data) has been addressed to 200 persons representative of the French population to put into perspective the city brand perceptions. Secondary and primary data are analyzed with a thematic content analysis.

We propose a dynamic city brand co-ownership model within the relationship between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions. This model is moderated by structuring factors.

Keywords: City Brand Strategy, Brand Management, Co-ownership, European metropolises

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Introduction

“The local in its myriad of circumstances would be the new frontier of the fight against global change” (Lussault, 2017: 277).

In a globalizing world, cities are under pressure and have to face an increasing competition (Serval, 2015, 2017). Territories are considered as strategic places using public marketing and branding processes. Indeed, city branding can improve attractiveness by affecting the representation of external stakeholders such as the residents, the companies and the visitors (Braun et al., 2013).

The interest of scholars in city branding continues to grow (Dinnie, 2011; Lucarely and Berg, 2011; Kavaratzis et al., 2015), and literature is calling our attention on the worrying situation of city brand management. This is notably due to the creation of city brands rise (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013). Moreover, Green et al. (2016) put into perspective a “broad evolutionary shift” in the literature on city branding, understood as a change in philosophies and assumptions, and propose a progressive approach. Consequently, we are focusing on the complex and uncontrollable characteristics of the city brand (Trueman et al., 2007; Skinner, 2008; Zenker, 2011).

Due to the places’ specificities (Boisen, 2008), place brands are more complex than commercial brands (Anholt, 2010), and refer to “a set of positive, neutral and negative associations” (Boisen et al., 2011: 140) that highly depend on specific contexts. In a cognitive and emotional approach, brand perceptions can be individual, collective or shared, combined directly or indirectly (Adams, 2009). Moreover, geographical representations of places are influencing brand perceptions. In order to create places’ representations and place brands, the role of public authorities is twofold (Boisen et al., 2011). On the one hand, public managers select specific stakeholders they want to cooperate with, and on the other hand, they prioritize some interests above others that the place brand will put into perspective. A set of questions are emerging: how are the goals of a city brand defined by the public managers, understood as the internal stakeholders? How do they choose the targets of a city brand? How is a city brand perceived by the residents, the companies and the visitors, identified as the external stakeholders?

Prior literature has broadly studied the city brand co-ownership by stakeholders living in and/or knowing the city (Hospers, 2010; Boisen et al., 2011; Sevin, 2011). However, there is very little research on the
differences and the matches between the city brand strategy carried by public managers and the perceptions of the residents, the companies and the visitors.

Anchored in a paradigm of reflexive modernity (Giddens, 1987; Beck, 2001), the structuration theory (Giddens, 1994) promotes different types of reactions, which jeopardize or foster a social system. The social system can refer to a city brand co-ownership process, and the different types of reactions can be understood as factors influencing positively or negatively the process.

To fulfill this theoretical gap, the research question raised by this paper is: how city brand strategy from internal stakeholders is linked with city brand perceptions from external stakeholders?

The theoretical goal of this article is to propose a city brand co-ownership model linking the goals and values carried by the city brand strategy with a set of perceptions of the external stakeholder, influenced by positive and negative factors. The managerial goal is to propose an analysis grid of the city brand co-ownership so that public managers can better adapt their objectives, methods and promotion channels according to their targets. To meet these goals, we opt for an empirical investigation based on a qualitative methodology related to three well-known European city brands: I Amsterdam, Only Lyon and Inspire Metz.

The article is structured as follow. The section 1 presents the theoretical background around three key elements: the city branding strategy, the city brand co-ownership and the structuration theory to identify factors influencing the city brand co-ownership process. The section 2 provides the methodological framework that consists in collecting and analyzing data from public rapports dealing with city brand strategies on the one hand, and a representative sample of 200 French respondents on the other hand. The section 3 shed light on our findings which will be discussed in the final section.

1. Theoretical background

The goal of the following paragraphs is threefold: first, we provide a clear definition of city branding putting into perspective the divergent trajectories of scholars (1.1). Secondly, following an assessment perspective, we identify the key dimensions that encompass the city brand co-ownership process in a cognitive and emotional approach.
Finally, the theoretical background sheds light on factors that can jeopardize or foster the city branding co-ownership (1.3).

1.1 A broad evolutionary shift to define city branding

Broadly defined, a city brand refers to “a set of positive, neutral and negative associations” (Boisen et al., 2011: 140) that highly depend on specific contexts. Moreover, “scholars often characterize city brand as simple and preoccupied with logos and slogans” (Green et al., 2016). However, the public brand in general and the city brand in particular, still struggle to be identified as “real” objects of research (Rochette, 2016: 7), as evidenced by the lack of theoretical contributions on the subject.

The territory is not a brand by nature, and it becomes one when a marketing strategy is defined, coupled with a brand effect on specific targets. Through an analysis of the literature on the city brand strategy, Vuignier (2018) defines four elements structuring the city branding strategy: the recognized boundaries of the territory (1), the necessary existence of territorial specific attributes (2) recognized by the external stakeholders (3), and the entity carrying the city brand strategy (4), as shown in the Figure 1.

Figure 1: Four elements defining a city brand strategy

Source: Figure adapted from Vuignier (2018: 15)

First of all, the territory has recognized boundaries, referring to political, legal, geographical and cultural boundaries. More the boundaries are vague, more the message and so the city brand strategy will be diffuse.

Then, the existence of specific attributes for the territory seems essential, because without attributes there is any brand strategy
(Kapferer, 2013). Nevertheless, can all territories be differentiated by specific attributes?

The third elements refers to specific attributes, which must be recognized by the visitors, the residents, and the other external stakeholders (i.e. the other public organizations, the companies and the third sector). Prior literature (Braun et al., 2013; Meyronin, 2015) draws our attention to the fact that the difficulty of the territory is not to have specific attributes, but rather that they are recognized by the internal and external stakeholders.

The last element focuses highlights the fact that the existence and strength of a city brand depends on the entity that defines and implements the city brand strategy (Kapferer, 1997; Wiedmann, 2014). While for private organizations, the company is both the brand, for the city brand, it is usually an *ad hoc* entity that carries the city brand strategy.

Due to these four elements, we decide to focus on the public organization that defines and implements the city brand strategy on the one hand, and on the perceptions of the external stakeholders about this strategy on the other hand. To do so, we opt for a “progressive approach” (Green et al., 2016) of city branding, which first deals with city brand co-creation process by multiple stakeholders (i.e. the residents, the visitors, the companies, etc.). Then, the progressive character refers to the complexity and uncertainty of the city brand, which claims for a collaborative and participatory city brand management. The progressive approach of city branding strategy sheds light on a specific contributing factor: the co-ownership, understood as neither an individual process nor a process from the group belonging to the city.

1.2 A cognitive and emotional approach of city branding co-ownership

“Local governments and other stakeholders may use brands to appeal to different groups and evoke different associations with them, but this is not easy” (Eshuis et al., 2013).

In a cognitive and emotional approach, brand perceptions can be individual, collective or shared, combined directly or indirectly (Adams, 2009). Moreover, geographical representations of places are influencing brand perceptions. In order to create places’ representations and place brands, the role of public authorities is twofold (Boisen et al., 2011). Not only, public actors select specific stakeholders they want to cooperate
with, but also they prioritize some interests above others that the place brand will put into perspective.

In the literature, many obstacles are discussed regarding the city brand process:

- The multiple public and private stakeholders involved (i.e. tourists, residents, companies, museum, etc.) (Green et al., 2016);
- The fragmentation and the lack of coordination related to the new policy field of city branding (Kavaratzis, 2009);
- The lack of a consistent political support (Braun, 2008);
- The particular nature of places (i.e. the four elements exposed just above);
- Due to the public interest, the need to satisfy the greatest number of stakeholders at the risk of losing the meaning of a brand.

To clarify these obstacles, Eshuis et al. (2013) test three major hypothesis about the obstacles within the administration (1), the obstacles relating to political issues (2), and the obstacles dealing with the content of marketing campaigns (3). They conclude that “the classical marketing obstacles have a significant negative effect on perceived results of place branding in terms of attracting target groups, whereas the other two obstacles (political and administrative) do not have significant effects” (Eshuis et al., 2013).

Following the recommendations of Eshuis et al. (2013), we focus on the co-ownership process, and therefore we determine the relationship between the city brand strategy (i.e. the goals and values formulated by the internal stakeholders) and the perceptions of targeted groups (i.e. the external stakeholders).

1.3 A structuration theory to identify factors influencing the city brand co-ownership

Giddens (1994) proposes a new sociological reading of modernity, showing that it is multidimensional and animated by reflexivity (causes become consequences and vice versa). According to this circular vision of the social world, the father of the structuration theory (1987) puts forward the notion of structural duality. The structural dimensions of social systems - binding and enabling - are understood both as the conditions and the results of the actions implemented by the actors. As city brand can be considered as a management tool (Urde, 1994) socially constructed, a city brand can jeopardize or foster the relationship between internal and external stakeholders.
Linked with the concept of reflexive modernity from Beck (2001), modernity is linked to particular risks, which Giddens identifies through seven trends: the globalization of risk in intensity (1), the globalization of risk in the increase in the number of contingent events affecting the inhabitants of the planet (2), the risk arising from the created environment (3), the development of institutionalized risk environments (4), the awareness of risk as risk (5), the spread of risk awareness (6), and awareness of the limits of competence (7). How can each of us adapt to deal with these different types of risks?

Giddens theorizes four possible adaptation reactions to the different types of risks inherent in modernity (1994: 141):

- Pragmatic acceptance (focus on everyday problems);
- Stubborn optimism (optimist on all fronts and in a long run);
- Cynical pessimism (pessimist with a humorous response);
- Radical commitment (practical challenge to sources of danger).

These four types of reactions could be identify as four factors, which jeopardize and foster the city brand co-ownership process.

To synthetize the theoretical background, the cognitive and emotional city brand co-ownership depends on three key elements. First, the city brand strategy is defined by the internal stakeholders and refers to the boundaries and the attributes of the territory, the targets of the brand and the entity carrying the strategy. Second, the city brand perceptions of the external stakeholders, which can be positive, negative or neutral. Third, the relationship between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions seem to be influenced by structuring factors such as pragmatic, optimist, pessimist and radical adaptation reactions.

2. Research methodology

The research question raised by this article is: how city brand strategy from internal stakeholders is linked with city brand perceptions from external stakeholders?

Indeed, the main goals of the empirical research are threefold: what is the city brand strategy from internal stakeholders? What are the city brand perceptions from external stakeholders? How can be explained the city brand co-ownership? We shed light on the differences and similarities between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions.

The methodological framework is therefore structured to fit these goals. First, we are presenting the research design and the three cases (i.e. I
Amsterdam, Only Lyon, and Inspire Metz) (2.1). Then, we are explaining the data collection (2.2), and finally the data analysis (2.3).

### 2.1 Research design and cases characteristics

First of all, the process of city brand co-ownership is considered as an observable phenomenon which is socially constructed (Berger and Luckman, 1966). As pragmatist (Pierce et al., 1898; Dewey, 2004), we consider the reality as defined from the experience lived. These basic premises involve a focus on organization members’ meanings and their interpretations.

Then, we opt for an exploratory and qualitative research design (Snow and Thomas, 1994; Miles et al., 2014) because the main goal seeks understanding the city brand co-ownership process. Our research strategy focuses on a multiple case study, because a case study is used to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin, 2017), and multiple case study is chosen to explore the research object in several situations. This multiple case study targets three European cities, Amsterdam, Lyon and Metz, which have developed a city brand strategy.

The cases selection results from the attention paid to the internal validity; the Table 1 underlines that the three European city have similarities in terms of city brands, and numbers of inhabitants which make the comparison possible and reliable.

### Table 1: The three European city brands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Amsterdam</th>
<th>Lyon</th>
<th>Metz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City brand</td>
<td>I amsterdam.</td>
<td>ONLYLYON</td>
<td>[image]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of inhabitants</td>
<td>1 096 920 in 2013</td>
<td>1 799 726 in 2014</td>
<td>117 619 in 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>219 km²</td>
<td>3 142 km²</td>
<td>42 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>3 832 inh./km²</td>
<td>572 inh./km²</td>
<td>2 804 inh./km²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

### 2.2 Data collection

The data collection is twofold, because we have to confront the city brand strategy defined by the internal stakeholders with the city brand perceptions of the external stakeholders.
First, we have collected secondary data about the three city brand strategies in order to define the goals and values of each city brand. The Table 2 presents the public reports dealing with the city brand strategies.

**Table 2: The public reports of the three city brand strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Amsterdam</th>
<th>Lyon</th>
<th>Metz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City brand</td>
<td><strong>I amsterdam.</strong></td>
<td><strong>ONLYLYON</strong></td>
<td><strong>Inspire Metz</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of publication</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2012 (n^2) / 2015 (n^2)</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of the report</td>
<td>Choosing Amsterdam: Brand, concept and organization of the city marketing</td>
<td>International promotion of the Lyon conurbation: new image, new ambition! (n^2)</td>
<td>A mission, a passion, actions (n^2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of pages</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>35 (n^2) + 28 (n^2)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of publication</td>
<td><a href="https://books.google.fr/books/about/Choosing_Amsterdam.html?id=gUIMtwAACAAJ&amp;redir_esc=y">Link</a></td>
<td><a href="http://www.economie.grandlyon.com/fileadmin/user_upload/fichiers/site_eco/20120302_onlylyon_communication_phase2_dp_fr.pdf" title="n^2">Link</a></td>
<td><a href="http://marque.inspire-metz.com/code-de-marque/">Link</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Authors**

Second, a questionnaire has been sent from the 15th February to the 26th February 2017 in collaboration with IFOP¹. A Computer Assisted Web Interview (CAWI) has been addressed to 200 persons representative of the French population, with criteria of age (18 years old or more), gender, socio-professional category, region and size of town.

For this study, four questions were asked to the respondents:

- The first question aims at collecting respondent associations and definition of the city brand: “What are the words that come to your mind about the city X? (Five words, verbs, phrases or qualifiers)”;
- The second question seeks to detail the representations of the city brand: “You have just evoked the element Y of the city X, on what is based this image? (From which elements or sources did you make this image?)”;  
- The third question focuses on the meaning of each city brand’s association: “Would you say that the element you have evoked just

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¹ French Institute of Public Opinion.
The last question aims at evaluating the strength of each association: “Would you say that the image of the city X is: Very positive / Rather positive / Very negative / Neither positive nor negative / Do not know?”

2.3 Data analysis

The data analysis is based on an abductive logic, because it can be defined as “a reasoning process invoked to explain a puzzling observation” (Aliseda, 2006: 28). In this inferential process, interpretation plays a central role, and it is particularly suitable for the discovery of irregularities in the social sciences (Koenig, 1993). As exposed above, we focus on the internal stakeholders’ intention and the external stakeholders’ perception, and we try to understand the differences between the two.

To analyze the primary and secondary data, we choose a thematic content analysis. The content analysis is based on the assumption that the repetition of speech analysis units reveals the centers of interest, and the concerns of researchers (Miles et al., 2014). More precisely, the thematic content analysis used a specific coding process, which consists of cutting the content of a speech into units of analysis (words, sentences, or themes) and integrating them into categories selected according to the object of research (Blanc et al., 2014). On the one hand, our unit of analysis refers to a group of sentences (subject, verb, and object). On the other hand, the definition of our categories (groups of units of analysis) is done a priori depending on the theoretical background.

We use a content analysis mixing primary and secondary data, referring to a triangulation process, which improves the internal validity (Eisenhart, 1989). The data analysis is threefold: to synthetize, to make sense from our data and to increase the richness of the interpretation process (Daniels and Johnson, 2002). The content analysis postulates that the repetition of the discourse analysis units (in this case: the words) reveals the center of interests of those who are at the origin of these words. More precisely, we focus on a lexical analysis which is based on the nature and the richness of the vocabulary used in public reports and in questionnaire’ responses.
3. Findings

As three key elements are structuring the city brand co-ownership (i.e. city brand strategy, city brand perceptions and structuring factors), we are presenting the findings in three parts. First, the thematic analysis of the secondary data is showing the major characteristics of the three city brand strategies (3.1). Then, the content analysis of the primary data is focusing on the city brand perceptions of the external stakeholders (3.2). Finally, we are presenting a typology of adaptation reactions from the external stakeholders (3.3).

3.1 Goals and values of city brand strategies defined by the internal stakeholders

As shown in the Table 3, the three city brand strategies have similar objectives in order to face an increased international competition. I Amsterdam, Only Lyon and Inspire Metz are identified in a globalized world to highlight their assets and to strengthen their global attractiveness. They focused on holistic strategies, targeting inhabitants, visitors and companies.

However, each city brand strategy has identified different key values and specific attributes on which to build their strategies. The French metropolises used more values and attributes than the Dutch.

Table 3: The elements defining the three city brand strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Amsterdam</th>
<th>Lyon</th>
<th>Metz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City brand</td>
<td>I amsterdam.</td>
<td>ONLYLYON</td>
<td>Inspire Metz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>“Attracting and keeping the right companies, visitors and inhabitants leads to greater economic and cultural activity” (p.2)</td>
<td>“Strengthen Lyon's national and international reputation and, ultimately, the attractiveness of the Lyon region” (p.4)</td>
<td>“The shared brand makes it possible to be visible, to stand out from its competitors and to improve its attractiveness” (p.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad hoc entity</td>
<td>Amsterdam Marketing (Public-private platform)</td>
<td>ONLYLYON (Public-private partnership)</td>
<td>Inspire Metz Agency (Public organization)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boundary</td>
<td>Metropolis of Greater Amsterdam</td>
<td>Metropolis of Lyon</td>
<td>Metropolis of Metz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Value</td>
<td>Creativity / Innovation / Spirit of commerce</td>
<td>Creative / Innovative Enterprise / Dating</td>
<td>Hospitality / Conviviality Openness / Traditional Industrious / Pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute</td>
<td>Cultural city / Canal city Meeting place</td>
<td>Cultural city / Gastronomy Cultural city / Historic heritage Olympique Lyonnais</td>
<td>Metropolis / Urban Cross-border / Historic heritage Graouilly * / Moselle River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
<td>Investors / Visitors / Inhabitants</td>
<td>Travelers (business/visitors) International investors Events / Talent / Inhabitants</td>
<td>Visitors and Inhabitants Business tourists / Economic actors / Students / Talents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Graouilly refers to a dragon, which is the symbol of the city

Source: Authors
3.2 Positive, neutral and negative perceptions of the city brand by the external stakeholders

As shown in the Table 4, the perceptions of the city brands by external stakeholders were identified by three main themes. First, the key references are related to the key values of the city, the personality of the place, and the personalities associated to the city. Second, the cultural life refers to the brand flags such as the famous monuments, and the cultural events. Third, the projects of economic vitality are understood as industrial, urban and economic development projects. These perceptions can be positive, negative or neutral and are illustrated by most relevant verbatim.

Table 4: The perceptions of the city brands by the external stakeholders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City brand</th>
<th>Amsterdam</th>
<th>Lyon</th>
<th>Metz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key references</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td>“Drug liberalization”</td>
<td>“Dishhink”</td>
<td>“Depressing”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neutral</strong></td>
<td>“Europe”</td>
<td>“Big city”</td>
<td>“Unknown”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural life</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td>“Prostitute in shop windows”</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>“War”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neutral</strong></td>
<td>“The Netherlands”</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>“Quint”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Projects of economic vitality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive</strong></td>
<td>“Capital” “It’s a great port” “Touristic” “People always seem busy”</td>
<td>“Industries” “Dynamism” “Confiance” “Shopping”</td>
<td>“Garrison city” “Shopping”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td>“Too much tourist” “Coffee shops”</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>“Steel industry” “Unemployment”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neutral</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>“City”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Authors*

Most of the respondents have a positive global image of the three cities, even if Metz is quite less known. Positive associations concern mainly the beauty of places and their cultural heritage (e.g. “Canals”, “Gastronomy”, “Cathedral”). Amsterdam is clearly associated with museums, Lyon with the Festival of Lights and Metz with the Centre Pompidou. The economic vitality of Amsterdam and Lyon are recognized (e.g. “Great port”, “Touristic”, “Dynamism”), while Metz is identified as a suffering territory (e.g. “Unemployment”). Moreover, the way of life in Amsterdam is perceived as very pleasant and environmentally friendly (e.g. “Bikes”, “Green”). However, drugs liberalization and prostitution create a negative perception of the city. If Lyon is considered as a vibrant city, traffic jams and pollution
counterbalance this positive image. In Metz, local gastronomy and the Moselle River are positive factors while the harsh climate is considered as inhospitable.

### 3.3 Structuring factors influencing the city brand co-ownership

As shown in the Table 5, three types of adaptation reactions of the external stakeholders are identified: stubborn optimism, cynical pessimism, and radical commitment. If the stubborn optimism refers to an optimist state of mind, the cynical pessimism illustrates the contrary. However, a radical commitment highlights antagonistic associations such as “Fantastic” and “Too much touristic” for Amsterdam, “Huge” and “Unattractive” for Lyon, “So far” and “Welcoming” for Metz.

**Table 5: The three types of factors influencing the city brands co-ownership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Amsterdam</th>
<th>Lyon</th>
<th>Metz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City brand</td>
<td><em>I amsterdam.</em></td>
<td><em>ONLYLYON</em></td>
<td><em>Inspired by Metz</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stubborn optimism</td>
<td>“Freedom, Nightlife, Museums, Canals, Capital of the Netherlands”</td>
<td>“Beautiful city, Large, University, Specialty charcuterie, Attractive”</td>
<td>“Living, Welcoming, History, Lorraine, Cathedral”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cynical pessimism</td>
<td>“Prostitution, cannabis, tourism, madness, beer”</td>
<td>“Pollution, Traffic, Nasty odours, Train, Population”</td>
<td>“Old, Sad, Dark, Impersonal, Ordinary”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical commitment</td>
<td>“Fantastic, Special, Rich, No-holds-barred, Cultural wealth, Too much touristic”</td>
<td>“Unknown, Cold, Not wanting, Huge, Unattractive”</td>
<td>“Beautiful, So far, Welcoming, Modern, Dynamic”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Explanations about quotations: one group of words quoted (e.g. “*x*”) is related to one respondent*

**Source: Authors**

### 4. Discussion

As shown in the Figure 2 above, the discussion highlights a dynamic city brand co-ownership model within the relationship between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions are influenced by structuring factors. Indeed, we confront the findings to the literature, and answer our theoretical goal. We opt for a “progressive approach” of city branding (Green *et al.*, 2016), therefore the city brand co-ownership refers to the complexity and uncertainty of the city brand, which claims for a collaborative and participatory city brand management. Indeed, the city brand co-ownership model we propose is a dynamic one; the opposite of a linear model based on cause and effect links.
First, Vuignier (2018) has identified in the literature four key elements to define a city brand strategy: the boundaries (1) and the specific attributes (2) of the territories, the targets of the brand (3), and the entity carrying the strategy (4). We propose to add the key values and the goals, without which the strategy can’t be defined. The key values are mainly defined with a territory profile, which is the result of the external stakeholders’ point of view. Indeed, the specific attributes of the territory are better recognized by the internal and external stakeholders (Braun et al., 2013; Meyronin, 2015). Moreover, the goals of the city brand strategy are linking the specific attributes and the values of the territory with the targets.

Second, we consider city brand perceptions in a cognitive and emotional approach (Adams, 2009), referring to a set of positive, negative, and neutral associations (Boisen et al., 2011). We propose a taxonomy of three major city brand components: the key references, the cultural life, and the projects of economic vitality, which can be appreciated by the external stakeholders positively, negatively and neutrally. The key references refer to the key values of the city, the personality of the place, and the personalities associated to the city. The cultural life can be understood as the brand flags and the cultural events. The projects of economic vitality are industrial, urban and economic development projects.

Third, the structuring factors are moderating the relationship between the city brand strategy components defined by the internal stakeholders and the city brand perceptions of the external stakeholders (i.e. the residents, the companies and the visitors). According to a circular and reflexive vision of the world (Giddens, 1987, 1994; Beck, 2001), the city brand is considered as a management tool (Urde, 1994) socially constructed. Indeed, the city brand co-ownership is influenced by three structuring factors related to three adaptation reactions. First, the stubborn optimism is an optimist reaction on all fronts and in a long run. Second, the cynical pessimism is a pessimist reaction associated with a humorous response. Third, the radical commitment is an antagonist and emotional reaction that can be either positive or negative. The pragmatic acceptance identified by Giddens (1994) refers to a focus on everyday problems, and this kind of reaction isn’t identified in a city brand co-ownership. The city brand strategy aims at answering the everyday problems of the residents (i.e. improving the quality of life), the tourists (i.e. proposing a quality tourist offer), and the companies (i.e. encouraging the establishment of businesses and the development of economic activity). Indeed, either the strategy answers the everyday
problems and the reaction is optimist, or the strategy does not answer the problems and the reaction is pessimist, or the reaction is contrasted and emotionally lively in a radical way.

Figure 2: A dynamic city brand co-ownership model

![Diagram of city brand co-ownership model]

Source: Authors

Finally, in a managerial perspective, the city brand co-ownership model can be understood as a grid that public managers can use to adapt their objectives, methods and promotion channels according to their targets.

Conclusion

To conclude, we are answering the research question: how city brand strategy from internal stakeholders is linked with city brand perceptions from external stakeholders?

The goal is to fulfil the gap identified in the literature about the differences and the matches between the city brand strategy carried by public managers and the perceptions of the external stakeholders (i.e. the residents, the companies and the visitors). In a broad evolutionary shift, we consider the city brand in a progressive approach, and therefore the city brand co-ownership is understood as a collaborative and participatory city brand process.

We opted for an exploratory and qualitative research design with a multiple case study targeting three European metropolises: Amsterdam, Lyon, and Metz. To analyze the city brand strategies defined by the internal stakeholders, we collected secondary data (i.e. public reports), and to understand the city brand perceptions of external stakeholders, we collected 200 answers from a French representative sample. Primary and secondary data are analyzed with a thematic content analysis.
We propose a dynamic city brand co-ownership model within the relationship between the city brand strategy and the city brand perceptions are influenced by structuring factors.

First, the city brand strategy is composed by six key elements: the boundaries (1) and the specific attributes (2) of the territories, the targets of the brand (3), the reference entity (4), the keys values (5) and the goals (6) of the brand strategy. The last two components are added to the typology proposed by Vuignier (2018).

Second, we defined a taxonomy of three major city brand components: the key references, the cultural life, and the projects of economic vitality. These elements can be appreciated positively, negatively and neutrally by the external stakeholders.

Third, we identified three structuring factors which are moderating the relationship between the city brand strategy components and the city brand perceptions. The three factors refer to three types of adaptation reactions identified by Giddens (1994) in a circular and reflexive vision of the word. The stubborn optimism (1) is an optimist reaction on all fronts and in a long run, the cynical pessimism (2) is a pessimist reaction associated with a humorous response, and the radical commitment (3) is an antagonist and emotional reaction that can be either positive or negative.

The exploratory and qualitative design resulted in a richness of findings which does not come without limitations. We have studied a multiple case study focusing on the exclusive perception of French people to assess city brand co-ownership, and it reduces the external validity of our findings. Indeed, future researches could test the model of city brand co-ownership in a confirmative and quantitative study. Moreover, as the city brand co-ownership is considered as a process, it would be interesting to understand and explain different types of city brand co-ownership trajectories. Future research could therefore appreciate this evolution through a longitudinal and processual analysis.

“All limitation is dictated only by time, by means of an inner necessity, and therefore any limitation can only be temporary” (Kandinsky, 1954).

Bibliography


TOWARDS A DIGITALIZATION OF PLACE MARKETING: 
THE DIGITAL PORTRAIT OF THE TERRITORY (PDT), A 
NEW DIGITAL TERRITORIAL DIAGNOSIS TOOL 

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Encg Tangier, Morocco 
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Encg Tangier, Morocco 

Abstract 
All territories around the world aspire to be attractive and competitive; to achieve this, they are now discovering the benefits of place marketing and the effectiveness of its tools. Nevertheless, the majority of practitioners and academics are struggling to carry out their territorial diagnosis, at the digital level, a sphere that has become the main field of territorial competition. The cause of this difficulty lies in the lack of a territorial diagnostic tool adapted to the digital world. 

The objective of this paper is to propose a new digital territorial diagnosis tool; Named the (PDT), the digital portrait of the territory, will serve as a methodological tool, for place-marketers, to carry out the diagnosis of the digital presence of their territories. 

After a literature review of the main models of territorial diagnosis, we propose our model of audit place, at the digital level (PDT), based on 4 concepts: the identity portrait of the territory, the AI place Persona, the digital touch point place and the human portrait. 

By similarity, to a human, having the five senses, like ‘Touchpoints’, with his environment, we have personified the territory, like an AI persona, whose 5 digital senses, represent his ‘Touchpoints’, with the digital world. 

For each sense of the 5 digital senses of the AI-place persona, the digital applications or platforms to be analysed, according to their arrangement, have been placed in the digital sensory scheme of the AI place persona. 

To conclude with, a discussion of the managerial implications and academic perspectives of our conceptual research. 

Key words: digital place marketing, digital audit place, digital portrait place, AI place persona, digital touch point place
STATE POLICY CHANGES AND DESTINATION BRANDING: RE - (RE) PRESENTING RAJASTHAN (INDIA)

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Abstract

India’s north-western state of Rajasthan has been one of the most prominent and consistent mainstays of the country’s tourism story over the last few decades (Rajasthan Tourism, 2016). While in the past the state relied on word-of-mouth, historic reputation and non-integrated commercial approaches to attract tourists, in the recent years it has been an early-mover within the country to develop and project a uniquely identifiable brand for itself (Hankinson, 2004). It was also one of the first and most visible states to contribute to and align with the Incredible India campaign managed by the Union Government, meant to project all of India as a tourist destination (Kant, 2009).

In this paper, we study and investigate the role of Government, changes in state policies with reference to tourism, and their effects on destination branding campaigns (Kerrigan et. al, 2012; Govers, 2013). The state of Rajasthan provides a suitable case for this investigation, since it has undergone a complete re-branding exercise in the last 5 years, and is currently undergoing another one. Both these rebranding exercises have been widely attributed to a change of government, rather than commercial requirements or feedback from other stakeholders. For our study, we interview government officials, bureaucrats and advertising/communication professionals involved in the exercises, and also conduct a semiotic study of the brand-promotions executed over the years. By conducting a longitudinal study on effects of causal factors and influences on creative representations of place-branding (Morgan et.al, 2002), we observe that the success of the place-branding campaigns and promotions over the years have been possible not just because of the government’s involvement, but also occasionally despite political interference. We also report the risks of such changes on brand recall, communication inconsistencies, and dissemination of key messages in the place-branding exercise from a medium-to-long term perspective (Pike, 2005).

Keywords: re-position, place-branding, government, state policies, political influence, semiotics, Incredible India, Rajasthan tourism
FROM POEM AND SONG TO CULTURAL DIPLOMACY: 
CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR PLACE 
BRANDING AND TOURISM PROMOTION

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Abstract

The concept of place branding could be regarded in terms of strategies developed in the commercial sector to manage the soft power of a geographical location which arises from the attractiveness of a country’s culture, political ideals, and policies. Since place branding aims to create a particular interpretation of a place for a particular purpose, it could look at poetry which passes metaphorical muster:

Poetry and especially that set to music offers a powerful cross-platform that enables communication among people, creating common understanding and bridging language and cultural distances or differences. The correlation and interaction of poetry and music become a medium for self-expression and social cohesion not just between individuals, but also between communities and nations themselves, providing the basis for identity recognition, the most important factor of cultural diplomacy.

After all, Greece has reached a juncture where the sun and sea model, on which it had based its tourist campaign in the past, is not sufficient any more. Thus, it has to face the options of altering its current product. Towards this direction, the present proposal focuses on poetry, lyrics and song as place branding tools. Representative examples of Greek poetry in general and of Greek poetry set to music in particular are analysed and examined through the prism of cultural diplomacy. The ultimate aim is to offer a proposal on how they could serve as a compass to the dissemination of Greek culture. In addition we would try to highlight their soft power and the role they play in the international arena and in the context of place rebranding and development of the tourism product.

Keywords: Cultural diplomacy, place branding, poetry, songs, tourism
**Introduction & Aim**

Place branding can extend in many directions and the soft power of a geographical location is one of them. Soft power is the ability to influence and fashion people’s choices through appeal and allure; it is non-coercive and rests on alternative values to persuade. According to Nye (2004:256), soft power arises from the attractiveness of a country’s culture, political ideals, and policies.

Culture especially can be quite helpful with the aim of place branding “to create a particular interpretation of a place” (Walters & Insch, 2018:131), because many of its elements are in themselves unique in many ways. Culture’s set of values and practices is able to create meaning for society and this is what governments seek to show to other nations when engaging in cultural diplomacy, which utilizes every aspect of a nation’s culture and includes, among others, the arts (films, dance, music, painting, sculpture, etc.) and literature (poetry, prose, drama, non-fiction and media) (Figure 1).

![Figure 1 “Cultural Diplomacy & Poetry, Music, Songs”](image)

Music in particular, apart from an essential element of culture, is also a powerful tool that helps communication across linguistic borders, functioning as a bridge-builder across cultural differences (Schmidt & Colwell, 2016: 221). Being one of the most fundamental aspects of a civilization’s physiognomy and culture, it creates a basis for expression and identity definition. According to Lusensky (2011), music has the

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2 Cultural diplomacy includes the arts (films, dance, music, painting, sculpture, etc.), exhibitions, educational programs (universities and language programs abroad), exchanges (scientific, artistic, educational etc.), literature (establishment of libraries abroad and translation of popular and national works), broadcasting of news and cultural programs, gifts to a nation, religious diplomacy (including inter-religious dialogue), promotion and explanation of ideas and social policies (Waller, 2009).
profound power to stir up energy, emotions and sometimes controversy. Like all sorts of art, it encourages engagement. Music provides the spark for people to socialize, energize and organize. It is an engine for social interaction which transmits messages and ideas in multiple levels and directions that can be perfectly converted into branding tools.

Poetry, on the other hand, is a form of literary art which uses the aesthetic qualities of language (including music and rhythm) to evoke meanings beyond a prose paraphrase, according to the Oxford English dictionary. Being also an essential element of culture, poetry too can serve in the creation of an interpretation of place, because “if the essence of branding is differentiation [...], then poetry passes metaphorical muster” (Brown & Wijland, 2015:556).

As a result, poetry set to music can offer a powerful cross-platform that enables communication among people, creating common understanding and bridging linguistic and cultural distances or differences. The correlation and interaction of poetry with music become a medium for self-expression and social cohesion not just between individuals, but also between communities and nations, providing the foundation for identity recognition, the most important factor of cultural diplomacy (Agostinelli, 2012). This form of cultural diplomacy enables messages conveyed through songs to connect people from various backgrounds and lifestyles.

The general aim of this paper is to explore the power of poetry in general and poetry set to music in particular in the branding process as a kind of “trademark”. In this paper, poems and songs are seen as possible aid to place branding and tourism promotion through the practice of cultural diplomacy. After all, cultural diplomacy attempts to manage the international environment by utilizing these sources and achievements and making them known abroad (Cull, 2008:33).

1. Research Methodology

Given the diversity of the subjects with which this paper deals, a multidisciplinary approach is undertaken, by directing to a common research process elements derived from the synthesis and interaction of poetry and music with different fields of social science, namely place branding and tourism promotion. On this basis, through a theoretical procedure, the role of poetry and songs is analyzed in the case study of branding Greece, through cultural identity and in the framework of a cultural semiotic perspective. More particularly:

i. in respect to poetry, (a) the possibility of Greek poets who are famous worldwide to be used as brands in their own right is looked into; (b) the ways in which poetry can become a place-branding tool through multilingual publications, international festivals and other events are scrutinized; lastly, (c) the
likelihood of Greek poetry acting as an export commodity or an ambassador of Greece abroad is also examined, ii. in respect to song, (a) the relationship between poetry and music is explored and documented, and especially the way in which they intersect and interact with the transmission of their messages, from a historical perspective; (b) an effort is made to interpret the communicative dimension of poetry set to music (songs) in the sense of a symbolic system; and (c) the ways in which its role as a tool for enhancing national identity, cross-cultural communication and “special interest tourism” promotion are discussed.

2. Case study: branding Greece through poetry and song

2.1 Poetry

a. Greek poets as brands themselves

Some Greek poets have been known worldwide over the centuries and have become benchmarks to global poetry. These poets could qualify as brands on their own. According to Brown & Wijland (2015:554), “if celebrities like Beyoncé, Oprah Winfrey, and Kim Kardashian are brands [...], if novelists like Stephen King, James Patterson and J.K. Rowling are brands, then poets like Seamus Heaney, Maya Angelou and William Butler Yeats surely qualify”. Same goes for the Nobel-winning Greek poets Odysseus Elytis and Giorgos (George) Seferis, the Lenin Peace Prize winner Yiannis Ritsos, the Alexandria-born Cavafy and the ancient epic poet Homer, to name a few. Their names are unique in creating authenticity, the most important element of place branding (Rius-Ulldemolins, 2014:1).

The branding of the poets, however, cannot happen on its own accord. It should be promoted in the framework of a national branding and tourism strategy that would enhance this particular component, by e.g. establishing a poetry museum or museums. Strikingly, there is not a single poetry museum currently in a country with two Nobel-winning poets and a very long tradition in poetry.

Another example of such a national strategy would be to highlight the places and homes where famous Greek poets have lived or been, as “literary pilgrims seek a physical body to enable their senses to connect with objects read” (Robertson & Radford, 2009:206) and to issue pertinent guide books, launch websites and publish virtual literary maps on mobile phone applications (Hoppen et al., 2014). An interesting UK project in this vein is “Places of Poetry”.3 In Butler’s typology of literary

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3 See e.g. ““A unique and slightly mad effort: mapping Britain in poetry”, The Guardian, 18.7.2019. Available at: https://www.theguardian.com/books/2019/jul/18/a-unique-and-slightly-mad-effort-mapping-the-uk-in-poetry
tourism (1986), four types are discerned: the first is homage to an actual location, the second refers to places of significance within a work of fiction, the third is concerned with the appeal of areas because they were important to literary figures and the fourth applies when an area becomes a tourist destination in its own right because of the popularity of an author. The fist type can even include cemeteries where authors are buried, because their graves are “considered as tangible signature of a writer’s presence” and allow fans to come as close to them as they could ever get (Andersen & Robinson, 2002). On the other hand, viewing the preserved house of an author can be perceived as an imaginary act of bringing him back to life (Watson, 2006), because it seems as if he could re-enter it at any time. The connection of such sites, according to Andersen & Robertson (2002:22) creates “a more potent and penetrative tourist product, not just in promotional terms but also in a wider intellectual sense, too”.

Yet another example of a national tourism strategy that would utilise poetry in a dynamic way would be the example of verses appearing in Greek and English on public spaces, e.g. on the buses as was the case with Athens and verses from Cavafy’s poems a few years ago⁴, but also on ports, the airport, railway stations, the metro, ships etc.

b. Poetry as a place-branding tool for Greece

Poetry has always been a “side-car” to place branding. Back in the 1960s, when Greece resorted to the 3s (sun-sea-sand) strategy to brand itself, the Greek poet Giorgos Seferis was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature. In Seferis’s poetry, sun and sea have a strong presence:

A little farther – Poem by Giorgos Seferis

*(trnsl.: Edmund Keeley and Philip Sherrard
 From: Mythistorema)*

A little farther
we will see the almond trees blossoming
the marble gleaming in the sun
the sea breaking into waves

a little farther,
let us rise a little higher.

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⁴ See e.g. “Athens is talking to you: Verses from Cavafy cross the city on buses and the metro and have something important to say” [in Greek], iefimerida.gr, 15.10.2013.
Sun and sea were even present at Seferis’s Nobel lecture⁵, his award ceremony speech⁶ and his banquet speech.⁷

The 3s became prominent again in Greek place branding during the 1980s. One year earlier, in 1979, another Greek poet, Odysseus Elytis, was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature. In Elytis’s poetry, sun and sea are even more prevalent than in Seferis’s:

**Drinking the sun of Corinth – Poem by Odysseus Elytis**

*(trnsl.: Edmund Keeley and Philip Sherrard

*From: Sun the first)*

*Drinking the sun of Corinth

Reading the marble ruins

Striding across vineyards and seas

Sighting along the harpoon

A votive fish that slips away

*I found the leaves that the sun’s psalm memorizes

The living land that passion joys in opening.*

Elytis also spoke of sun and sea in his Nobel lecture⁸, but the ceremony speech by Doctor Karl Ragnar Gierow of the Swedish Academy addressed to Elytis, also makes mention of these elements, when talking about the Greek poet.⁹

Long before that, ancient epic poet Homer had spoken largely of the sea. The sea for Homer was “salty water” (“αλμυρόν ύδωρ”), a “beautiful” and “deep lake” (“περικαλλέα”, “βαθεία λίμνη”). It was “very wavy” (“πολυφλοίσβοιος”) and “noisy” (“ηχήεσσα”); it was also rough (“ορινομένη”) and wine-like (“οίνωψ”), among many other characterisations. Homer devised a host of adjectives to convey a living and lively impression of the sea element that has been at the core of the Greek place branding strategies for a very long time.

Over the last decade, there has been a paradigm shift, as poetry is becoming another reason for foreigners to come to Greece: the country is emerging as a strong pole of attraction for poets worldwide.

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⁵ Available at: [https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/seferis/lecture/](https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/seferis/lecture/)

⁶ Available at: [https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/ceremony-speech/](https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/ceremony-speech/)

⁷ Available at: [https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/seferis/speech/](https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1963/seferis/speech/)

⁸ Available at: [https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1979/elytis/lecture/](https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1979/elytis/lecture/)

⁹ Available at: [https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1979/ceremony-speech](https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/literature/1979/ceremony-speech)
In 2013 and then every year since 2015, an Athens World Poetry Festival takes place in the Greek capital. It is organized by the “Poets’ Circle” (last year, it was organized with the support of the organizing committee of the project “Athens 2018 World Book Capital”), a literary community like the Hellenic Authors’ society, but only for poets.

Another festival, involving poetry and visual arts, is the International Video Poetry Festival which includes multimedia poetry readings, performances and experimental music. It is organized by the “Void Network”, a cultural, political and philosophical collective established in 1990. So far, there have been seven international video poetry festivals.

Yet another literary festival takes place in Tinos island. More specifically, it has taken place in 2010, 2011, 2012, 2014, 2016 and 2018 so far. That festival is organized by Dinos Siotis and his cultural organization “Society of Dekata”. And there are other initiatives as well, e.g. the International Cavafy Summer School, organized for third consecutive year in 2019, by the Cavafy Archive and the Onassis Foundation. Poetry festivals and similar events, according to Ooi and Stöber (2010:68), can “communicate vibrancy, excitement and happening”, which are valuable for sustainable tourism development.

As of 2018, another poetry festival takes place in a major Greek city and port, Patras. In 2019, the Festival was co-organized by Patras Poetry Office, headed by poet Anthonis Skiathas, and a number of local (public and private) bodies and organizations, including the Archaeological Museum of Patras. The festival took place this year under the auspices of the Ministry for Tourism and the President of the Hellenic Republic, Mr. Prokopis Pavlopoulos. It spanned 4 days (26-30 August 2019) and yielded a book of selected poems by the participants in three languages: the native language of each poet, Greek and English.

On 5 and 6 September 2019, there was another international poetry festival in the city of Chania, Crete. It was organized by the International Poetry Group of Chania, who also invited the known English poet and playwright Alyson Hallett to participate.

In 2018, Dinos Siotis (Society of Dekata) also started publishing a magazine, entitled Poetry Athens. It is bilingual and forms a space where poetry from around the world finds a warm place, with only 1/3rd of the

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11 See e.g. http://voidnetwork.gr/2018/08/19/7th-international-video-poetry-festival
12 See http://www.tinoslitfestival.com
13 See https://www.onassis.org/open-calls/open-call-international-cavafy-summer-school-2019
poets published in it being Greek and the remaining 2/3rds being foreigners. So far, it has published two issues.

Another initiative is the “Anthologies of young poets”\(^{15}\) a series of bilingual anthologies (Greek plus the original language) of young poets up to 40 years old, who have published 1-3 books. So far, seven such anthologies have been published (French, Russian, Spanish, Cypriot, Slovenian, Slovakian, Romanian young poets). These are part of a pan-European project undertaken by Athens-based Vakxikon.gr publications that use the motto “Poetry unites nations, languages, people!”. Vakxikon publications are quite keen on publishing translated-in-Greek poetry books in a methodical way and they also boast the series “Poetry from all over the world”, which so far includes 27 books.

Thessaloniki-based Shakesperikon publications also has a series of poetry books from other countries, which started in 2009 and has been intensified during the past 3-4 years. Nowadays, it comprises 40% of the total print-run of the publications, as four out of ten books that Shakesperikon publishes are such translation books. Shakesperikon has published books of German, UK, Spanish, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, Icelandic, Serbian and Lithuanian poets, while it is also looking forward to books from Chinese, Russian, and Turkish etc. poets.

It is important to underline at this point that all these are private initiatives: the state is nowhere to be found. EKEBI (National Book Centre), which would normally subsidize such endeavours, run surveys and other research and generally foster bilateral country relations based on books, was closed down in January 2013 (see e.g. Bakounakis, 2013). The only state-approved international event relating to books that takes place in Greece nowadays is the Thessaloniki International Book Fair, which is organized every year. The numerous other book fairs, big and small are also private initiatives (e.g. the Athens Book Fair at Zappeion in Athens every September is organized by the Book Publishers Association without support from the state).

c. **Poetry as an ambassador of Greece or as an exported commodity**

The financial crisis prompted an interest in the literary production in Greece. It is indicative that during these past few years at least five anthologies with Greek poems were published abroad:

- **Crisis: 34 Greek poems by 34 Greek poets on the current crisis**, Dinos Siotis (Ed.), Ripon UK: Smokestack Books, 2014, ASIN: B00QAX9H9Q.


Apart from those, there are numerous translations of Greek poetry books in several languages, again without support or any other kind of help from the Greek state.

2.2. Songs

a. Poetry set to music – Historical highlights

When music is combined with lyrics, theatre or cinema it forms a polysemiotic system that uses language along with other codes. A distinct correlation of music to semiotics is pointed out by Jakobson, who classifies the transformation of language into art, music, dance and cinema in Intersemiotic Translation or “Transmutation” (Jakobson, 1959:4). The musical cosmos enables people to communicate, in addition to the mere expression of performances or concepts.

From the time of Pindarus to that of Plato, the concept of music did not refer exclusively to the art of sounds, as is the case today, but also to the insoluble unity of music and speech in the verse (Georgiades, 1972: 339-340). According to Plutarch, when the Athenians were destroyed in the campaign against Syracuse, many Athenian soldiers were saved thanks to Euripides’ music “because they were singing some of his choruses”. ¹⁶

¹⁶ See Plutarch, Nikias 29.2 “… Some have been saved thanks to Euripides...”. Chorus from The Bacchai, Euripides (480-406 B.C.):

Where is the home for me?
O Cyprus, set in the sea,
Aphrodite’s home in the soft sea-foam,
Would I lend to thee;
Where in the wings of the Lovers are furled,
And faint the heart of the world!
Ay, or to Paphos’ isle,
Where the rainless meadows smile
With riches rolled from the hundred-fold…
In the Middle Ages, poetry took numerous forms in medieval Europe, for example, lyric and epic poetry. The poetry of the troubadours appeared in the 12th-13th centuries was related to the social developments of the era. Twenty-four poems, for example, of the famous *Carmina Burana*, a manuscript collection of 254 poems of secular poetry, were much later (in 1936) set to music by the German composer Carl Orff (Rothstein, 1982). His composition quickly became popular and an indicative work of the classical music repertoire. The opening and closing movement “O Fortuna” has been used in numerous films, and performed by famous orchestras like the “Johann Strauss” of André Rieu in Maastricht and elsewhere in the world.

The collection was found in 1803 in the Benedictine monastery of Benediktbeuern, Bavaria, and is now housed in the Bavarian State Library in Munich. It is considered to be the most important collection of Goliard and vagabond songs, along with the Carmina Cantabrigiensia. The manuscripts reflect an international European movement, with songs originating from Occitania, France, England, Scotland, Aragon, Castile, and the Holy Roman Empire.

In the 20th century of modernism and social change, we see in Italy of 1900 women working in rice plantations in Bologna, the “mondinas”. They have found through song the way to express their reaction and protest against the atrocious working conditions. The lyrics of “Bella Ciao”, originally sung as “Alla mattina appena alzata”, have been translated into many languages and reproduced by various artists in many countries.

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17 The collection was found in 1803 in the Benedictine monastery of Benediktbeuern, Bavaria, and is now housed in the Bavarian State Library in Munich. It is considered to be the most important collection of Goliard and vagabond songs, along with the Carmina Cantabrigiensia. The manuscripts reflect an international European movement, with songs originating from Occitania, France, England, Scotland, Aragon, Castile, and the Holy Roman Empire.

18 YouTube, (2013). Carl Orff - O Fortuna ~ Carmina Burana. Available at: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GXFSK0ogeg4&t=52s](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GXFSK0ogeg4&t=52s) (Retrieved June 12, 2019).

19 For example, in the films: 1981: In “Excalibur” (when King Arthur and his knights ride into battle), 1992: In “Last of the Mohicans” (the piece ‘Massacre/Canoes), 1999: In “The General's Daughter”; 2003: In “Cheaper by the Dozen” (at the end of Dylan's party scene), 2009: In “G-Force” (when the hamsters race against the car) etc. Also in film trailers and TV series (e.g. 1978: In James Burke's BBC series “Connections” in several episodes, 2009: On “The Simpsons” in several episodes).


21 Bella Ciao. Retrieved on 19.6.2019 from: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?time_continue=29&v=ZkPuEg0Sv2E](https://www.youtube.com/watch?time_continue=29&v=ZkPuEg0Sv2E)

22 The list is endless, but just to mention a very few of them taken spontaneously: the famous recordings of the folk singer Giovanna Daffini (the mondina and the partisan version), Herbert Pagani, Mary Hopkin, Manu Chao, Milva, Yves Montand, Diego Moreno, Red Army Choir, Goran Bregović, Chibane (italian/algerian lyrics), Azerbaijani Soviet singer Muslim Magomayev in Russian, Anita Lane in English, Les Ramoneurs de menhirs in Breton and French, Turkish band Grup Yorum in Turkish, Thai
Later, in 1967 in United Kingdom, as part of the broadcast of Our World, the first live satellite television production, the Beatles performed their song “All You Need Is Love”, promoting a peacebuilding philosophy amid the Vietnam War. The two-and-a-half-hour event had the largest television audience ever up to that date: an estimated 400 to 700 million people around the globe watched the broadcast.\textsuperscript{23}

In 1970-1980, in Latin America, the Movements of the New Song based on local folk traditions appeared and crossed the borders.\textsuperscript{24} Since the public sphere was frozen, poetry and music took over the role of voice, emotion, symbol and slogan. In 1974, Joan Baez included in her Spanish album the song of the Chilean Violetta Parra “Gracias a la Vida”, which became an anthem for the Chileans. Although the world had not yet been networked and “homogenized”, the song spread around the globe (Aslanidou, 2017: 161).\textsuperscript{25}

In the 21st century, the perspective involves the development of the youth movement that has defined a different way of artistic expression in poetry, music, cinema, fashion, design and behavior. Only in the second decade of the 21st century we observe the revival of the protest song expressing disappointment for the Iraqi war or the economic crisis. A rigorous example is the \textit{10 Songs for the New Depression} by the American Wainwright in 2010.\textsuperscript{26}

The above classical examples indicate that music, when written on the basis of a literary work, a poem, goes beyond the limits of its simple definition.\textsuperscript{27} It is more than art; it is a phenomenon that provides man the ability to satisfy his need for expression. A song, on the other hand, is a musical setting, a musical composition written on the basis of a literary work and intended to be sung by human voice.\textsuperscript{28} The history of written words, such as poems, created specifically for music or for which music is specifically created (lyrics), is so rich and at the same time so complex.

\textsuperscript{23} The Beatles, \textit{All You Need Is Love}. Retrieved on 16.6.2019 from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t5ze_e4R9QY
\textsuperscript{24} Like Nueva Canción in Chile, Nuevo Cancionero in Argentina and Nueva Trova in Cuba.
\textsuperscript{27} Music is defined as both art, based on the organization of sounds to synthesize, perform and receive a musical work, and science, which focuses on issues related to production, organization and reception of sounds. The term also means the set of sounds from which a piece of music is composed.
\textsuperscript{28} A song may be for a solo singer, a lead singer supported by background singers, a duet, trio, or larger ensemble involving more voices (choral works). Songs can be broadly divided into many different forms, depending on the criteria used.
that no single paper could be expected to describe this ‘musicopoetic’ relation.

Moreover, the evolution of technology and the speed of the internet allowed for music in various combinations (speech, image, dance, etc.), which surpass the state borders and create a stable, intercultural channel. Thus, cultural and political ideas can easily promote the characteristics, identity and uniqueness of a place, as well as national identity or national branding. Just for an example, we would refer to the popular (in terms of total global views) YouTube video, the “Gagnam Style”. With more than three billion views as of June 2019, Korea has secured a powerful tool of “soft power”. Gangnam Style has become South Korea’s largest music export product, an achievement which was particularly important for the government that had spent huge amounts of money on branding its country.

b. Singing Greek Poetry

Greek song history extends far back into ancient Greece, since the Greek term for music “μουσική” (mousikē) differs considerably from our modern sense of the word ‘music’: it includes language and it means the whole range of singing, dancing, playing instruments and performing drama. Lyric poetry for example, was also known as melic poetry, because these poems were typically sung (Miller, 1996). The interest of countless researchers from universities, institutions and foundations, who spend years endeavoring to stitch the Ancient Greek music and song, establish Greece as a brand in this field. Homer’s Iliad and Odyssey for example, which were composed to be sung, frequently with the accompaniment of musical instruments (D’Angour, 2018), are translated in many modern languages around the world (including the 24 languages of the countries of EU). Ancient Greek μουσική (music), as in the case of language, has gradually evolved without changing its basic structure, to become Modern Greek music.

In a similar vein, in mid-20th century, literature in Greece provided the aesthetic criteria, cultural prestige and institutional basis for what aspired to be a higher form of popular song and the authentic representative of a national popular music.

30 Lyric poetry is a formal type of poetry which expresses personal emotions or feelings, typically spoken in the first person (Scott, 1990). The term owes its importance in literary theory to the division developed by Aristotle between three broad categories of poetry: lyrical, dramatic, and epic.
• Published poems were set to popular music, while critical discourse celebrated some songwriters not only for being ‘as good as poets’ but for being ‘singing poets’ in their own right (Papanikolaou, 2007). This is the case of “The Children of Piraeus” ("Τα Παιδιά του Πειραιά"), first sung by Melina Mercouri33, in the film “Never on Sunday”, directed by Jules Dassin. Melina, a jolly woman, sings of her joyful life in her port town of Piraeus: “If I search the world over-I’ll find no other port-Which has the magic-Of my Port Piraeus”. The song won the Academy Award for Best Original Song in 1960, a first for a foreign-language picture (Levy, 2003:210) and since then it has been recorded by numerous artists in many languages34 and found in other performances, as well.35 It has gained various degrees of success throughout the world, but the most important is that this Hadjidakis’ song, especially when accompanied by the “hassapiko” dance (in the tourists’ terminology, “syrta”) by Theodorakis in the film “Zorba the Greek”, creates the stereotypical Greek ‘identity’. Although both composers have an international reputation, their works are a musical semiosis, a basic cultural element of Greece and the Greek national identity transcending the creators’ reputation (Aslanidou, 2019). The song is faced in the framework of tourism’s commercialization, something its creators probably did not suspect, and it feeds Greece’s tourism for adopting as reference point: the carefree type of the Modern Greek who enjoys life, drinks ouzo with meze, retsina with souvlaki and dances on the seaside.

33 Melina Mercouri (Maria Amalia-Mercouri (1920-1994) was a Greek actress, singer, and politician. She received an Oscar nomination and won a Cannes Film Festival Award for her performance in the 1960 film “Never on Sunday”. Mercouri was also nominated for three Golden Globes and two BAFTA (The British Academy of Film and Television Arts) Awards in her acting career. In October 1981, Mercouri became the first female Minister of Culture and Sports (1981-1989 & 1993-1994). One of her greatest achievements was the establishment of the institution of the European Capital of Culture within the framework of cultural policy of the European Union that she had perceived and proposed in 1983, with Athens inaugurating this institution and being the first title-holder in 1985.

34 The song “Τα Παιδιά του Πειραιά” has been recorded in orchestral versions and a number of languages since its release: English: An orchestral version recorded by Don Costa reached number 19 on the Billboard Hot 100 in 1960 Following this success as well as the Oscar win, an English language version of the song was commissioned to be written by many singers (Billy Towne, the Chordettes, Bing Crosby, Doris Day, Andy Williams, James Last, et al.). Italian (Dalida, Milva, Nilla Pizzi…), French (Dalida, Melina Mercouri, Darío Moreno), Spanish (Dalida, Xiomara Alfaro), German (Lale Andersen, Nana Mouskouri, Helmut Brandenburg…), Dutch, Yiddish, Polish, Czech, Serbian, Slovenian, Cantonese, Mandarin, Portuguese, Hindi.

35 Song on ukulele, open of production “Comedy of Errors” by William Shakespeare of Hartford Stage, as soundtrack in the advertising spot of the world-famous beer “Stella Artois” with the theme of the song sung by Melina Mercouri acting as “Stella” in the amazing scene of the film (see Worth The Effort - She is a Thing of Beauty Advert | Stella Artois UK. Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s6_kO0HUSZ_Y retrieved 5.6.2019) or even The Muppet Show with Miss Piggy (see Miss Piggy - Never on Sunday. Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P2_uYBhcG00 retrieved 10.6.2019).
The particular political developments that prevailed in Greece during the junta of 1967-1974, established music and songs, especially those of Mikis Theodorakis, as voicing political resistance:36

- Poem by Giorgos Seferis: “Denial” (“Αρνηση”), published in his collection Strophe (Στροφή, meaning: Turning Point) in 1931.37 Not long before the fall of the Berlin Wall, Theodorakis gave an open-air concert on the Rosa Luxemburgplatz in the East German part of the city and the VCR recording took place in West Berlin.38 The historic piece “Denial” came to be the anthem of resistance to the junta and was sung by enormous crowds, lining the streets at Seferis’ funeral.39

Another concert with this song, worth mentioning in the field of cultural diplomacy, is the one held in the ancient theatre of Delphi in 2001, where the English version “I’ve kept a hold on my life” (Keeley & Sherrard, 1995). The concert, with the co-performance of the famous Ossipov Russian Orchestra, was given on the occasion of the 50th anniversary of the establishment of the United Nations High Commission for Refugees and Theodorakis was honored for his efforts towards peace and human rights.

- In the framework of cultural diplomacy, the “Mauthausen Trilogy” (also known as “The Ballad of Mauthausen” and “Mauthausen Cantata”) by Iakovos Kampanelis40 and Mikis Theodorakis could be classified among the works which unite people on an emotional level.

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36 Loaded with intense ideological content, Thodorakis’s songs were forbidden by the junta and they were heard and sung only at ‘illegal’ gatherings. Under the shadow of the danger and injustice acting catalytically on Greek identity, the songs caused homogenization towards a common protest against the ’enemy’ of any kind.

37 After the coup that overthrew the Greek government in 1967, Seferis went into voluntary seclusion and many of his poems were banned, including the musical versions which Mikis Theodorakis had written and arranged.


40 In World War II, the Greek author and poet Iakovos Kambanelli, was imprisoned by the Nazis at the Mauthausen concentration camp in Austria. Kambanellis survived incarceration at the camp and, after liberation by the Allies, started writing a book based on the events and atrocities he witnessed there.
It has been described as the “most beautiful musical work ever written about the Holocaust” and as “an exquisite, haunting and passionate melody that moves Kambanellis’ affecting words to an even higher level”.

“The Ballad of Mauthausen” has been presented in numerous concerts worldwide. The moving performance of the global premiere inside the German concentration camp Mauthausen in 1988 was held in three languages (Greek, Jewish and German) and was attended by tenths of thousands of people from all over Europe.

- The “Axion Esti”/It Is Truly Meet (“Άξιον Εστί”) by Odysseus Elytis, due to its setting to music by Mikis Theodorakis as an oratorio, whose verse is sung against all injustice and resistance, and also due to its sheer beauty and musicality, is characterized as the Bible of Hellenism. The richness of the Greek language and music in this work constitutes a considerable cultural advantage, compatible to the principles of cultural diplomacy.

Cultural diplomacy reflects the way we implement diplomacy through miscellaneous cultural activities, exchanges and co-operations that foster a reciprocal cultural interplay between the ‘sending’ and the ‘receiver’ countries. Festival networking is an activity which promotes co-operation of stakeholders by offering co-productions and access to sources of funding and promotion (Konsola, 1990). Several of these festivals, such as the Epidaurus or Athens Festival. It concerns institutions recognized by Greek and international media with a wide appeal to Greek and foreign audiences, and their artistic program includes performances of high-aesthetic in co-operation and co-production with local or foreign artists and cultural associations. Dozens of local summer festivals can be described as over-the-top and innovative in character, highlighting the comparative and competitive advantages of each regional place separately. However, they are mainly addressed to the Greek region as opposed to the similar activities organized in the metropolis and major cities or centers of Greece and which have the opportunity to appeal to an international audience.

The development of diverse and new activities is necessary in order to attract cultural tourists at regional places and at the same time to ensure the repeatability of tourist visits. Various Strategic Development Plans for the Greek Region include a special section on tourism. Many suggestions are successful, but we always need something innovative to

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help develop the identity of each place and each island so that they become more attractive to the competitive international tourism market. Just an example, birthplaces of Greek poets and composers could be included in a broader tourism strategy (see also 3.1.a “Greek poets as brands themselves”) derived from the correlation of the fields Poetry-Music-Tourism-Cultural Diplomacy. This policy would create an international thematic cultural scene emerging from the local identity and destination history, enhancing the attractiveness to “cultural tourists” - this alternative form of tourism that seems particularly resistant to crisis situations of various forms. The development of these activities will broaden the image of Greece at least cognitively and emotionally.43

Besides, the ability to develop activities throughout the year contributes significantly to the eradicating of seasonality. Literature and musical tourism attracts high-income visitors. Senior tourists groups have time and money especially for musical activities (UNWTO/UNESCO, 2015). The group of higher-income visitors combined with the new generation, which is directly adaptable to the new communication and information technology, could redefine and reshape the final tourism product, also contributing to the creation of employment opportunities.

Conclusions

Having in mind the complex processes in this paper, due to an attempted integration of elements and theory from different fields of arts and social science, certain concluding remarks could be summed up:

- Greek poets and poetry can serve as a tool for cultural diplomacy and tourism promotion, but they need government support or a re-thinking in such terms.

- Poem set to music is a particularly powerful mechanism for personal expression and social activism, able to transform national identity and become a tool for cultural diplomacy.

- National identity should be reinforced through those cultural elements that make up a source of pride and authenticity. This is an important step in building the image of a country.

- Nation branding can also be seen from a cultural semiotic perspective, precisely because through poetry, music, dance and culture in general, cultural symbols are emerged and promoted.

- National image and/or stereotypes could facilitate cross-cultural

43 The image of a country has four elements: a cognitive element (what exactly we know about the country), an emotional element (what are our feelings about the country), an evaluation element (how we evaluate the country) and a behavioral element (our behavior towards it) (Samaras, 2016).
communication, even if they are based on authentic characteristics applicable to only a place or a small segment of a given country.

- The process of promoting national image is effected with the interaction and practices from both advertising and public diplomacy.

- An art and cultural scene could build up a better livable place, able to receive the attention of the global media and consequently the potential cultural tourists.

However, in order to promote attractive cultural values and events to foreign visitors, an in-depth research and study are necessary in order to build up the image of a certain destination (Edwards, Martinac, & Miller, 2008). By systematically assessing the needs and characteristics of the areas, original markets are identified and the corresponding “cultural product” is designed to create new trends that are projected accordingly (Dulkeri, 2014). Thus, sustainable tourism development is achieved which, in the case of literary and musical tourism, contributes to building new types of cultural networks valuable to the cultural economy of the destination.

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PLACE BRANDING AND INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE: SPATIAL STRATEGIES AND INTERVENTIONS IN THE RUHR AREA

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Abstract

The shaping of a strong, recognizable and thus attractive identity of a place is closely linked to the process of effective planning, both in strategic and in physical level. Heritage is a common marketing tool that relied on the exploitation and presentation of, among others, urban forms related to the past. The re-packaging and re-use of historical structures and brownfields, remains of previous urban development models often provide the field for a landscape renewal underscored a link with the past. The Ruhr Valley has long been linked to the industrial history of Europe due to the concentration of mining and steel industry. Since the 1970s, these activities have been declining causing severe social and economic problems. Today the region is undergoing a restructuring process. This work will focus on: (a) some of the strategies and actions implemented to identify a new identity of the area with an emphasis on the development of the Emscher Landschaftspark; and (b) the way in which the old abandoned industrial facilities were used in the context of configuring this new identity.

The Emscher Landscape Park, developed in the 90s, offers an exceptional landscape of industrial culture and leisure activities. The related projects have improved the quality of life in the area while providing a network of attractions linked to the industrial heritage of the region. The revitalization or repurposing of the former industrial brownfields, is a major tool in this process for enhancement of the cities' but also the whole region's image. Following the presentation of the planning goals and principles for shaping the park, a series of examples of brownfields interventions will be presented (eg Zollverein Coal Mine Industrial Complex, Gasometer, Landschaftspark Duisburg-Nord etc) in order to identify a typology. The conclusions will include a summary and assessment of the goals and choices made and, finally, the characteristics of the new identity that is being sought to promote the area.

Keywords: Spatial planning, regional branding, industrial heritage, brownfields, remediation strategy
1. Aim

This work examines the case of the Ruhr Valley’s transformation through the shaping of a place brand, by focusing on the development of Emscher Landscape Park, a network of remediated post-industrial sites. The area has experienced big spatial and structural changes through its history and is en route to one more. The de-industrialization of the late 1980s follows an attempt to house new activities in the region according to the creation of a strong identity of cultural and recreational usages that feed back into the deprived employment and housing sectors. Thirty years after the birth of the initiative redevelopment projects proliferate and more post-industrial fields are adding to the network of the regenerated brownfields. The aim of this paper is to examine the gradual creation of this identity through the sites’ transformations by identifying typological characteristics between the network’s flagship projects.

2. Main approach

As the competition among cities and regions intensifies place branding is becoming increasingly important (Serraos and Asprogerakas, 2012) as it is recognized as a critical attraction factor for visitors, residents and investors (literature review in Hankinson, 2010 and examples in Dinnie, 2011) to develop activities such as tourism (Asprogerakas 2007). The shaping of a strong, recognizable and thus attractive identity of a place is closely linked to the process of effective planning, both in strategic and in physical level. This connection can be interactive. Place branding is an important source of urban planning strategy goals, which in turn can become an operational tool for shaping the city's image in order to serve and accompany that identity. This role of planning concerns both the spatial organization and development of urban centres as well as specific actions focused on urban interventions (Serraos & Asprogerakas, 2012).

A comprehensive theoretical framework for the investigation of place branding concept is provided by Kavaratzis (2008) with a decisive role attributed to “Primary Communication” related to the communicative effects of a city’s actions, and divided into four broad areas of intervention:

- Landscape Strategies refer to fields of actions and decisions that are relevant to urban design, architecture, public spaces and the use of heritage planning.
• Infrastructure Projects that are needed in a city in order for example to improve accessibility to various audiences, such as an airport or cultural centres and conference facilities.
• Organizational and Administrative Structure refer to the effectiveness and improvement of the city’s governing structure with key elements the involvement of citizens in decisions and the existence of public-private partnerships.
• City’s Behavior referring to issues as the city leaders’ vision for the city, the strategy adopted or the financial incentives provided by the city to various stakeholders.

In the same context, "secondary communication" refers to promotional actions such as advertising, public relations, logo use, etc. The model is complemented by "tertiary communication" which is not controlled by professionals and it is related to the "reputation" of the city as it is shaped by residents and visitors and spreading "mouth by mouth" through informal networks (Kavaratzis 2008: ch 3).

Some key trends in a spatial-type typology of strategies for obtaining a distinct and strong urban identity may be identified without this categorization being exhaustive:

• Attract or maintain top-level, high-income operations (headquarters of multinational companies, financial institutions, infrastructure and transnational services etc). Examples include the redevelopment of "Docklands" in London, "La Defence" in Paris, "Donau City" in Vienna, and even more recent attempts such as "Moscow City".
• "Catalyst actions", and major events, ranging from local festivals up to large commercial and technological exhibitions such as EXPO and major sporting events such as the Olympic Games. These are used mainly as a reason for mobilizing institutional and economic tools to revitalise areas or entire cities. One of the best-known examples is the successful rebirth of Barcelona for the 1992 Olympic Games, which has redeemed the city on the world map.
• "Flagship interventions", important works by famous architects and planners, or large-scale interventions. A typical example is the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, Spain, the work of the Canadian architect Frank Gehry. It operated in 1997 in a former industrial area of the city and was the trigger for the revival of its declining economy.
• Selection and development of a specific sector, such as tourism or culture, as a "vehicle" to exploit unique features or comparative....
advantages as well as the revitalization of inactive or degraded resources or areas.

“Employment through Culture” has been subject to intensive debate over the last decades and post-industrial cities usually show large investments in their cultural capital (Ward, 1998: 229-253). Heritage is a common marketing tool that relied on the exploitation and presentation of, among others, urban forms related to the past. The re-packaging and re-use of historical structures and brownfields, remains of previous urban development models often provide the field for a landscape renewal underscored a link with the past. The formation of a cultural policy connected to Urban Regeneration projects especially to formerly decayed areas like docks, derelict industrial and warehouse zones dates back to the end of the previous century (see examples from Europe in Bianchini & Parkin, 1993) as an expression of a new mode of urban management (Griffiths, 1995).

The culture industries are especially dependent on the synergies associated with metropolitan regions such as the Rhine-Ruhr area in Germany (Freund, 2002). In situations such as the polycentric urban region of the Rhine-Ruhr area, cities share ambiguous relations: on the one hand they are potential partners in strengthen the external profile of their region and on the other, they are potential competitors in attract investment. According to Goess, Jong & Meijers (2016) the Rhine-Ruhr regional identity formation occurs at the sub region level, coinciding more with historical economic profiles when at the same time cities in the Ruhr area struggle to rebuff their unfavorable image associated with industrial decline and shrinking population.

The importance of the "Organizational and Administrative Structure", which is a basic pillar of "primary communication" (Kavaratzis, 2008, Chapter 3.3) has already been mentioned. Public-private partnerships and corporate city marketing have emerged as important trends in urban marketing organizations for tourism in old industrial cities (Bramwell & Rawding, 1994). The private sector can contribute effectively through funding schemes or providing know-how, in cooperation with the public or even individually (Deffner & Liouris, 2005: 16). Strategic and urban planning governance processes may provide the framework for the emergence of participatory tools in the process of developing an effective urban marketing strategy and also for the civil society to acquire possession of the strategy (Serraos, Asrogerakas & Voulelis, 2017).
3. Key arguments

The area where Ruhr, Emscher, Lippe and Rhein flow was an agrarian and underpopulated field until the early 1900s, when the first transformation took place. The valley turned rapidly to a polycentric, industrial agglomeration for coal mining and steel production, which exploited the natural resources. The few pre-existing cities, such as Duisburg, Mülheim, Essen, Bochum and Dortmund, experienced the expansion of their medieval cores to big and compact urban fields. In 1951 North Rhein-Westphalia (NRW) held 40% of the total industrial production in West Germany, by producing 80% of steel and 90% of carbon (Goch, 2002). After World War II, the international shift to new energy sources (natural gas and oil) changed again the functional structure of the area. Traditional stakeholders like shipping, railways, steelworks and chemical industries needed fewer amounts of coal, while Germany also imported cheap carbon from the United States. During the 1960s the crisis deepened and affected the human capital of the agglomeration. From 1961 to 2011 Essen lost 23% of its population and Oberhausen an equally considerable 19% (Cox, 2013).

The de-industrialization of the region forced unfavorable economic, social and environmental impacts, such as unemployment, population decline and pollution. De-industrialization is visible all over the area through the vacant and degraded buildings and sites. The spreading of the industrial installations and the housing development trod on the natural landscape, while the remaining nature was sniped by highways, railways, water canals and sewers. The shrinkage of the industrial cities led to various initiatives focusing on the economic reconstruction of the Ruhr Area during the 1970s. Structural changes demanded a series of actions and programmes. The funds came from the European Union, the federal state and the state of North Rhein-Westphalia.

The related policies vary over time, adapting to the general trends and covering (Schwarze-Rodrian, 2018; Kunzmann, 2013; Keil & Wetterau, 2012):

- Production restructuring focusing / Introduction of new technologies
- Establishment of universities / education - training
- Rehabilitation of the environment / improvement of the quality of life

The effort to implement re-industrialization actions was limited, as the tertiary sector's jobs, the development of competitive activities and the regeneration of urban centers were soon emphasized.
The Ruhr area is nowadays a polycentric agglomeration of 53 municipalities. Eleven of them are major cities like Essen, Dortmund and Duisburg. Due to the transformational route of the past, the functional and administrative borders between the cities do not always coincide, while the settlements have highly sprawled outside the urban city cores. The valley is considered by the German state as a functional unit and one of the state’s metropolitan conurbations (Knapp, W., Kunzmann, K. R. and Schmitt, P. 2004), although spatial characteristics of the traditional metropolis such as a significant center and ring roads are absent. The institutionalization of the Ruhr region is being implemented through the Regional Association Ruhr (Regionanverbund Ruhr - RVR). The attempts for regionalization of Ruhrgebiet go back to 1920, when RVR was firstly established. In 1975 the association was disempowered, but during the 2000s it took over again governance and planning competencies for the area.

The brownfields existing all over the region constitute intervention fields in the post-industrial urban environment and cultural development is a feasible strategy for their reuse (Andres & Grésillon, 2013). The creation of Emscher Landscape Park (Emscher Landschaftspark), a regional park along the Emscher River, stretching 85km long from Duisburg to Bönen and covering the central part of the Ruhr Region, deployed the cultural place-branding strategy. The landscape park was an initiative of the International Architecture Exhibition (Internationale Bauaustellung - IBA) that took place there between the years 1989 and 1999. Aiming at the urban and the natural renovation of the area along the river Emscher and guided by the IBA, the project involved numerous stakeholders and funds both from the public and the private sector. The purpose of IBA was to provide the guidelines for an incremental reconstruction of the post-industrialized region. The impact is still visible through the continuity of the area’s transformation.

The spatial outcomes of IBA are significant and they are overall considered as an efficient approach (Kunzmann, 2013; Shaw, 2002). The evolution of co-operative values and the mobilization of local communities are distinguishing effects of the initiative. The project of IBA is regarded to be a forward momentum for the establishment of a regional administration character in an area where no clear signs of structural change, from the passive land-use planning policy to more strategic ones, has been noticed (Knapp, W., Kunzmann, K. R. and Schmitt, P. 2004). The policy gave prominence to many brownfields in the area which featured as the industrial heritage of the region. The sites were in various ways incorporated in the cultural and creative industry
of the area or accommodated new economic activities (Goch, 2002). Moreover IBA projects that were more coordinated to the North Rhine-Westphalia’s programs were prioritized in regards to state funding (Knapp, Kunzmann and Schmitt, 2004).

Figure 1: The Ruhr Industrial Heritage Trail. Source: http://www.route-industriekultur.ruhr/

In fact the endeavor was project-oriented and not plan-based. Some of the censures it received relate to the limited number of new jobs contrary to the primary goals. It is also considered that an emphasis was given to more elitist and symbolic projects than to the crucial social problems. It is described as a chance for new activities in regional scale, without thus constituting a holistic regional approach (Kunzmann, 2013; Kunzmann, 2004; Shaw, 2002).

The main strategy of IBA was the economic and social regeneration of the region through environmental and cultural interventions that can build an identity. Numerous and various projects were implemented under six guidelines: employment, housing, ecological renewal, urban development, social stimuli and the regionalization of the park. By the end of IBA in 1999 the Regional Association Ruhr planned the Industrial Heritage Trail (Route Industriekultur), a network between 25 points of interest, 17 industrial viewpoints and 13 settlements (fig.1). The network points out the industrial history of the Ruhr area and it is a
part of the European Route of Industrial Heritage. A bike path 1200km long was also implemented in the landscape park. One of the region’s main activities is thus tourism, which presents a growth rate starkly bigger than the state’s equivalent (Schwarze-Rodrian, 2018). This work focuses on the flagship projects of recycled brownfields and the way they structured a new identity for the region. The Gasometer in Oberhausen, the Jahrhunderthalle in Bochum, the Zeche Zollverein, the Duisburg-Nord Landscape Park, the Duisburg Innenhafen and Phoenixsee at Dortmund are being examined in order to identify typological characteristics among them.

Figure 2: The "Gasometer", outside view (left). The coking plant artificial channel, Zollverein Coal Mine Industrial Complex (right). Source: E. Asprogerakis

Gasometer, Oberhausen
In Oberhausen, a small city in the north of Emscher and between Duisburg and Essen, there is the cultural and exhibition space of Gasometer. It is about a former gas repository that served the local steelwork from 1929 to 1988 (fig.2). In 1992 the local council of Oberhausen decided to reuse the empty circular construction as an exhibition area, rejecting the thoughts for its dismantling. Remarkable art exhibitions have taken place in the former gas storage which is a principal hub of the European Route of Industrial Heritage. The Gasometer is functionally separated from the nearby commercial centre, also shaped in a former industrial field, since the development of synergies between them was hitherto not feasible (Schwarze-Rodrian, 2018; Keil & Wetterau, 2012).

Jahrhunderthalle, Bochum

Jahrhunderthalle is a festival hall in Stahhausen, Bochum. It lies in the centre of Westpark, one of the pre-industrial fields that turned to cultural landscapes in Ruhrgebiet, after 1985, when the industries accommodated there collapsed. It was built in 1902 as a pavilion for the Bochum Association in the Düsseldorf Industrial and Trade Exhibition. The initial snap-together steel construction was later integrated in the Bochum steelwork as a gas-fired power plant and lately as a repository. In 1991 a first concert performed inside the hall as part of planning initiatives and in 2003 the building was converted into a festival theater that hosts the Ruhrtriennale cultural fest and various other music concerts, as well as theatrical productions, exhibitions and reward ceremonies. A company directed by the municipality has undertaken the theater's management.

Zollverein Coal Mine Industrial Complex, Essen

Zeche Zollverein and Kokerei is a cultural park formed in the former coal mining areas near Essen, where the largest coal mine in the world operated during the 20th century. In 1986 it was the last coal mine in Essen that stopped operations. The state of North Rhine-Westphalia purchased the area and declared one of the shafts as a heritage site. The site is not only important for its industrial history, but also due to the original Bauhaus architectural forms of the buildings. UNESCO has thus included the Zollverein in the list of World Heritage Sites since 2001 and it is also a hub in the European Route of Industrial Heritage. One of the restored buildings houses the regional museum for the Ruhr area, designed by Rem Koolhaas. The park accommodates recreation and dining usages too. Many of the industrial remnants act as exhibits themselves (fig.2). A foundation under the same name, established and funded by the NRW State, manages the operation and protection of the site since 1998.
**Duisburg-Nord Landscape Park**

The landscape park in the north part of Duisburg is a cultural, environmental and recreation area and an industrial monument on its own. It was integrated to the planning targets of IBA in 1991 after its purchase by the city of Duisburg. Duisburg-Nord Landscape Park belonged to the Thyssen steel industry and operated until 1985. The strategic goal of the restoration was the remediation of the landscape and the water canals so that the natural environment clusters around the industrial landscape. Most of the infrastructures are kept to their first industrial state as self-evident monuments, while some have been reused for recreation and leisure activities (fig.3). A lighting installation is one of the most popular acts in the park. The masterplan was a subject of architectural competition won by Peter Latz landscape-architect.

**Duisburg Innenhafen**

The inner port of Duisburg is also a hub of the European Route of Industrial Heritage and one of the first phase’s IBA projects in the Ruhr area. The masterplan of the port, a subject of architectural competition, was designed by Norman Foster’s architectural firm. It is about a residential, business and administrative, cultural and recreation hub.
Küppersmühle, the former flour mills, was converted to contemporary arts museum by Herzog and de Meuron architects. During the intense industrialization of the region and until the mid-1960s the inner port was a significant junction for the grain commerce. The principal goal of the port’s revitalization was the shaping of a flexible framework able to develop individual interventions in different timeframes. Between Innenfahen and the city center of Duisburg a modern residential area developed along the canals that flow to the Rhine River.

*Phoenix, Dortmund*

The Phoenix brownfield consists of the east and the west part of the former steelwork in Hörde region of Dortmund. It is an emblematic area for the Ruhr Region since Phoenix AG was the fourth greater industry in Germany in 1906. The blast furnaces in Phoenix-West produced cast iron that was transferred on a railroad (Eliasbahn) to Phoenix-Ost (east part) for further processing (fig.4). In 2001 ThyssenKrupp AG, the last owner of the industry, closed it down and the city of Dortmund took on the utilization of the site by forming the “Dortmund Project”. The restoration of Phoenix-Ost completed in 2011. It is a 96ha housing development surrounding an artificial lake, the Phoenix See (fig 4). Dining, recreation and sport usages are adding to the whole, along with the luxurious residences. The lake superseded the former industrial facilities, which were totally removed from the area and the land was reclaimed. Phoenix See was designed by the municipal planning authorities. On the west side of Hörde most of the industrial remnants have been kept as self-referential monuments. The area, which is under reconstruction, hosts a technological and recreation campus and a public park. A private corporation in consultation with the city has taken over the shaping of Phoenix-West, which is already a tourist attraction.

The above projects are being examined into the following table in regards to main characteristics of the place branding transformation. The intervention timescale affiliates with the incremental character of the momentum. The actors refer to the examination of co-operative management as a cornerstone of the initiative. The planners have to do with the creation of the place brand by the designing point of view, while the ways of intervention add to the discussion around heritage management. Finally the new usages are examined as the way these sites were feasibly revitalized under a new coherent identity.
Figure 4: Phoenix, Dortmund: Viaduct Hympendahlbrücke (Eliasbahn) (left). Phoenix See urban development, partial view (right). Source: E. Asprogerakas.

Table 1: Main characteristics of the interventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project / Planners</th>
<th>Place/ Former usage/ Closing down</th>
<th>Intervention timescale</th>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Ways of intervention</th>
<th>New usages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duisburg Nord / Latz + Partner landscape architects</td>
<td>Duisburg, north region Steelwork 1985</td>
<td>1990-2002</td>
<td>IBA, City of Duisburg, Emschergenossenschaft Essen (public), Kommunalverband Ruhrgebiet (Ruhr Regional association – public), Landesentwicklungsgesellschaft Nordrhein-Westfalen (housing company – private ltd)</td>
<td>restoration, conversion, land reclaim</td>
<td>recreation, leisure and sports activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Key Dates</td>
<td>organization</td>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Details</td>
</tr>
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<td>--------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Duisburg</strong>&lt;br&gt;Innenhafen /&lt;br&gt;Norman Foster&lt;br&gt;(master-plan),&lt;br&gt;Herzog and de Meuron&lt;br&gt;(Küppersmühle Museum)</td>
<td>Duisburg, Inland (trade) port mid-1960s</td>
<td>1990-1994 (first master-plan)&lt;br&gt;1995 (Kontorhaus opening)&lt;br&gt;2007 (second master-plan) ongoing</td>
<td>IBA, City of Duisburg</td>
<td>conversion and new constructions</td>
<td>cultural, dining, recreational -leisure, services, administrative, residential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jahrhundert halle /</strong>&lt;br&gt; Petzinka-Pink architects</td>
<td>Bochum, Westpark Gas fired power plant</td>
<td>1991 (heritage site)&lt;br&gt;2003 (implementation)</td>
<td>IBA, City of Bochum, North Rhein-Westphalia State, Landesentwicklungsgeellschaft Nordrhein-Westfalen GmbH (housing company – private ltd)</td>
<td>conversion</td>
<td>cultural, recreational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gasometer Oberhausen</strong></td>
<td>Oberhausen Neue Mitte Gas repository 1988</td>
<td>1993-1994 (implementation)</td>
<td>IBA, City of Oberhausen, Babcock AG (public ltd)</td>
<td>conversion</td>
<td>cultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zeche Zollverein</strong>&lt;br&gt;and Kokerei /&lt;br&gt;OMA - Rem Koolhaas</td>
<td>Essen (outskirts) Coal mine 1986 Zollverein 1993 Kokerei</td>
<td>1990 (reclaim)&lt;br&gt;2001 (UNESCO heritage site and master-plan)&lt;br&gt;2010 (Ruhr Museum opening) ongoing</td>
<td>Zollverein Foundation (in concentration with regional and local historic monument conservation authorities)</td>
<td>restoration, conversion, land reclaim</td>
<td>cultural, recreational , creative industries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PhonixSee</strong>&lt;br&gt;(east) /&lt;br&gt;municipal planning authorities</td>
<td>Dortmund, Hörde Steelwork (plant) 2001</td>
<td>2001 (reclaim)&lt;br&gt;2011 (lake fill)&lt;br&gt;2018</td>
<td>City of Dortmund, Stadtwerke AG (municipal/public ltd)</td>
<td>Dismantling, land reclaim, artificial landscape</td>
<td>residential, dining, recreational -leisure and sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phoenix-West</strong>&lt;br&gt;World of Walas&lt;br&gt;(urban development company)</td>
<td>Dortmund, Hörde Steelwork (blast furnaces) 1998</td>
<td>2018 - ongoing</td>
<td>City of Dortmund, Landesentwicklungsgesellschaft Nordrhein-Westfalen (housing company – private ltd),</td>
<td>Dismantling, restoration and new constructions</td>
<td>services, knowledge, technologie s, logistics, residential, recreational -leisure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Conclusions

What can be derived from the analysis is that IBA gave a boost to the region, and almost 20 years later post-industrial sites like Phoenix-West are still being remediated and redeveloped. The process of place branding formation is based on physical planning interventions, emphasizing on highlighting the industrial heritage of the area with the involvement of well-known architects and planners. The synergies between public and private actors are basic and consistent assets of the endeavor confirming the importance of the organizational and administrative structure.

The character of the changes seems to shift from the cultural and touristic reuse after public impulse to business redevelopment projects in terms of real-estate management. At the same time new ways of intervention come forward. During the first phase of the projects restoration and conversion of the buildings were the main approaches for their reuse and that was a successful policy in order to create a strong cultural character based on heritage esteem, judging by the promising global publicity of the sites. As A. Freundt (2002) pointed out, the Emscher Park International Building Exhibition, offered not only a major contribution to preserving the region’s industrial heritage, but also created the infrastructure for cultural tourism and for culture industries. The complete dismantling of Phoenix-Ost, the partial restoration in Phoenix-West and the real estate oriented further development of Duisburg Innenhafen could be signs of a new attitude against industrial heritage, while simultaneously the new technologic-business usages add different characteristics to the previously clearly cultural and touristic landscape park. The industrial history of the place as the spine of the network is strong and still active as a place brand. The expansion of the regeneration attempt is in fact being adapted to the contemporary circumstances and developing synergies in the area.

The approach was based on a landscape oriented strategy and the use of heritage planning and proved to be able to meet the common need of the various cities to strengthen their external profile although they were potential competitors in attract investment. The public sector has been the leader regarding the implementation initiatives and funding.
Projects can be classified as “Flagship” at regional level and in aggregate they constitute a “large-scale” intervention. However, what could be kept as a remark is the project-based orientation of the place-branding strategy instead of a holistic regional approach of interventions that could be incorporated into mainstream planning processes providing an enduring policy model. The culture industries can only be one part of a whole regional development strategy (Freund, 2002) based on a holistic approach and supported by spatial planning initiatives.

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THAILAND TOURISM CRISSES AND IMAGE REPAIR STRATEGIES

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Abstract

Many academics and professionals believe that there is a strong connection between a positive image and continued tourism growth. Thailand is considered to be one of the strongest tourism brands in the Asia and tourism remains its dominant industry, accounting for 9.4% of its annual GDP in 2017. Over the past decade the country has suffered many crises such as natural disaster, terrorist attacks, and internal political tensions. As can be expected, all of these crises were reported in the international media and had a negative effect on the flow of tourism into the country. By adopting the "multi-step model for altering place image," (Avraham & Ketter, 2016) —which offers three types of strategies to use in order to repair a destination’s negative image during and after a crisis: source, message and audience—this study includes qualitative content analysis of news reports published between the years 2004 and 2019 in the international press (such as the New York Times, Washington Post, London Times and Guardian), a tourism news website (eTurbonews), press interviews and relevant elements and components (such as logos, visuals, slogans) of the country’s advertising campaigns (as appear in the in Tourism Authority of Thailand and YouTube) in order to uncover media policy, strategies, events and marketing initiatives used by the Tourism Authority of Thailand, marketers and officials to restore a positive image of their country and bring back tourists after crises.

Previous studies dealing with tourism crises in general, and Thailand in particular, focused primarily on examining individual case studies but did not propose a long-term analysis of image restoration efforts throughout the years, nor did they rely on the knowledge that exists in the field of crisis communications and destination image repair (Rittichainuwat, & Chakraborty, 2009; Cohen & Neal, 2010). The analysis shows that three types of strategies were used by Thailand marketers to repair the country’s image: source (such as cooperation with the media, hosting opinion leaders, social media campaigns), message (such as limiting the scale of the crisis, acknowledged the crisis) and audience (such as targeting resilient audiences and niche
markets). A variety of other marketing initiatives and means such as public relations, events and other techniques were used since 2004.

Keywords: destination marketing, nation branding, tourism crisis, image repair, Thailand tourism, crisis communication
Abstract

Branding strategies of places are an important tool for managing the flows of human capital. At the same time, the diversification of the labour force predetermines the specificity of the region and influences its brand. Considering that strong and effective place brands must be based on a clear vision, local governments become the key players in the elaboration, implementation and maintenance of the brand. A regional brand is multidimensional, and regional policy aiming to gain talents is one of the components.

Considering the necessity of measurement of the results of regional policies and as well to compare the attractiveness of the regions for a special group of human capital - talents, indexes can be used. The current study aims to answer the question: how the attractiveness of Polish voivodeships differs from the perspective of gaining talents. The research design is based on the place branding theory and is of exploratory nature. To achieve the aim of the study, a ranking of Polish voivodeships was made based on the Global Talent Competitiveness Index. The ranking was made using TOPSIS method. The index is constructed from five dimensions of the territorial attractiveness regarding gaining talents: enable, attract, grow, retain, be global. In general, the results show that the voivodeships possess good socio-economic and development conditions, however, the opportunities for talents and their global integration are less advanced. The outcomes of the study enable identification of the most and the least attractive voivodeships for gaining talents. The findings will help to recognize the potential of the Polish region for talent attraction and retention and contribute to overall knowledge about place branding for talent management in Eastern European countries.

Keywords: regional branding, talent management, CEE countries, government
Introduction

For sustainable development, territorial units regardless of the size compete for finance, business, human resources (Ashworth, Voogt 1994). Regions can be defined as "a naturally historical space where people living within its boundaries carry out social, economic and public activities" (Skorobogatykh et al, 2017). Due to the variety of factors available on a particular territory, regions offer sets of conditions, that allow to distinguish them from other and thus, to create a unique brand.

Because of the growing competition among regions, marketing and branding components are becoming the essential parts of the regional strategies (Boisen et al., 2018). Place branding (including region branding) is becoming more and more popular, both, as a research area and a practice used by local governments (Kavaratzis, Hatch, 2013). As a research area, place branding is an evolving multi-disciplinary domain covering a large variety of topics and disciplines, including urban planning, marketing, public policy and sociology (Lucarelli, Berg 2011). Since people, capital and knowledge are increasingly less related to the location, the development of places as brands helps to foster an environment capable of attracting new forms of activity and key groups, including the labour force (Konecnik, Ruzzier, de Chernatony, 2013). Talents play a special role in the latter group, and their attraction is of important goals for a place branding (Kotler et al. 1993).

Talents are one of the most desirable labour groups because of their higher productivity (O’Boyle, Aguinis 2012; Khilji et al. 2015), One of the broadest and universal definitions of talents is suggested by Knap-Stefaniuk and Karna, (2017): "talent is associated with high intellectual level, outstanding abilities, creative thinking, fast learning, readiness for unconventional action, making changes and taking risks".

Currently, in the place branding literature exists a variety of definitions of the “place brand” (Gertner, 2011). Zenker, Braun (2010) define a place brand as “a network of associations in the place consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place’s stakeholders and the overall place design”.

Contemporary place branding goes beyond the traditional place promotion and focuses on creating a strong brand image capable of binding together the functional and new symbolic meanings of the given place towards a more effective approach (Boisen et al. 2018). Authors frequently mention the following elements of a regional brand: the existing and desirable image of the territory; values and resources that the territory possesses; tools and activities for communication and
promotion the information about the territory (Skorobogatykh et al, 2017; Zenker and Braun, 2017). Individuals have a different perception of the places they live in; and consider different criterium in their migration decisions (Darchen, Tremblay, 2010).

Economic development of the region is the primary criterium for attracting talents. However, intangible criteria are essential as well (Eggert, Schweyer 2007). Adopting the outcomes of a study related to talent management in companies, it can be mentioned that personal preferences, priorities, and perceptions strongly influence where and how relocation takes place, and that the impressions, image, and perceptions of the location are among the critical factors considered (Greenhalgh, 2008; Winkowska et al. 2019; Martínez González, Kobylińska 2019). Besides the economic development and technological progress, regional policy influences the global mass mobility including the labour force (Romão et al, 2018).

The paper aims to identify the level of diversification of Polish voivodeships in terms of their attractiveness for gaining talents. The research design is based on the place branding theory. The aim was achieved by the construction of the ranking of regions adopting the methodology suggested by INSEAD in the Global Talent Competitiveness Index. The research sample includes all Polish voivodeships constituting one of the levels of the local government and being currently in the administrative structure.

The initiative of creating the ranking originates from the observation that nowadays the role of indexes is growing both among practitioners and scholars. As for the policymakers, indexes can be a tool providing the possibility of measurement achievement of goals set in the policies, specifically of the goals based on indicators (Cerna, Chou 2019).

The ranking was constructed using TOPSIS method. In order to create the ranking, the authors conducted a desk-research analysis of statistical data regarding socio-economic development of Polish regions. The research is of exploratory nature. The outcomes of the research will serve as a background for designing further studies on the different groups of talents. The findings will help to recognize the potential of the Polish region for talent attraction and retention and contribute to overall knowledge about destination branding for talent management in Eastern European countries.
**Literature review**

Both practical implementation and academic literature distinguish between two directions in the area of the talent management research: corporate (micro) and government (macro) level. The current paper is concentrated on the government aspect of talent management. Macro talent management can be defined as “the activities that are systematically developed by governmental and non-governmental organisations expressly for the purpose of enhancing the quality and quantity of talent within and across countries and regions to facilitate innovation and competitiveness of their citizens and corporations” (King, Vaiman, 2019; Khilji et al., 2015). Micro- and macro levels of talent management are closely interrelated; macro activities create a broader context for enterprises, while enterprises undergo a deeper contact with talent and have a direct influence on its retention.

Silvanto and Ryan (2018) state, the “appeals traditionally associated with nation branding- such as quality of life and human capital are not essential to stress if a country wishes to maximize its ability to attract and retain talent in the short term; however, they are important for more long-term efforts to change a country’s brand image”. They also suggest, that “countries that fail to emphasize the availability of employment opportunities and acceptance of foreigners will not necessarily be successful at maximizing their potential to attract and retain talent from abroad, even if they have relatively positive images as places to live” (Silvanto, Ryan 2018). The mentioned above point of view is shared by Darchen and Tremblay (2010) who figured out during the empirical studies that employment opportunities are among the key factors to emphasise in the regional brand.

It is commonly believed, the integration of the marketing activities into strategies of development can support territories in attracting visitors or residents, that is why the number of territorial units using marketing tools is growing during the last decades (Boisen et al, 2018). A growing number of practitioners and scholars acknowledge that the branding aspect of place marketing is key to leveraging the tangible and intangible characteristics of places in order to attract investment, tourism and potential new residents, and since the mechanisms for attracting and retaining are similar, for the purpose of the current study we expand this range to retaining residents as well (Noronha et al, 2017). The national governments use nation branding to attract skilled professionals from abroad as a means of enhancing both their human capital stock and their economic competitiveness (Silvanto, Ryan 2018). However, branding of the smaller territorial units, such as regions, metropolises and cities is essential as well.
Over the years marketing approach used by the self-governments has evolved and become more sophisticated: from the promotion-based approach to a more strategic and holistic view of the marketing of places (Noronha et al., 2017). Place brands is a complex system of different elements. In their Citizen Satisfaction Index, Zenker et al. (2013) suggest that the overall satisfaction with a place can mainly be explained by four distinct basic factors: *urbanity & diversity* (openness and tolerance of a city; many different cultures and subcultures; the energy of a city; the urban image of a city; a variety of shopping opportunities; a wide range of cultural activities), *nature & recreation* (a number of parks and open spaces; tranquility of the place; access to water; low pollution; a wide range of outdoor-activities), *job chances* (professional networks in the city; general economic growth of the particular region; good job and promotion opportunities; the general level of wages); *cost-efficiency* (the general price level in the city; costs of living; housing market; availability of apartments and houses). Another group of researchers, Silvanto and Ryan (2018), recognize five core dimensions, influencing the talent attraction brand: *employment and economic opportunity* (employment, economic dynamism and opportunity); *cultural diversity* (a degree of commitment by the host-country to being welcoming of foreigners); *clear immigration policies* (legal and regulatory factors); *professional and ethnic networks* (geographic concentration of talent and specific professions); *quality of life* (features of a location, such as cultural amenities and opportunities for social interactions with others). It can be noticed that the mentioned above sets of factors are similar contain elements allowing to enable, attract and retain residents, including talents. Though Silvanto and Ryan (2018) additionally point out the importance of clear immigration policies.

The desired differentiation from the other regions is achieved by the way in which a local government presents itself in an attempt to create a favourable image which positively affects how it is perceived (Cleave et al., 2017). In order to elaborate an appropriate image, needs and opinions of different stakeholders should be taken into consideration, and among the key roles of the local governments can be named facilitation of the dialogue of those groups and delegation of responsibilities in the realization of the region’s brand (Kavaratzis, 2012; Stubbs, Warnaby, 2015).

In order to simplify and make more understandable the comparison of different territories in the frames of attractiveness for talents, several talent indexes are applied. The most general indices are the Global Talent Competitiveness Index (GTCI) and IMD World Talent Ranking.
The indices have some differences and similarities, and their brief description is represented in table 1.

Table 1. Description of the rankings identifying the attractiveness of regions from the talents’ perspectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index Title</th>
<th>The Global Talent Competitiveness Index (GTCI)</th>
<th>IMD World Talent Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developer</td>
<td>INSEAD</td>
<td>Institute for Management Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aim</td>
<td>To provide governments, businesses, and various other stakeholders with quantitative instruments that can inform their decisions ... and can help them design and implement better policies (INSEAD 2019)</td>
<td>The IMD World Talent Ranking assesses the status and the development of competencies necessary for enterprises and the economy to achieve long term value creation (IMD 2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Territories Covered</td>
<td>Countries and Cities</td>
<td>Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Pillars and Variables</td>
<td>Countries: Enable (regulatory, market, business and labour landscapes), Attract (external and internal openness), Grow (formal education, lifelong learning, access to growth opportunities), Retain (sustainability, lifestyle), Vocational and Technical Skills (mid-level skills, employability), Global Knowledge Skills (high-level skills, talent impact). Cities: Enable (R&amp;D expenditure, ICT access (households with internet), Presence of Forbes Global 2000 companies), Attract</td>
<td>Investment and Development (Total public expenditure on education, Public expenditure on education (per pupil), Pupil-teacher ratio (primary), Pupil-teacher ratio (secondary), Apprenticeship, Employee training, Female labor force, Health infrastructure), Appeal (Cost of living, Attracting and retaining, Worker motivation, Brain drain, Quality of life, Foreign skilled people, Remuneration in services professions, Remuneration of management, Effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological Aspects</td>
<td>The GTCI and its components are simple arithmetic averages of the underlying variables. It has a very high statistical reliability (a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.97). Data types: Hard/quantitative data, Index/composite indicator data, Survey/qualitative data.</td>
<td>Each factor, independently of the number of criteria it contains, has the same weight in the overall consolidation of results that is 1/3. Uses two data types: hard and soft (surveys).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Territories Covered</td>
<td>Countries: 125 Cities: 114</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of Origin</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: own development based on (IMD, 2019) and (INSEAD 2019)*

As the table 1 shows, the indices appeared at the same time period: 2013-2014 years. Though the aims sound different, both indexes can serve as tools for quantitative measurement of achievements of policies and detect further directions for development. For the construction of both indices the method of arithmetic averages is used. GCTI gives a broader perspective on global regional competition for talents because it covers twice more countries and additionally offers a ranking for cities.
The basic pillars of GTCI index and their explanation are closely interrelated with talent management definition suggested by Cappelli and Keller (2014), Stahl et al. (2012). Attracting talent, in the context of national competitiveness, “is focused on the growth of the talent pool – external attraction involving appropriate immigration, as well as internal attraction focused on removing barriers to entering the talent pool. Growing talent besides education, covers apprenticeships, training and continuous education, in addition to experience and access to growth opportunities. The more talented the person, the better the global opportunities he or she can find elsewhere. Retaining talent is thus necessary to ensure sustainability, and one of its main components is quality of life. Furthermore, the regulatory, market and business landscapes in a country can facilitate or impede talent attraction and growth” (INSEAD 2019). At the same time, though IMD index construct the pillars in a different logic, the variables it covers can be referred to the definition either. Investment and development pillar means „the investment in and development of home-grown talent” (IMD 2019) and can be associated with attraction and development. The pillar “appeal” means “the extent to which a country taps into the overseas talent pool” (IMD 2019) and can be associated with retention. The pillar “readiness” means “the availability of skills and competencies in the talent pool” (IMD 2019) and can be associated with retention either.

**Research methods**

To achieve the aim of current study a desk-research of the situation in the Polish voivodeships regarding talent attraction and retention was made, with the consequent evaluation according to the selected criterium and ranking. As for benchmark, the GTCI was used. GTCI is a “comprehensive annual benchmarking measuring how countries and cities grow, attract and retain talent, providing a unique resource for decision makers to understand the global talent competitiveness picture and develop strategies for boosting their competitiveness” (INSEAD 2019).

For the purpose of the current study the variables used for the cities’ evaluation were selected and adopted. The study is constructed using the hard data and indexes, no soft data was implemented. Due to difficulties with access to some data on the voivodeships’ level, some of the variables were substituted with similar. The table 2 represents two groups of variables: originally used by INSEAD and adopted for current study, and their division into five pillars. The values of variables were
obtained from Central Statistical Office of Poland (including local data bank), National Bank of Poland, Forbes Poland, Rating “Perspektywy”.

**Table 2. Variables and sources used for voivodeships ranking**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pillar</th>
<th>GTCI by INSEAD</th>
<th>Own study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable</td>
<td>1.1 Gross expenditure on R&amp;D (% of GDP)</td>
<td>X1.1. Intramural expenditures on R&amp;D per 1 resident by voivodeships in 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 ICT access (% households with internet access at home)</td>
<td>X1.2. Individuals using the Internet at home in the last 3 months in 2017, %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Presence of Forbes Global 2000 companies</td>
<td>X1.3. Presence of Forbes Polish 100 companies 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attract</td>
<td>2.1 GDP per capita</td>
<td>X2.1. Gross domestic product per capita by region in 2017 (current prices), Poland=100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 Quality of life</td>
<td>X2.2. Indicator of average monthly available income per capita in households compared to the national average (Poland = 100) in 2017, %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3 Environmental quality</td>
<td>X2.3. Emissions of dusty pollutants, Poland=100, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow</td>
<td>3.1 Major universities (%)</td>
<td>X3.1. Presence of the major universities in top-50 of the ranking “Perspektywy” 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 Tertiary enrolment (%)</td>
<td>X3.2. Higher school students per 10 thousand population, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.3 Individuals in social networks (%)</td>
<td>X3.3. Use of social media for private purposes, % of population, 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X3.4. Percentage of companies using foreign labour force, September 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retain</td>
<td>4.1 Personal safety score</td>
<td>X4.1. Feeling safe in the place of residence by voivodeship (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be Global</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Physician density (physicians per 1000 people)</td>
<td>4.2. Doctors working by primary job per 10,000 population, 2017</td>
<td>people 16 or older), response &quot;very safe&quot;, 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Monthly expenses for four-person family (PPP-adjusted US$)</td>
<td>4.3. Average monthly outgoings per capita in households in 2017, zł</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Rent per month, three-bedroom apartment city centre (PPP-adjusted US$)</td>
<td>4.4. Sale of apartment, transaction prices, primary market, pln/1 sq. m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Workforce with tertiary education (%)</td>
<td>5.1. Workforce with tertiary education (%), 2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Population with tertiary education (%)</td>
<td>5.2. Graduates of the higher educational schools, per 10,000 population, 2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Airport connectivity (largest airport servicing the city; adjusted by population)</td>
<td>5.3. Non-profit organisations, operating beyond the borders, 2016, %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Intergovernmental organisations (number of IGOs adjusted by population)</td>
<td>5.4. Foreigners aged 18 and over residing in Poland, by voivodship, % to overall number of foreigners in Poland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration based on (INSEAD 2019)

The table 2 shows all the variables considered in the ranking are shared between 5 pillars: enable (demand for talents), attract (quality of life factors), grow (networking and development factors), retain (socio-economic factors), be global (conditions for global integration). The names of the variables in the original ranking and current study are different; however, the sense remains the same. From the analysis the variable “airport connectivity” was excluded because the data for all the voivodeships is not available. In addition to the variables suggested by INSEAD, variables regarding the cultural diversity were added: X3.4 and X5.4, that refer to the classification offered by Silvanto and Ryan (2018). As for the sources for the majority of variables, the data provided by Central Statistics Office of Poland was used (Local Data Bank and Statistics Poland). In order to retain the data comparable, the
majority of the data was selected for the year 2017. For the statistical purposes, all the variables are divided into stimulants and destimulants. Only two of the variables (X2.3 and X4.4) are destimulants, while all the rest are stimulants.

The study process included the following activities: 1. Collection of the available data on individual diagnostic variables; 2. Normalisation of variables in order to make them comparable; 3. Determination of synthetic variables for individual and total pillars using the Topsis method. The latter activity allowed the construction of rankings and ratings of voivodeships with respect to the particular pillars and the total result (which can be defined as the regional attractiveness for gaining talents).

The idea of the TOPSIS method is to determine the distance between the considered objects and the ideal and anti-perfect solution. The final result of the analysis is a synthetic indicator forming a ranking of the examined objects. The best object is considered to be the one that has the shortest distance from the ideal solution and at the same time the biggest distance from the anti-perfect solution (Hwang, 1981).

**Research results**

The TOPSIS method was used to construct the ranking of voivodeships. Thus, new variables - synthetic variables - were obtained. The rating of voivodeships was elaborated regarding all the pillars and overall result. For this purpose, for each synthetic variable a minimum value ($x_{\text{min}}$), a maximum value ($x_{\text{max}}$), an arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) and a standard deviation of $S_x$ were determined. Based on these measures, four sections were defined, that were used to create the rating of voivodeships:

- ($x_{\text{min}}$; $\bar{x} - S_x$) - very low section
- ($\bar{x} - S_x$; $\bar{x}$) - low section
- ($\bar{x}$; $\bar{x} + S_x$) - high section
- ($\bar{x} + S_x$; $x_{\text{max}}$) - very high section

The results of ranking and rating are gathered in the table 3.

*Table 3. Ranking and rating of the attractiveness of voivodeships in the terms of gaining talents (the overall approach and for each pillar)*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Enable Rating</th>
<th>Attract Rating</th>
<th>Grow Rating</th>
<th>Retain Rating</th>
<th>Be Global Rating</th>
<th>Total Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mazowieckie</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Małopolskie</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>2 high</td>
<td>2 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dolnośląskie</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>6 high</td>
<td>3 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wielkopolskie</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>6 high</td>
<td>4 high</td>
<td>4 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Śląskie</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>very high</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>1 4 high</td>
<td>6 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomorskie</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>4 high</td>
<td>5 high</td>
<td>6 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmińsko-mazurskie</td>
<td>Low 1 4</td>
<td>low 1 5</td>
<td>High 3</td>
<td>8 low</td>
<td>8 low</td>
<td>high 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lubelskie</td>
<td>Low 1 1</td>
<td>low 1 4</td>
<td>High 7</td>
<td>low 9</td>
<td>low 8</td>
<td>8 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Łódzkie</td>
<td>Low 8 high 5</td>
<td>Low 1 0</td>
<td>Low 9 low</td>
<td>9 low</td>
<td>1 1 low</td>
<td>9 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kujawsko-pomorskie</td>
<td>Low 1 0</td>
<td>low 9</td>
<td>Low 1 2</td>
<td>high 5</td>
<td>1 2 low</td>
<td>1 0 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lubuskie</td>
<td>Low 1 0</td>
<td>low 1 6</td>
<td>low 1 6</td>
<td>1 1 low</td>
<td>low 7</td>
<td>1 1 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zachodniopomorskie</td>
<td>Low 9 high 6</td>
<td>Low 1 1</td>
<td>Low 1 3</td>
<td>low 1 3</td>
<td>low 1 2</td>
<td>1 2 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opolskie</td>
<td>Low 1 2</td>
<td>low 1 3</td>
<td>Low 9</td>
<td>low 1 5</td>
<td>low 1 4</td>
<td>1 3 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podlaskie</td>
<td>Low 1 3</td>
<td>low 1 1</td>
<td>Low 1 3</td>
<td>low 1 6</td>
<td>low 1 0</td>
<td>1 4 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podkarpackie</td>
<td>Low 7</td>
<td>low 1 6</td>
<td>low 1 4</td>
<td>1 0 low</td>
<td>low 1 5</td>
<td>1 5 low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Świętokrzyskie</td>
<td>Low 1 5</td>
<td>low 1 2</td>
<td>low 1 5</td>
<td>low 1 2</td>
<td>low 1 6</td>
<td>1 6 low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration.

The first place in the ranking belongs to Mazowieckie voivodeship, where the capital of Poland, Warsaw, is located. It has rates “very high”
for each of the pillars. On the second place is Małopolskie voivodeship, that has two ranks “very high” (for the pillars “retain” and “be global”), two ranks “high” (pillars “enable” and “grow”), and rate “low” for the pillar “attract”. The last positions in the ranking belong to Podkarpackie and Świętokrzyskie voivodeships, having rates “low” and “very low” for all the pillars. The highest number of the rates “very high” is in the pillar “attract”: total 3 voivodeships - Mazowieckie, Wielkopolskie, Śląskie. The largest number of the rates “high” is in the pillar “grow”: total 7 voivodeships – Małopolskie, Dolnośląskie, Wielkopolskie, Śląskie, Pomorskie, Warmińsko-mazurskie, Lubelskie. The highest number of the rate “low” is in the pillar “enable”: total 10 voivodeships - Warmińsko-mazurskie, Lubelskie, Łódzkie, Kujawsko-pomorskie, Lubuskie, Zachodniopomorskie, Opolskie, Podlaskie, Podkarpackie, Świętokrzyskie. The highest number of the rate “very low” is in the pillar “grow”: total 3 voivodeships – Lubuskie, Podkarpackie, Świętokrzyskie. In the pillar “enable” none of the voivodeships have the rank “very low”. In general, it can be observed that for the majority of voivodeships the ranks and rates vary in different pillars. The exception is Mazowieckie voivodeship that has “very high” rates at all the pillars.

Speaking about the pillars, the higher performance is in the pillar “retain”, representing socio-economic factors. Two voivodeships in the pillar have “very high” rates, six “high” rates, six “low” rates, and two “very low” rates. The second best pillar is “grow”, representing networking and development factors. One voivodeship in the pillar has “very high” rate, seven have “high” rates, five “low” rates, and three “very low” rates. The next pillar is “attract”, representing quality of life factors. Three voivodeships in the pillar have “very high” rates, three “high” rates, nine “low” rates, and one “very low” rates. The following pillar is “be global”, representing conditions for global integration. Two voivodeships in the pillar have “very high” rates, four “high” rates, eight “low” rates, and two “very low” rates. The lowest performance is in the pillar “enable”, representing demand for talents. One voivodeship in the pillar has “very high” rates, five have “high” rates, ten “low” rates. It can be concluded that Polish voivodeships have good socio-economic and development conditions, though at the same time the opportunities for talents and their global integration are less advanced.

Discussion

Different researchers assume that developing, managing and promoting the territorial image for a target audience makes the issue of place branding a task of local economic development (Cleave et al, 2017). That
is why awareness of the competitive position, strong and weak points, is essential. Indexes measuring the territorial attractiveness for talents, such as GTCI and IMD, can be supportive for practitioners. The general factors influencing the talent flow - ‘global demographic and economic trends’; ‘increasing mobility of people and organizations; ‘transformational changes to business environments, skills and cultures’; and ‘growing levels of workforce diversity’ - were developed by Beechler and Woodward (2009) and adopted by a number of authors, such as Cooke et al. (2014). The factors are developed and measured in the pillars and variables of GTCI and IMD indexes.

Critical literature analysis pointed out the lack of theoretical systematization of practices and knowledge regarding the essence of territorial branding for talent attraction and retention. It is rather focused on the corporate perspective. However, different research groups work on the identification of basic factors for evaluation of a territorial brand; and certain theoretical elaborations can be linked with practical amplifications. Specifically, the five dimensions, influencing the talent attraction brand, developed by Silvanto and Ryan (2018) can be linked with the pillars of the GTCI (Figure 1).

*Figure 1: Correlation between dimensions of the regional attractiveness for gaining talents, suggested by Silvanto and Ryan (2018) and GTCI pillars*

Source: own elaboration on the base of Silvanto and Ryan (2018), and GTCI.
As figure 1 shows, components “quality of life”, “employment and economic opportunity” and pillars “attract”, “retain” are closely interrelated. Component “employment and economic opportunity” is represented as well in the pillar “enable”. Component “professional and ethnic networks” is represented in the pillar “grow” and stands close, but not directly represented in the pillars “enable” and “be global”. “Cultural diversity” and “clear immigration policies” are not directly represented in any pillars of GTCI; however, their idea has a connotation to the pillar “be global”.

Conclusions

Effective implementation of branding strategies by local authorities can significantly increase the regional attractiveness for gaining talents. In order to initiate the activities for improving the situation of a particular region in this respect its current competitive should be identified.

Rankings are a useful and objective instrument for the identification of competitive positions of the regions because it provides the researchers with quantitative data. The paper estimates the attractiveness of Polish regions for talents. The evaluation was enabled by the creation of a ranking based on the GTCI structure and using the TOPSIS method. Mazowieckie and Małopolskie voivodeships can be treated as the most attractive regions; Podkarpackie and Świętokrzyskie are the least attractive. In general, all the voivodeships in Poland show the best performance in the pillar “retain”, representing the socio-economic factors. The least developed are the conditions predetermining the demand for talents, represented by the pillar “enable”.

The current paper offers proposition of the methodology how the competitiveness of regions can be estimated from the perspective of gaining talents. The ranking offered in the paper refers to the GTCI index; precisely, the variables offered for measuring cities’ attractiveness. The regional evaluation is rather based on statistical data and does not describe government strategies influencing regional attractiveness for talents; however, policies and activities can be crucial as well.

The methodology proposed in the article for identification of the differences between voivodships according to their attractiveness for talents has its limitations, and should be supplemented in the future with qualitative variables, characterising activities and programs implemented by the local authorities, aiming to attract and retain talents.
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“CITY SOUND TRACES” AND THE PROMOTION OF
IDENTITY: RE-EXPERIENCE THE CITY OF
THESSALONIKI THROUGH A SOUNDWALK
APPLICATION

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Abstract

The city can be perceived as a construction in space; experienced in the
everyday and existing through the embodied experience. However, the
city is not only that which is built, but it is made up of different aspects,
both material and immaterial. The atmosphere, the sounds, the smells,
the possibility of interaction and movement between human bodies, the
memories: all these constitute characteristics of space. Within this field
of thought about the way of experiencing the city, it is chosen to
approach the space through a non-material parameter: sound.

Globally, place marketing and place branding have been important
development tools in generating a strong place identity. Over the years,
these terms have been transformed, referring to the relations and
interactions that exist between places and people and the physical and
non–physical elements of space. In this context, new terms are
introduced, in order to link the senses with place marketing and
branding procedure, such as sensory marketing.

In addition, the space is not only identified by the senses, but also
transformed by the technology. In particular, new digital technologies
(virtual and augmented reality) have transformed the perception and
experience of urban space, by supplementing physical space with
elements of the imaginary. Therefore, it can be argued that digital
technologies are taking an active role in promoting the history and
identity of a city by creating new experiences.

The aim of this paper is to present a creative practice in promoting the
history and identity of the historical center of Thessaloniki, beyond the
material dimension, through digital technologies. Based on the
development of an Android application, a soundwalk is created, which is
a project at the intersection of technology, sound research, field
recording, art, anthropology and sociology of the city, interviews and life
narratives, musical compositions and poetry. This project attempts to
create a multi–sensory spatial experience by walking in the urban
fabric, but, also, to investigate the dynamic and complex relationship
between space, humans, senses, memory and their role in the history and identity promotion of a place.

**Keywords:** soundwalk application, senses, creative experience, identity promotion, Thessaloniki
PLACE BRANDING AS SPATIAL FETISHISM

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Abstract

Fetishised space abounds. Space transformed, symbol-laden, image-defined, the primacy of perception over content, of exchange over use. Space fragmented into distinctive place sets, yet whose specificities seem both imposed and revered. From Malibu to Mykonos, from San Antonio to Santorini (to pick them at random), spatial fetishisation, the elevation of particular spatial entities, irrespective of size, density, location or attribute, to idolized status seems to proceed in mystical and mystifying manner. Not unlike the changing perceived import of medieval saints or pagan gods in their time, some places today appear to gain in totemic efficacy, while other tend to wane, in need of symbolic reformattting.

The paper attempts to probe such processes and suggest an explanatory matrix upon which the phenomenon could be grounded. It depends on a double assumption: that of the Lefebvrian precept that space is produced like any other commodity, and of radical political economy’s definition of commodity production as the primacy of exchange over use values.

Spatial fetishisation can be identified as an evolutive development, the outcome of a complex set of chain reactions embedded in societal practices, yet over which no social agency can claim control, albeit fragmentary. The profit nexus applied to spatial elements imposes the shift from use to exchange, the maximisation of rent over utility. Space produced for rent maximisation implies the estrangement of its direct producers in all trades and capacities (investors, developers, planners, designers, architects, engineers, construction workers, builders / navies, etc.) from the outcome of their effort. Links between the different producers and between producers and consumers of space are severed, the social relations between them obfuscated, appearing as relations between commodified spatial entities. The latter tend thus to acquire fetishized status, talisman-type qualities, both imposed upon, and revered by, their very producers.

Place branding plays a crucial part in this transition from use to exchange spatial values, in the transmutation of use space to a fetish. It predicates such transition’s symbolic legitimation, develops an abstract ‘ought’ out of a partial ‘is’, conflates ‘signifier’ and ‘signified’. As
imposition of image, branding destroys some of the variety and diversity of the existent, while, in the estrangement of direct producers and disappropriation of communities that inevitably ensues, it engenders the victims of its success, affirming an Oedipus-like fusion of offender and victim. It is suggested that it represents a sine qua non condition for spatial fetishisation.

**Keywords:** place branding, use and exchange value, commodity fetishism, spatial fetishism
HERAKLION DESTINATION BRANDING. A NEW DESTINATION IDENTITY FOR THE DYNAMIC, AMBITIOUS CAPITAL OF CRETE

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Abstract

Aims

• To visualize effectively, all aspects of Heraklion as a competitive “must-see” Destination.

• To reveal all the layers of the “unknown” charm of this vibrant city, balancing between its rich history and its modern personality.

• To project the impressive heritage of Heraklion, consisted of the presence of five century-old civilizations forming the sixth, active culture of today.

• To inspire all visitors from around the world, inviting them to experience the authentic Cretan way of life with all their senses.

• To capitalize on the city’s strategic geographic position, its impressive past, its delicious local Cuisine, its shopping opportunities, its crystal-clear beaches, its renowned monuments, its museums, its 24/7 entertainment, everything that will reward every traveler who will dedicate a few days to Heraklion.

Key arguments/findings

Heraklion, the gateway and capital of Crete, the most important Mediterranean island, has all the features to claim the leading position it deserves as an international premium tourism destination, to extend its seasonality and the days each visitor stays, and to gain reputation and revenue.

But until recently, Heraklion's tourist proposal did not showed all that make it unique and charming, as it remained mainly focused in the mythical Knossos and its brilliant Archaeological Museum.

The solution to this challenge was a full Destination Branding project, based on an existing Integrated Marketing Plan, leading to a New Tourist Identity for Heraklion and providing the city with the effective "communication tools" so much needed to achieve its ambitious goals.
Main approach

The new Identity effectively unfolds the true, charming personality of Heraklion and welcomes its guests, and contributes to the total authentic experience of Crete gained by visitors living as a true “temporary locals” for a few days.

Its foundations, the new Brand Logo, is inspired by the emblematic "Bull Horns" statue at Knossos archeological site.

The “Horns”, as if united with their shadow, creatively form the letter "H", the first letter of Heraklion brand name, common in English and in Greek (Heraklion / Ηράκλειο).

This unique “H” shape is filled with organic forms in distinct Greek colors creating even more hues as they interact, symbolizing the different characteristics of Heraklion personality, an eternal but so vivid place, the living cradle of 5 + 1 cultures.

The same Branding philosophy is in the heart of every communication tool, speaking to the international visitor in today’s clear visual language. A detailed Brand Identity Manual, covering all aspects and implementations, keeps the destination focused on its values and its communication consistent though all platforms and media channels.

Conclusions

The end result is a distinct, modern Destination brand for Heraklion, with roots deep into age-long history that remains fresh, flexible, almost "transparent", yet robust and confident. The Identity was very well accepted by all key audiences, including the shareholders within the city as well as the international market.

Heraklion just started a new exciting journey in the international tourism market!

Key words: destination branding, branding, identity, destination marketing, tourism
DESTINATION BRANDING THROUGH BUILDING SUSTAINABLE CULTURAL TOURISM PRODUCTS: CASE STUDY OF THE ROUTES OF THE FRANKOPANS

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Abstract

Primorje-Gorski kotar is the name of a less known and yet a truly diverse region in Croatia spanning throughout the country’s continental area to the Northern part of the Adriatic sea. On top of various natural beauties — mountains, lakes, islands, national parks, caves etc. — the region abounds with unique cultural heritage, central to the project of the Cultural route The Routes of the Frankopans initiated and managed by the Primorje-Gorski kotar County. The goal of the project is to revitalise ancient castles and mansions of the Frankopans, once a famous and powerful family (12-17th century) that influenced some of the most important events in Croatian history and create a sustainable cultural tourism offer that will be in the position to function all year round. The project is largely financed by the HERA project (Sustainable tourism management of Adriatic Heritage) and the EU funds while the multidisciplinary team working on this complex strategic endeavour is composed of local governance bodies, architects, museologists and design & communication experts and many others.

This strategically important project has the potential to brand the whole region so in order to develop a solid visual communications base for future communications we needed to establish the brand architecture and key values that would be incorporated into the visual system. The project’s primary customer segment is the well educated cultural tourist, interested in the local knowledge and in search of new discoveries in his or her travels often practising an active lifestyle. After examining several possible directions including a more traditional one, it was decided that the customer journey will be built around the richness and mystery of this vast cultural heritage and exploration as a way to cherish it today. The visual identity system is therefore built from interesting and somewhat puzzling pictograms derived from key facts from the family’s legacy and then used to tell this fascinating story in a whole spectrum of media. With a specific yet modern feel, this set of values translated to a flexible identity can support the development of the project in various directions and serve as the focal point of the destination’s branding strategy, currently materialized in the route’s first visitor centre situated in one of the family’s castles in Kraljevica. Renovation of the additional seven interpretation centers ends in 2019 and will create an added value for the Rijeka - European Capital of Culture 2020 project.
Introduction

In the last decade, Croatia has had tremendous success in moving towards a globally recognized tourism destination. Various internal factors have contributed to this development, notably, good cooperation of government institutions and stakeholders in the tourism sector, private investments in accommodation infrastructure and opening up of a number of premium hotel resorts, creativity and persistence of entrepreneurs, planned and unplanned press coverage (an interesting example of an unplanned promotion is Croatia being featured in a Korean reality TV show that resulted in opening up of the Korean market while getting into the finale of the World Cup in 2018 did more for the country’s promotion than advertising campaigns). The country has hosted a record of nearly 20 million tourists in 2018 (Hrvatska turistička zajednica, 2018) and inscribed itself in the bucket lists of many European, American and Asian travellers. In this document, we will try to contribute to the place branding research by presenting a case study about the cultural-tourist route The Routes of the Frankopans from the perspective of the branding and visual communications team involved in the project since 2016 onwards.

In the atmosphere of tourism growth, the national tourism strategy 2013-2020 has defined cultural tourism (particularly heritage tourism) as one of the most significant areas of potential for tourist products development, predicting the trend of increased need of active participation of visitors in the local culture (Ministry of Tourism, Republic of Croatia, 2013). This is to a large extent thanks to the inherited wealth of well-preserved architectural heritage bearing internationally recognized quality labels such as the UNESCO World Heritage list (namely Dubrovnik, Šibenik, Trogir, Poreč, Split etc.). In this context, the Croatian Primorje-Gorski Kotar County has developed the idea of a cultural route that would connect dormant, centuries old castles, fortified towns and sacral objects into a vibrant new cultural-tourist product fostering the local economies and enriching the tourist offer of the whole region. For the purpose of this text, a cultural route can be defined as a "physical, tangible section in space defined by an inventory of tangible and intangible cultural and historical elements connected by a theme, concept or definition as well as by the identification of sites of existing cultural heritage linked in a dispersed, linear or regional structure creating a marked and interpreted continuous whole within the unified context of the route" (Managing
Visitors on Thematic Cultural Routes Handbook, 2019). Because of its size, complexity and importance for the Croatian culture, this cultural tourism product has the potential to brand the whole region.

The common denominator of this humongous architectural heritage is the famous, historically significant Croatian family, the Frankopans, who had built, managed and protected it until the very end of the family line. The family's real estate can be found in the form of castles, fortified towns, churches and monasteries throughout the Croatian territory but the true relevance of the Frankopan family for the Croatian national identity lies in the fact that they were the leaders in resistance to the Habsburg Monarchy striving to stop the attempts of the Viennese court to Germanize the country. In the comprehension of the Croatian nation, The Frankopans are considered a symbol of Croatian determination to exist as an independent political entity entering political alliances by its own decision and will. "From the beginning of the 12th century to the second half of the 17th the Croatian aristocratic family Frankopan left numerous traces of their influence and power. From 1118 to 1671, from Dujam I. to Fran Krsto, from Gradec on the island of Krk to Wiener Neustadt, members of this great family were the bearers of political, social, economic and cultural development of Croatia. During that period the Frankopans have participated in numerous battles, but the intelligence, education, diplomatic skills, and above all the desire to preserve their own properties, have kept this family for centuries" (Frankopani, 2019). This is also why one can find Frankopan-named streets in most if not all urban areas in the country.

Originally from the island of Krk situated in the Primorje-Gorski Kotar County, the family has built numerous edifices in the region and has considered it its home and headquarters. "Due to their exceptional value and with the aim of restoration, preservation, protection and sustainable use of tangible and intangible heritage, Primorje-Gorski Kotar County has initiated a strategic project The Routes of the Frankopans, which has so far evolved into three phases: the first phase took place from 2005 to 2008, when the ten Frankopan’s castles in the Vinodol Valley were renovated; the second phase lasted from 2013 to 2016, within the EU project HERA from the IPA program of Adriatic Cross-border Cooperation, when the renewal was extended to Rijeka, Krk and Gorski kotar, or more precisely to a total of twenty objects, with the intent of creating a cultural-tourist route that will permanently set the objects into the cultural life of the wider community" (Frankopani, 2019). The third phase of the project began the same year when the Ministry of Regional Development and EU funds granted 47.3 million HRK (6.4 million EUR) from the Structural Funds of the European
Union for further reconstruction of venues. Total project value up to now amounts to 61 million HRK (8.2 million EUR) and the reconstruction and refurbishment of spaces is planned to be completed by the end of 2019 just in time to be presented at the Rijeka - European Capital of Culture 2020 project.

The refurbishment of the castles and opening of visitor and interpretation canters represents the infrastructural part of the project while, once completed, the route aims to interconnect various heritage resources (galleries, museums, artisan workshops, festivals, fairs, events) with walking and cycling routes, accommodation and gastronomical services. It is a grand vision that will enliven a beautiful and yet derelict architecture that has been left alone for centuries. The cultural-tourist route The Routes of the Frankopans, as it is therefore officially called, includes a total of 20 locations: seventeen castles and fortified towns (Gradec, Krk, Grobnik, Trsat, Drivenik, Grižane and Bakar castles, Bribir tower, Novi Vinodolski castle with Kvadrac tower, Zrinski castle in Brod na Kupi, The Old Town of Zrinski’s in Kraljevica, the Old Town of Ledence, the Old Town of Hreljin, the Castles of Nova Kraljevica, Severin and Stara Sušica, and the Zrinski Castle in Čabar) and three sacral complexes (Franciscan Monastery with the church of the St. Mary Annunciation in the island Košljun, Pauline Monastery in Crikvenica and Gomirje Monastery in Gomirje). They are scattered around the Primorje-Gorski Kotar region reachable by car and bicycle.

According to the latest report of the Croatian National Tourist Board, Primorje-Gorski Kotar is the third most visited tourist region in Croatia with 2.789 million tourist visits (Hrvatska turistička zajednica, 2018). The backbone of the region's traffic infrastructure consists of the European transport corridor Budapest-Zagreb-Rijeka and Adriatic-Ionian corridor Trieste-Rijeka-Split-Dubrovnik-Kalamata with a modern highway and 1543 km of roads and 160 km railway infrastructure (Institut za turizam, 2016). It has one main and three small airports, a railway system as well as one central public transportation harbor Rijeka. Unemployment rate has been around 8% (Hrvatski zavod za zapošljavanje, 2018). Kvarner, as the region is often called has a long tradition in tourism, especially medical tourism and is particularly interesting because of its mountain, sea level and islands part which makes it diverse and rich with different possibilities of travel experiences.
Figure 1. Geographical position of Croatia and Primorje-Gorski Kotar County

Source: Google Maps

Key actors and stakeholders

The core team working on the phases of the project described in this document comprised of:

— a team of the Department for Culture, Sports and Technical Culture at the Primorje-Gorski Kotar County regional office as the initiator and coordinator of the project;

— Muses Ltd as a team of museologists uniting expertise from the areas of heritology and ecomuseology, cultural policies and cultural tourism with skills in creative cultural and heritage management, heritage interpretation and presentation (Linkedin, 2019); responsible for the Master interpretation plan of the route, the development of the content and the interpretation texts of the visitor canters and the signage system;

— Penezić & Rogina architects as a team experienced in various architectural typologies whose work has, among other, been exhibited at the Venice Biennale several times and included in the permanent exhibition of the Zagreb Museum of Contemporary Arts; responsible for spatial concept of the visitor centers and signage system's product design;

— Filburg studio for branding and visual communications responsible for visual identity and communications design, visitor centers exhibition
design, interactive media design and development, signage system concept and design.

Along the core team there were several other teams who participated in the project such as a team of developers and IT experts and road safety experts. Various external associates were consulted on a need-to-know basis such as material experts, EU funding experts (for the questions of EU visibility) and so on. Conservation authorities played an important role in the project as the buildings in question are all under strict conservational supervision, therefore, none of the changes in space could happen without their prior consent. Getting this consent was sometimes a very slow and painful process. On top of these, each of the castles has its own management who, in some cases, had to be consulted which added to the complexity of communication.

**Visual identity and branding approach**

Architecture as immovable cultural property has an immense marketing potential because it contains a number of more or less known personalities and narratives forming the base for communication targeted at diverse target groups. It is of course necessary to find the appropriate piece of history to tell and the right manner of communicating the narrative. On top of identifying the narrative which is itself a highly demanding task it is important to point out that the planning of this project started from a sea of dispersed information on logistics, stakeholders and resources that took and still takes tremendous effort to collect, organize and manage. One of the concrete contributions of this project is the creation of the first database of professional, high-resolution photos of the venues on the route that could be used for different aspects in the continuation of the project.

Part of the process that implies determining the brand platform was mainly carried out by the team of museologists and interpreters who set out a Master interpretation plan for the whole project. The Master interpretation plan of the route has defined the target groups as individual guests as well as groups of visitors from all generations (pre-school children, primary and high-school school children, generation Y, generation X and babyboomers) coming from the local and regional level, neighboring countries, Europe and internationally (Ratković Aydemir and Klarić, 2016). In terms of interests, a cultural route's primary market segment are the cultural tourists hence it is important to mention the research on cultural tourists in Croatia carried out by the
national Institute for tourism where we can learn that 53% of cultural tourists in Croatia are men on average 38 years old with 38% having a university degree and 24% having finished higher education (Marušić and Tomljenović, 2008).

It was based on these documents and findings that we determined the core values to be communicated through the visual identity and communications to be the richness and mystery of this vast cultural heritage and exploration as a way to cherish it today. As the Frankopan family’s history and roots are strongly tied to the Primorje-Gorski Kotar region, culture of the brand is naturally embodied in this area with the brand physique related to regional associations. It was also decided that the brand’s personality will be built as friendly while we focused the target group to a well-educated cultural tourist, interested in the local knowledge and in search of new discoveries in his or her travels often practicing an active lifestyle. In terms of brand positioning, this pretty much sums the discovery phase. Ideally, this process would include a broader team of experts and stakeholders with more marketing research, consumer insights and workshops that would help determine the overall brand strategy into more detail. However, considering the fact that the project is managed by a relatively small public administration body with politics in its core (the office's principal changed three times since 2016), one might presume that before investing more in the brand strategy visible only in the long run, there has to be some other concrete results beforehand. When building a brand that will be managed by a government body, existing national and regional brand strategies need to be taken in consideration. Croatia has gotten informal directions for the national brand strategy in 2019 initiated by the President Kolinda Grabar-Kitarović while the Primorje-Gorski Kotar has facets of the regional brand strategy incorporated into the tourism development strategies.

One of the design and branding challenges in working on large-scale projects like this one is to ensure the consistency in future applying of the visual identity across different mediums by various agencies, studios and creatives of different kinds. Even though the success of managing the visual communications ultimately comes to who manages the project and how design-conscious that person is, the team working on the visual identity can influence the outcome to some extent by building a clear and coherent visual system as well as preparing solid visual identity guidelines.

The visual identity system for the Routes of the Frankopans is built from interesting and somewhat puzzling pictograms derived from key facts from the family’s legacy — lion from the family’s second coat of arms,
Glagolitic alphabet letter typical for the Frankopan era, the crown as the symbol of reign and so on. The logotype itself symbolizes the idea of the route told in the form of the surname Frankopan with each letter between the first and the last substituted by the individual aforementioned symbols. The logotype has several versions, from succinct to the most extensive one, assumed to be easily used in demanding digital media that require the possibility of animation, flexibility and reduction. Each castle on the route has a customized logotype derived from the main one entailing a specific pictogram symbolically important for that particular location. With a specific and yet modern feel, this flexible identity can support the development of the project in various directions and serve as the basis of the route's branding strategy.

*Figure 2. Extended version of the main logotype*

As archival records of the Frankopan’s history and family tree have been lost in the course of centuries and nowadays include only a handful of depictions of the family's members, one of the tasks at the initial phase was to portrait around thirty male and female historical characters. On top of these, we’ve designed twenty illustrations of the ancient castles and sacral objects together with maps of the relevant geographical areas so this wholesome set of illustrations could become a visual base for designing the exhibition spaces in visitor and interpretation canters.

The visual identity could then be applied to a whole spectrum of brand communications including digital channels (central website and mobile application), printed material and branded merchandise.

While producing the merchandise, special concern was given to materials and suppliers so all souvenirs of the route are made in Croatia including umbrellas, T-shirts and backpacks.
Visitor and interpretation centers

It was decided that the route will contain a central visitor center and eight interpretation centers where each center’s narrative will tell one facet of the Frankopan story. As a relatively new hybrid form of an information and exhibition center is one that serves to educate, inform, provide practical advice, host events and sell merchandise to travellers and visitors alike, visitor centers have been very popular in Europe for the last decade. It imposes itself as a logical upgrade to a tourist product where architecture plays an important role — it is a place of getting acquainted with the history and significance of the place and getting necessary practical information.

The central visitor center of the Routes of the Frankopans was opened in 2016 in Castle of Nova Kraljevica built in the 17th century as the Frankopan family's residential palace. The exhibition layout reflects the geography of the route itself — it features a long meander with an overview of the Route intervened with artistic collage videos and multimedia applications. The space also holds a small events hall where one can get various information about visiting the route and purchase branded merchandise.

*Figure 3. Kraljevica visitor center*

*Photo credits: Domagoj Blažević*

Eight interpretation centers are in the process of renovation and will be opened by the end of 2019 in Bakar, Bribir, Brod na Kupi, Čabar, Grobnik, Trsat and Krk inside the castles and fortified towns. The exhibition part of the Route’s offer is built on strong history-based narratives conceptualized and written by interpreting large amounts of historical content and archival records gathered particularly for this project. Main themes of individual interpretation centers (spirituality, economy, architecture, conspiracy, relationship with nature, fatal battle
with the Ottomans on Krbava field etc.) were derived from the Master interpretation plan and presented through interactive media, notably augmented reality, multimedia applications, videos and chatbots, exhibition and environmental graphics. Our attempt was to contribute to the visitors' experience by softening the texts and historical data through a game-like approach, suggesting the use of new technologies and interactivity.

*Figure 4. Fortified town of Drivenik*

*Photo credits: Domagoj Blažević*

The main multimedia application presents the route as a whole with a timeline of the family line presented through almost six centuries of generations. One of the applications in the form of a chatbot communicates with the visitor as a dormouse and reveals the secrets of the castle. In the interactive quiz, the visitor can find out what would be her profession and position in the economy in the Frankopan times. An interactive fortune-teller is based on the book of prophecies written by one of the distinguished Frankopan ladies Ana Katarina compiled from German and Italian fortune-tellers. Augmented reality applications feature different family stories on the theme of religion through the use of three dimensional and two dimensional animations.

The mobile application works as an interactive game where the user collects stars each time visiting a location on the route. By collecting stars the user reaches different stages of the family status finishing by becoming a Frankopan duke.
Cohesive signage and wayfinding system

One can build most grandiose of places but if intentional or accidental visitors cannot find it, it cannot be called a success. Even though it is not classified as a typical promotional tool, from a marketing perspective, a good signage and wayfinding system can do more for communicating a venue than the content of the venue itself. In different conditions, when conceptualizing the system, teams working on the signage project should analyze the visitor flows, collect data about the visitor's behavior and decision making about the site visit. None of this was possible in this project as most of the venues had hosted only small occasional events and most of them were visited merely by a handful of curious adventurers who managed to overcome the obstacles of finding it. Hence, data about visitors do not yet exist. What was possible to do was to clear out some existing outdated signage elements, anticipate spatial problems and set up an introductory level of signage and wayfinding solutions based on the data and input given by the regions' authorities and management of individual castles.

The only example of a coherent signage system at this scale, for a cultural or natural heritage site in Croatia is the one for the Parks of Croatia containing 19 locations around the country. "In a cultural heritage site, signage plays an important role in helping to orient visitors. In fact, signage, considered as a ensemble of coordinated signs, is meant to guide the visitor; it uses a universal language including signs, pictograms and short words to help the visitor identify entrances and exits, services and routes" (Agostiano, 2011). Goals of establishing and implementing the signage system were to think out and design a consistent bilingual system of wayfinding and orientation for the twenty locations on the route in line with its visual identity; establish the Routes of the Frankopans as a top cultural tourism destination in Croatia by connecting the locations and interpretative centers into a whole and making them recognizable and finally establish a visual signage and wayfinding system that individual castle's management will be able to use independently. This part of the project was carried out by a team of visual designers, product designers, museologists, road traffic experts and the management of the Routes of the Frankopans project.

The signage system for the Routes of the Frankopans comprises of four typologies: road traffic signage, pedestrian signage, interpretative signage and functional signage within the interior of the castles.

The road traffic signage is under the judicial regulation of the Republic of Croatia so the visual format as well as the informational content are to a great extent determined by the Tourist and other road signage
national book of regulations. There is some space, however, for negotiations when it comes to individual cases so in order to achieve a certain differentiation and branding for the route, part of the final signage incorporates castle illustrations. In order to get the necessary permits from the state department of transportation, the documentation for each location on the route had to include a road traffic elaborate accompanied with specified positions and designs of the individual traffic signs respecting the road safety rules and regulations. It wasn’t possible to get road signage on highways as those can be granted solely to places with public infrastructure (parking, toilets etc.) and over 5000 visitors per year.

Figure 5. Conceptual scheme of the signage communication flow

In the case of the Routes of the Frankopans, pedestrian signage is necessary as a transition between the road signage system and the interpretative signage on sites where there is no road to the castle itself (in the case of archaeological ruins, castles or sacral objects encircled with nature, historic town cores etc.).

Interpretative signage is located in the immediate vicinity of the castles, usually at the site entrance. It is designed in the form of a totem with the aim of informing the visitor of the arrival, presenting the venue and its contents through an interpretational narrative, presenting the whole route and the next nearest point. In the creative sense, interpretative signage is an extension of the interpretative centers’ interior treated as a
kind of a small interpretation center in the open. For eight localities it serves as an upgrade of the experience from the interpretation centers while for all others it is the basic informational input for visitors.

Functional signage in this particular project outlines the content of the individual venues implemented on main boards, single boards and, where necessary, warnings. As the implementation of the signage system on the whole route will be divided into phases, it was decided that the functional signage flagship location will be located in the Castle of Nova Kraljevica as the focal point of the route and home of the route's visitor center.

**Conclusion**

In the last three years, the team behind the Routes of the Frankopans has carried out a massive effort in planning, fundraising, managing and executing this complex project. Even though millions of euros have been spent and thousands of working hours invested, it is only at the beginning of 2020 after all the construction and refurbishment work will be completed that the product will actually be ready for the market. Everything until now has, in a way, been setting the stage. In this sense, this is the right moment for further work on the brand and above all marketing strategy that will elaborate the target markets into more detail and nuances and suggest ways of reaching them. It is also important for the brand of the cultural route to be positioned in harmony with relevant regional and nation brand strategies. Further on, 2020 will be the right time to start promoting the product heavily by putting on a media campaign as Croatia will be presiding the European Union and Rijeka is becoming the European Capital of Culture. Thousands of people, cultural tourists will come marching in the region thirsty for novelty experiences.

Key finding specific for branding cultural heritage projects like this one is that the methodology of strategic interpretation carried out by experts in the field is truly important as the amount of highly specific research and creation of the right context for presenting content requires thorough knowledge and professional approach. For branding and visual communications, meanings should be derived from authentic brand environments and this is where cooperation with museologists has been really valuable. Additionally, we have learnt that the rules of visibility of the European Union in funded projects should in some cases be reconsidered. Namely, too much communication can be as harmful as non-communicating and it is extremely important to enable the correct interpretation of the brand guidelines.
It is a valuable circumstance that one team worked on developing of brand and visual communications for this project as it helped in achieving consistency in key communications and areas. Once the project gets in the phase of exposure to the market this will be of great importance for becoming a sustainable brand at the very beginning of its life cycle.

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GEOGRAPHIES OF FEAR – COMMUNICATING SAFETY IN URBAN DESTINATIONS

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Abstract

Countering fear and promoting experiences of security and safety among visitors are key issues in creating socially sustainable urban destinations. Security branding is a growing place branding paradigm through which to enhance experiences and perceptions of safety in cities, nations and regions (Coaffee and Van Ham, 2008; Coaffee and Rogers, 2008; Avraham and Ketter, 2008). This paper discusses how brand communication can be incorporated in urban policy and planning to accomplish socially sustainable city centres. Our focus is on relation between the mediatisation of cities and perceptions and experiences of safety among domestic and international visitors. Recent terror attacks, political unrest, and violent conflicts in many European countries are highly mediatised events (Couldry and Hepp, 2018) that influence images of urban destinations, which are particularly vulnerable to rumours and images circulating in media (Avraham, 2009; Avraham and Ketter, 2008). The study focuses on 10 Swedish urban destinations. Sweden is an interesting case in point due to high levels of media coverage, which is characterised by polarised narratives concerning the country as a utopia respectively dystopia (see e.g. Rapacioli, 2018). The research questions we seek to answer concern 1) how perceptions of safety are influenced by the image of Sweden conveyed on online news and social media (Instagram and Twitter) platforms, and 2) the relation between visitors’ overall image of the destinations and their experiences of safety. The research questions are addressed by a mixed methods approach using survey methods and media analysis to capture the role of place image for visitors’ perceptions and experiences of safety.

The findings demonstrate that the mediatisation of the country of Sweden follows narratives of safety respectively unsafety, which influence the way Swedish cities are perceived. Furthermore, findings
indicate a correlation between positive city image and high levels of perceived safety among visitors. The paper discusses these findings in relation to social sustainability and proposes communicative strategies to handle and counter fears in urban destinations.

**Keywords:** place image, urban destinations, branding security, social sustainability, mediatisation
PLACE BRAND COMMUNICATION FOR SUSTAINABLE URBAN DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Place branding strategy and practice focus on making places attractive to draw the right type of people, ideas and capital to cities, countries, and regions (Dinnie, 2011; Kavaratzis, 2004). Recently, however, the commodification of urban space has caused a number of problems in cities linked to mass tourism, gentrification, pollution, declining city centres, segregation, and social tensions due to economic inequity (Ek and Tesfahuney 2016; Brenner and Theodore, 2005). In 2015, the United Nation adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which includes the urban goal (11) entitled ‘Sustainable Cities and Communities: make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable’ (Watson, 2016). Existing research does not yet fully engage with the question of how place branding may support sustainable development and what sustainable place branding entails.

The research aim in this paper is to propose a conceptual framework for understanding sustainable place branding. The conceptualisation is anchored in a close reading of the extant literature on sustainable place marketing and branding, especially focusing on the concept of place demarketing, which predominately involves decreasing consumption by means of adjusting the marketing mix, e.g. price and promotional campaigns (see e.g. Medway, Warnaby and Dharni, 2010). Thereafter, an alternative communicative approach to sustainable place branding is outlined.

It is suggested that place branding is a form of aspirational communication (Christensen Morsing and Thyssen, 2013). The notion of aspirational communication belongs to the practice-oriented tradition within organisational communication, which views language as performative of social reality. Aspirational place brand communication does not primarily reflect the city as it is for those living and working in it, but a vision of what city government want it to be in the future. The relation between the city as a brand and the city as it is, is often defined in critical research as antagonistic (Al and Krupar, 2012). The present study identifies conditions under which this antagonism activates productive forms of resistance and reaction, which can be leveraged by place branding to provoke and drive transformation. As a form of aspirational communication, place branding discourse could potentially play a key role in creating the
conditions for social change processes necessary for sustainable urban development.

**Keywords:** place branding, sustainability, aspirational communication, urban development, performativity, antagonism
Abstract

Aims

The aim of this paper is to analyse and discuss a methodological approach for a common Place Marketing strategy in a cross-border area of Greece-Albania. It constitutes a part of ‘Culture Branding and Strengthening Extroversion’ (CULTURE PLUS), an Interreg- IPA CBC Greece-Albania Project that prescribes the methodology building towards recording and assessing the current and the future identity of the project’s area.

Main approach

The cross-border area of Greece-Albania seems to be missing a common identity and image. This image is further weakened by the current economic crisis that currently defines both regions. This fact is particularly visible, when comparing Greece-Albania border area to other European border areas with similar geophysical characteristics. In this framework, the Project’s idea concerns the rebranding of the cross-border area of Greece-Albania through the enhancement and effective promotion of eco-cultural resources, focusing on tourist development.

Key Arguments

The main objective of this paper is the formulation of a particular and distinctive Place Marketing strategy for the studied cross border area.
The importance of this strategy is crucial, since it constitutes the basis for the creation of the Strategic Marketing Mix and the identification of specialized ‘promotional packages’ of cross border area identity to its external environment.

The Methodology Building approach based on the satisfaction of particular levels of analysis that the partners should follow in order the whole process to become effective. The study present these levels and their specialized dimension that each level focuses on. More specifically, Level 1 concerns the ‘Strategic Evaluation’ and Level 2 the ‘Strategic Planning and Implementation’. In each level, specific analysis methods are formulated.

Conclusions

The importance of a participatory process and the representation of a ‘common vision’ among stakeholders and decision makers is a crucial element in place marketing strategy. Therefore, an inclusive approach will help the interaction between policy makers, stakeholders and citizens in order to develop effective results. In the case of Culture Plus, such interactions aim to contribute to plan and implement better policy recommendations regarding place marketing and branding efforts of the partnership’s territories. Therefore, stakeholder involvement via regional stakeholders meetings and consultations, should be one of the priorities throughout the lifecycle of the project.

**Keywords:** cross-border place marketing, stakeholders management, representation, Greece, Albania
CAN A BRAND CONSTITUTE A ‘PRISONER OF GEOGRAPHY’? THE CASE OF LARISSA, GREECE, AS ‘OPEN CITY’

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Aims

The aim of this paper is to analyse and discuss the importance of geography as a crucial factor for the development and the attractiveness of a city, with Larissa in Greece as a case study. Through an empirical primary data analysis based on the Strategic City Marketing Plan, this paper evaluates the geographical location of the city as the main city’s brand in order to become a multidimensional destination.

Main approach

The paper uses extensive statistical analysis, based on empirical data from various groups, specifically residents, enterprises, tourists, local authorities and decision makers. The main research question relates to the meaning of Larissa for the different groups and to the ways that their estimations are potentially different. The aim of this analysis is to create a distinctive city marketing/branding strategy, with specific marketing model, branding strategies and promotional packages.

Key Arguments

The main argument of this paper is the awareness of geography and how it is related to the development and attractiveness of a place. The second argument is that City Marketing/Branding Process constitutes an efficient element in order to create and support a strong image for a city based on its geographical location as a brand, supporting the city’s extroversion. The whole project supports the image of Larissa as an ‘Open City’ which derives from Larissa’s centralized geographical
location in Greece, based on the distinctive identity in which the City Marketing Plan has contributed.

Conclusions

The geographical location as a physical and ‘objective’ characteristic could create the appropriate conditions for a city to become competitive and attractive destination. For Larissa, its geographical location constitutes the city’s main brand offering the opportunity through a Strategic City Marketing approach to promote a strong and multidimensional image as an ‘Open City’ to its external environment.

**Keywords:** city marketing/branding, geographical location, primary data, open city, Larissa
USING AFFORDANCE THEORY TO CONCEIVE CONVIVIAL PLACES THAT FACILITATE INTERCULTURAL ENGAGEMENT

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Abstract

Despite progress in diversity and inclusion policies in various countries, literature also points to a growing ‘segmentation’ and separation between groups, occurring as a result of such trends as ‘exclusive’ marketing or gentrification (e.g., Demangeot et al., 2019; Zapata-Barrero, 2015), depriving people from different groups of the opportunity to routinely engage with one another (Jones et al., 2015). Concurrently, many contemporary cities and regions have witnessed increasing cultural diversity alongside increasing intercultural tensions or resentment, as for instance among mainstream populations in different parts of Europe during the ‘refugee crisis’.

One strategy that has been proposed as facilitating inter-group reconciliation and well-being is the fostering of engagement (Demangeot et al., 2019; Zapata-Barrero, 2015). As per contact theory (Allport, 1954) and imagined contact theory (Crisp et al., 2009), stereotypes and other prejudices can be attenuated through inter-group contact, or even situations of imagined contact, therefore designing places affording inter-group engagement can be expected to contribute to the resolution of some of the current defiance witnessed between groups.

Hence, the question arises of what kinds of places can best foster this kind of inter-group engagement. To deal with this question, a situated approach to places is necessary. Much of the marketing literature has considered place from two main perspectives: either from a strictly positivist, behavioural perspective, as when considering the sensorial elements of retail or service environments (e.g., Turley and Milliman, 2000), or from a cognitive perspective, when places as ‘imagined communities’, typically at the national level, such as country or culture of origin are perceived as influencing consumer choice and can be branded like products or place identity (e.g., Papadopoulos et al., 2011).

There has been less attention on how people can use places as integral elements of a consumption experience, i.e. from an interactionist perspective. Yet, recent papers (Chatzidakis et al., 2012) have shown how people can use the concrete specificity of environments to participate differently and develop different practices. Others (e.g.,...
Demangeot et al., 2015) have also noted the importance of choosing the right scale to studying place.

This conceptual paper draws from affordance theory to conceptualise the kind of places that can provide opportunities for positive intercultural engagement. Gibson (2014) defines affordances as what an environment offers an animal. For instance, a stick can be viewed as enabling a hiker to walk more sturdily and confidently, as providing a dog with a play opportunity by going to fetch the stick thrown by a human, or as enabling a person in the wild some defence against an attacking animal.

Hence, they are opportunities for action.

Hence, physical (or virtual) places can be viewed as possessing affordances that provide the people who interact with them with various opportunities and constraints. Consequently, we draw from literature on superdiversity and intercultural conviviality (Vertovec, 2007) to conceptualise the affordances that would enable the design of places that foster intercultural engagement.

**Keywords:** places, conviviality, affordances, intercultural engagement, superdiversity
REGIONAL BRANDING IN POLAND: FROM HISTORICAL NOSTALGIA TO CREATION OF A NEW IDENTITTY

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Abstract

Regions, like cities, operate in a competitive environment. Their development potential depends on many entities located in the regions. The size and internal diversification of the region may be the reason for difficulties in distinguishing specific features characterizing the region and having an impact on building its brand. This diversity creates both limitations and new opportunities for building the brand.

Regional reality is shaped by many factors, including the history of its development, internal and external conditions as well as the policy of social, economic and spatial development. The message conveyed by the regional brand is the result of an approach to building a brand. An interesting issue is the proportions of the components used to build the brand, their selection and which of them dominate. It happens that despite the changes in the economic condition of the region and its social and economic profile, the region does not change its brand, consolidating stereotypes existing for years.

The paper presents the results of the study on the relationship between the regional brand and the economic and social condition of the regions and their development potential in Poland. Since Poland's accession to the European Union, Polish regions have undergone a profound transformation. However, in some cases this fact has not been reflected in the new regional brands. In the paper the foundations of the brand building and their significance for the attractiveness of the brands are discussed and regions where historical components dominate are identified. An attempt has been made to explain the approaches used to build regional brands and to evaluate potential effects on the message contained in the brand.

Keywords: place branding, regional branding, place identity, economic development, Poland
The paper concerns the supranational place branding by the Nordic countries. Earlier studies highlight the obstacles in supranational place branding initiatives and the challenges for involved stakeholders’ to agree as geographical size and complexity increases (e.g. Anholt 2005; Therkelsen and Gram, 2010). The branding initiative of the Nordic countries, executed by the Nordic Council of Ministers, represents a rare example of a group of nations that have agreed on a strategy. The purpose of the paper is to develop knowledge on place branding by exploring significant antecedents and factors of the creation of the Nordic supranational place branding strategy. The analysis highlights the importance of the two-hundred years of interregional peace and established long-term political collaboration in official organs. Furthermore, the analysis points to the significance of the heightened international interest in ‘Nordic’ culture, lifestyle, cuisine and politics. In addition, the analysis conveys a picture of a brand work that allowed the distinctive features of each country to present itself in both the supranational place branding strategy and the nation branding of the respective countries. Hence, the negotiation process and the strategy work can be characterized as productive, inclusive and pragmatic. Lastly, the study points to the importance of using a holistic perspective on the political governance context in supranational place branding initiatives including historical, cultural and societal antecedents, internal and external understanding of the countries, as well as contemporary contextual factors.

**Keywords:** supranational place branding, place brand strategy, the Nordic Council of Minsters
THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED COLLABORATIVE VALUE IN PLACE BRANDING PROCESSES – A CASE STUDY OF CITTASLOW IN THE NETHERLANDS

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Abstract

Purpose – This paper explores the reasons why Cittaslow accredited municipalities in the Netherlands are not well known as Cittaslow and why brand awareness of the Cittaslow movement in general is very low. This lack of awareness seems surprising given that at first glance, these municipalities comply with requirements for developing a competitive identity and place brand, such as the formation of partnerships. The aim of the research is to identify opportunities for raising brand awareness and to assist Cittaslow municipalities in realising their ambitions.

Design/methodology/approach – We investigate the issue at hand through two theoretical lenses – place branding and corporate communication on the one hand and collaboration and partnerships on the other. We used a multi-method approach, including field observations; interviews with mayors and policymakers, residents and visitors; a survey among the partners of the municipalities, called ‘Supporters of Cittaslow [municipality name]’; and content analysis of municipality and Supporters’ websites.

Findings – The perceived value of the status of Supporter does not seem high enough for the majority of the resident businesses and organisations concerned to invest in its communication. Insight was gained into the type of perceived collaborative value (associational, interactional, transferred, synergistic and psychological) accruing to Supporters from the alliance, as well as issues affecting these types of collaborative value, which in turn affect the perceived value of the status of Supporter.

Originality/value – This paper is unique in that it investigates in-depth the perceived collaborative value among those who are involved in a place branding process. It argues that an understanding of the level and type of perceived collaborative value accruing to individual stakeholders and the underlying issues assists in understanding how one might
optimise the collaborative alliance in order to not only raise brand awareness, but also to work more effectively on realising values related to sustainability and quality of life.

**Keywords:** Cittaslow, sustainability, stakeholder engagement, collaborative value, place branding

1. Introduction

Humankind urgently needs to make choices for a sustainable way of life - choices that help communities deal with complex environmental and social issues related to, for example, global warming, pollution, loss of biodiversity, over-urbanisation and rural depletion. Such choices require stakeholder engagement and collaboration; resilient, thriving communities sharing the same values and ambitions.

Two hundred and sixty-two towns in 30 countries and territorial areas have made such a choice, namely to become an accredited Cittaslow and commit to the principles and values defined by Cittaslow, the association formally called “Cittaslow - Rete Internazionale delle città del buon vivere”, the international network of cities “where living is good” (Cittaslow International, 2019). Slow living stands for conscious living, social cohesion, preserving valuable landscapes and biodiversity, maintaining traditions and safeguarding identity, whilst optimally using modern and future opportunities to establish quality of life for residents and visitors (Cittaslow International, 2019). Ten of these Cittaslow are in the Netherlands, accredited between 2008 and 2018. An eleventh one was accredited at the end of 2018.

The case of the Dutch Cittaslow is an interesting one as, at first glance, they seem to be doing a great deal ‘by the book’. Cittaslow Netherlands (the network of Dutch Cittaslow accredited municipalities) decided early on to seek collaboration with businesses, organisations and self-employed persons, such as artists, in order to disseminate the concept and values of Cittaslow in the municipality, and asked the Cittaslow association to be allowed to give these businesses and organisations the status of ‘Supporter of the Cittaslow [municipality name]’.

Cittaslow Netherlands describes the Supporters as “business owners and organisations differentiating themselves from others in their industry. They support the Cittaslow values in their own municipality. In carrying out all their work they actively visualise that they adhere to

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44 These ‘Supporters of Cittaslow [municipality name]’ should not be confused with ‘Supporters of Cittaslow’ as described by the Cittaslow association (Cittaslow International, 2019).
and apply these values as a matter of course.” (Cittaslow Netherlands, 2019).

In order to develop a competitive identity as a tourism destination, which these municipalities are and aspire to be, literature recommends focusing on "purpose, strategy, policy, partnerships and symbolic actions" (UNWTO, 2014:34; Anholt, 2007, 2010). Cittaslow municipalities have defined their place identity to become accredited as Cittaslow; they have a purpose, namely implementation of the Cittaslow principles and values and establishing quality of life for residents and visitors, and have taken some admirable initiatives. By working with the concept of Supporters, Dutch Cittaslow do, at first glance, comply with the requirement of partnerships as well.

Dutch Cittaslow, however, are not widely known as Cittaslow, and brand awareness of the Cittaslow movement in general is very low. This low awareness level is not only evident among the general public in the Netherlands, but also among residents and visitors of these Cittaslow, policymakers, researchers and professionals, even among those working in relevant fields such as heritage, tourism and sustainability.

Hence, the aim of this paper is to identify opportunities for raising brand awareness and thus to be able to assist Cittaslow municipalities in strengthening their license to operate and optimise their effectiveness in realising their goals. The paper investigates in-depth the role of the Supporters; the collaborative alliance between these Supporters and the municipality; and the perceived collaborative value accruing to the Supporters from this alliance.

2. Main approach - theoretical lenses

We use two theoretical lenses to make sense of the place branding process of Dutch Cittaslow: place branding and corporate communication on the one hand, and collaboration and partnerships on the other hand. As will be shown, analysis of Supporters’ online and offline communications revealed that the majority do not “actively visualise that they adhere to and apply these [Cittaslow ed.] values as a matter of course” (Cittaslow Netherlands, 2019), as they are expected to do. Apparently, the perceived value of the status of Supporter is not high enough to invest in communicating it. Besides the low brand awareness of Cittaslow, it seemed likely that factors pertaining to the collaborative alliance influenced the perceived value of the status of Supporter. Furthermore, it seemed that the more successful the collaboration alliance is, the higher this perceived collaborative value accruing to the
individual Supporter is, and the higher the willingness of Supporters to communicate about the alliance and identify themselves as ‘Supporter of Cittaslow [municipality name]’. The exploratory model that we built is a result of an iterative research process including different research methods and is visualised in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Exploratory model.

3. Place branding and brand awareness

Anholt observes that ‘brand’ is used to refer to a variety of meanings, mainly as “brand image”, “brand identity” and “brand purpose”, the latter of which refers “to a common strategic vision that unites groups of people in order to produce change and thereby build reputation”; and that the link between these three “(that seems to exist in commercial branding) is not so evident” in place and destination branding (Anholt, 2007 and 2010, in UNWTO 2014:32). According to the World Tourism Organization, “Places must shape their behaviours around a central defining purpose in order to allow real actions and substance (policies, investments, events, etc.) to influence perceived place image and purpose” (UNWTO, 2014:34).

Ideally, developing a place brand starts by developing a vision, mission, and objectives and by describing a place’s identity: “the unique distinctive characteristics and meanings that exist in a place and its culture at a given point in time”, “constructed through historical,
economic, political, religious, social and cultural discourses” (Place Brand Observer, 2015). Place identity is the point of departure for defining a brand essence, which incorporates the brand identity, that is “the brand name, narrative, visual identity and scope” as well as ”values that create a sense of belonging and purpose, authenticity; consistency and sensory appeal” (Govers and Go, 2009; Place Brand Observer, 2015).

We use the term ‘brand awareness’ to refer to awareness of the brand name Cittaslow, the brand name Cittaslow in combination with a municipality name (i.e., does a person know that a municipality is a Cittaslow?) and the presence of brand associations (i.e., does a person know what the Cittaslow movement and/or a Cittaslow municipality stands for and promises?). The term ‘branding’ is used in the sense of ‘branding the municipality as a Cittaslow’.

At least in theory, a Cittaslow accredited municipality knows what is its place identity, as this identity is described in the accreditation application that earned it the title Cittaslow. Cittaslow is about “recognition and acknowledging” and “being it before one can become it”, according to one of the policymakers we interviewed. In addition, much of the place essence is predefined, such as names and logos (municipality plus Cittaslow) and, in general terms, values.

Given that branding is about exposure and experience, consistency and integration, participation and connection, raising the brand awareness of a municipality as a Cittaslow requires an “interactive process of exploration, scripting, and staging” (Pine and Gilmore, 1998), of establishing and sustaining participation and connections with Supporters and, of course, other residents and visitors in order to collaborate and co-create experiences (Aaker, 2006; Braun et al. 2013). These experiences link and create associations between place identity, brand name, purpose and promise, themes chosen and stories told (Pine and Gilmore, 1998, 1999).

The literature on place and destination branding demonstrates the importance of stakeholder engagement as well as the role of residents and collaboration in branding processes. For example, based on a review of different literature, Braun, Karavatzis and Zenker (2013) argue that citizens not only constitute part of the place brand, but they also play a vital role in acting as brand ambassadors and in providing legitimacy for the brand.
4. Collaboration and collaborative value

We used collaboration theory to gather understanding of the collaborative alliance and of the collaborative value accruing to Supporters from the alliance; to identify issues affecting the level of the various types of collaborative value; and finally, to identify opportunities to optimise collaboration in such a way that the level of collaborative value is increased. In particular, we use Austin and Seitanidi’s Collaborative Value Creation (CVC) framework (2012a, 2012b). Although this framework was originally applied to bilateral public private partnerships, we deem this framework relevant for our case, given the importance of collaboration for Cittaslows.

Wood and Gray (1991:146) define collaboration as occurring “[…] when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain”. They also emphasise the role of the convener, which is the party that initiates a collaboration and that can play an important part “in establishing, legitimizing, and guiding the collaborative alliance” (Wood and Gray, 1991:149), and the attributes of the convener, such as credibility and fairness (Wood and Gray, 1991:153).

Austin and Seitanidi (2012a, 2012b) focus on the creation of value as “the central justification” for collaboration. Collaborative value is defined as “the transitory and enduring benefits relative to the costs that are generated due to the interaction of the collaborators and that accrue to organizations, individuals and society” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a:728).

Collaboration is a way of securing “access to needed resources different than one possesses” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a:729) for which organisational compatibility is required. So Austin and Seitanidi (2012a:729-730) also identify four sources of value, namely “resource complementarity”, “resource nature”, “resource directionality and use” and “linked interests”. Linked interests pertain to a collaborator’s perception that his self-interests are linked to the value created for each other and “the larger social good”.

According to the CVC framework, the combination of these resources produces five types of collaborative value and outcomes that can be either internal to the partnership at micro (individual) and/or meso (organisational) level; or external at macro level (others, society, environment etc.). The types of value produced include (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a:730-731):
• Associational value, which “is a derived benefit accruing to another partner simply from having a collaborative relationship with the other organization.” Examples of associational value outcomes include: “credibility, visibility, brand reputation, increased public awareness, improved media exposure, increased usage of products/services”.

• Transferred asset/resource value, which refers to “the benefit derived by a partner from the receipt of a resource from the other partner” and may involve, for example, financial support, support in kind, and volunteer capital.

• Interaction value, which pertains to “the intangibles that derive from the processes of partners working together”. Outcomes mentioned include: opportunities for learning, development of unique capabilities, relational capital, access to networks and improved community and government relations.

• Synergistic value, which Austin and Seitanidi (2012a:731) describe as “the collaborative creation of social and environmental value” generating “economic value and vice versa, sequentially or simultaneously, thereby creating a virtuous value circle. Outcomes include: opportunities for innovation and development of new partnerships.

• Psychological value, which pertains to “psychic satisfaction (self-actualization), and new friendships” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:950)

The CVC framework also incorporates partnership processes. Factors that determine the co-creation of value include:

• Partnership compatibility, which is based on “linked interests” and “partners’ social problem frames” revealing “commonalities or differences on how they perceive the dimensions of a social problem”. In case partners are able to link their interests and also at the macro level, that is, “with the broader societal betterment”, there is high potential for co-creation of value and “synergistic value capture at the societal level” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:932). Austin and Seitanidi recommend close examination of partners’ motivations.

• Austin and Seitanidi (2012b:934) show that visibility is an important motive for the formation of partnerships. Visibility enhances a partner’s reputation and “contributes to social license to operate, [...] credibility, and increased potential for funding”. In effect, positive visibility, a form of associational value, is a highly desired outcome for the partners. This outcome requires both partners being “comfortable with the potential benefit and costs of their partner’s visibility” which requires being comfortable with each other’s ‘frames’ of the problem, linked interests and resources, motives and missions, in other words, the presence of “Partnership fit”.

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Partnership implementation, which includes "formal processes that influence the implementation leading to outcomes", "setting objectives", "formulating rules and regulations", "drafting a memorandum of understanding", and "agreeing on the partnership management"; all this to "add structural and purpose congruency which attributes to organizational compatibility and generates interaction value" (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:936-937). "If partners are to co-create value adjustment of their value frames or even frame convergence/fusion is required" (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:940).

5. Methodology

Data collection took place between February 2017 and September 2018 and entailed a multi-method approach, including:

- content analysis of all websites published by Dutch Cittaslows;
- content analysis of the websites of 300 Supporters, out of the total population of 333 Supporters;
- field observations while exploring and experiencing ten Cittaslow municipalities and visiting several Supporter premises;
- semi-structured interviews with the mayors or policymaker responsible for Cittaslow of five Cittaslows;
- semi-structured interviews with 156 passers-by - residents and visitors of seven of the ten Cittaslows;
- analysis of the information that 64 Supporters submitted in response to a questionnaire (from here on called ‘Supporters’ Questionnaire’) containing open and closed questions and sent to the 311 Supporters of whom an email address or online contact form was found.

The response rate of the survey was about 21%. We used one of the techniques recommended by Rogelberg and Stanton (2007: 199), namely to "Replicate findings, use a different set of research methods", in order to examine to what degree non-response bias could be an issue. The results of the analysis of Supporters’ websites show that 25% of them do show or mention the status of Supporter somewhere on their website (see Table 3 below). On the other hand, of the respondents to the questionnaire, 42% state that they communicate the fact that they are a Supporter on their website. This percentage is substantially higher than in the website analysis and might indicate that the survey respondents represent Supporters with an above-average commitment, whilst the non-respondents are less interested in their status. We do not consider the difference between these two percentages (25% versus 42%) to be so large as to pose serious validity concerns, however.
The responses to the Supporters’ Questionnaire were checked for references to the various types of collaborative value and related outcomes. That is, not only their answer to the question “what is the value of the status of Supporter for your company or organisation?” but all answers provided in the Supporters’ Questionnaire were analysed and all references to collaborative value coded using Austin and Seitanidi’s types of value.

Coding the answers to the questionnaire using the various types of value identified in the literature came with the realisation that these types are far from clear-cut categories and that they, and the related outcomes, overlap. Some statements needed to be labelled with the most likely type of value. The overall result, however, in the sense of the relative ratios per type of value, is confirmed by information gathered through the other methods, such as interviews and fieldwork.

6. Findings

Asked directly “what is the value of the status of Supporter for your company or organisation?”, 27% of the respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire answered: “none”, but in their answers to other questions, some of these Supporters do refer to value accruing to them. Below we discuss the different types of perceived collaborative value, as well as the main issues influencing a specific type of value. The results are based primarily on all the information Supporters shared in response to the questionnaire, but the content analysis of websites, field observations and interviews also contributed important insights.

**Associational value**

Thirty-five percent of the respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire refer to a form of associational value accruing to them from their alliance with the municipality (see Table 1). The collaboration between Dutch Cittaslows and their Supporters does not result in high visibility and thus exposure to the brands Cittaslow and Cittaslow [municipality name], to the names of the businesses and organisations and to the products and services they offer, nor to the status of ‘Supporter of Cittaslow [municipality name]’. Visibility, in general, is low, and thus the associational value accruing to Supporters and municipalities is also low. Nine percent of respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire state that the status of Supporter is of no value to them and thus there is no reason to communicate it. Twenty-three of the respondents draw a direct link between low brand awareness (also due to the municipality
not putting enough effort into it) and the low value of the status of Supporter.

This lack of visibility seems to be caused in the first place by the Dutch Cittaslow themselves. Analysis of the ten municipality websites reveals that they all offer a dedicated web page on Cittaslow somewhere on their website, but in the majority of cases, one has to perform a dedicated search (see Table 2). Of the six municipalities that work with Supporters, five provide a web page with the names of the Supporters, four with links to Supporters’ websites. Only one municipality offers a more elaborate profile of each of the Supporters. Opportunities to brand the municipalities as Cittaslow online and put their Supporters in the spotlight remain unused. Some municipalities invest in admirable projects and attractive (visual) storytelling. With the exception of one municipality, there is lack of strategy, coherence and consistency in communications, which the interviewees also admitted. This lack of coherence is reflected, for example, in municipalities issuing varied Supporter logos, potentially hindering recognition; and the lack of a brand manual including guidelines and tools for communicating the status of Supporters. Field observations resulted in the same conclusion: municipalities differ, but except for flags featuring the Cittaslow snail in front of the town hall, finding other references to Cittaslow or Cittaslow [municipality name] often requires a dedicated search.

A detailed discussion of the reasons why the Dutch Cittaslow are not more active and effective in creating exposure and experience (and possible solutions) falls outside the scope of this paper. However, interviewees indicated that the lack of activity and effectiveness results from the problem that these municipalities do not find it easy to ‘translate’ something as elusive as “a philosophy” into specific brand promises and to turn values into practice, a high workload and a lack of capacity, as well as the existence of other (tourism) brands.

There are some companies and organisations that proudly report the fact that they were given the status of Supporter (see Table 3). In the opinion of our respondents, Supporters not communicating their status and thus not contributing to brand awareness of the municipality being a Cittaslow – the majority – results in visibility and associational value being low too. Three hundred of the 333 Supporters have a website. In 22% of these websites, the Supporter logo or the general Cittaslow logo features on the home page. Twelve percent of the Supporters refer to their status in another way on the home page. Nine percent mention the
municipality name in relation to their status of Supporter. Four percent explain Cittaslow and/or motivate their status. As to other web pages, the figures are slightly higher. In sum, the majority of Supporters does not communicate their status. Field observations during visits to Supporters’ premises, although by no means representative, confirm the overall picture.

Several other issues seem to affect the level of perceived associational value accruing to Supporters and the perceived status of Supporter. These pertain to partnership compatibility and credibility. Visibility can contribute to credibility, but requires partners being “comfortable with the potential benefit and costs of their partner’s visibility” which requires being comfortable with each other’s ‘frames’ of the problem, linked interests and resources, motives and missions (i.e., “Partnership fit”, Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:934).

The case of Cittaslow in the Netherlands shows that Supporters feel the need to be comfortable not only with the municipalities’ visibility and credibility, but also with that of other Supporters. Eight percent of respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire is of the opinion that “obviously anybody can become a Supporter” i.e. also companies who have no proven record of complying with Cittaslow values, and thus the value of the status is low. Twenty-three percent mention issues of credibility as to the role of the municipality as convener; this percentage increases to 32% if one adds the opinion that the municipality is not selective enough when awarding the status of Supporter.

**Interaction value**

The type of value most referred to in responses to the Supporters’ Questionnaire is interaction value (see Table 1). Typical related outcomes pertain to relational capital, access to networks and the town hall, and improved community relations. Several Supporters refer to the wish to be “in the picture” at the town hall. The benefit of being a Supporter is described as “at least we see each other once in a while”. ‘Fear of missing out’ may play a role as Cittaslow is relatively small communities and business owners are dependent on their representatives and civil servants.

**Transferred asset/resource value and synergistic value**

Eight percent of the respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire refer to transferred value; 14% refer to synergistic value, that is, value
accruing from combining partners’ resources that have enabled them to accomplish more than they could have separately (see Table 1).

We relate this to another issue that our research revealed, namely the lack of purpose and partnership implementation. A common thread in information provided by Supporters is: ‘communication equals collaboration equals meeting other Supporters and municipality representatives’. Communication between Supporters and a municipality pertains mainly to get-togethers. Fifty-two percent of respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire indicate that communication is about being invited to meetings of/for Supporters and (a few) other (Cittaslow-related) events (see Table 4).

With the exception of a few references to synergy – mainly in working with other Supporters in, for example, exchanging produce or organising a local food market together and with the municipality – no “ends” in terms of Wood and Gray (1991:146) of the meetings or the collaboration in general are specified. The meetings may be “interesting”, but they do not seem to have a purpose other than meeting and maybe learning from each other. There are no specific “ends” towards which the Supporters work either together or in groups. Sixty-nine percent of Supporters indicate that some value is created and accrues to them, even if very little.

This figure, however, may paint too positive a picture overall, as a result of our attempt not to leave any indication of value unlabelled. In addition, answers may have been influenced by what also resulted in interaction value being the most important type of value: the wish not to damage the relationship with the municipality. Fifty percent of the respondents state that collaboration as a Supporter has not led to any specific results. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents state that being a Supporter has been of no value at all for their company or organisation, some expressing their disappointment:

- “I had higher expectations of it.”
- “There are contacts, but there is no actual collaboration.”
- “I think everybody can become a Supporter, even after one day” [after they opened their business].
- “It would be good if we would get more tools to market Cittaslow, so that our guests would recognise it.”

Wood and Gray’s (1991:148) definition of collaboration includes “acting or deciding on issues related to the domain.” “Because collaboration is directed towards an objective, the participants must intend to act or decide.” “The issues addressed must concern the domain’s “future”.
What we see happening is that Supporters meet, but, with a few exceptions, do not seem “to act or decide” on things determining the future. In addition, Cittaslow’s insufficiently “shape their behaviours around a central defining purpose in order to allow real actions and substance [...] to influence place image and purpose” (UNWTO, 2014:34), in the eyes of the Supporters.

In terms of Austin and Seitanidi’s (2012b:936-937) “partnership implementation”, there are no “formal processes that influence the implementation leading to outcomes”, “setting objectives”, “taking measures for “structural and purpose congruency”. It seems necessary to adjust value frames and “construct a prognostic framework” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012b:940) to optimise collaboration and turn Cittaslow values into practice.

**Psychological value/self-actualisation**

Forty percent of respondents refer to the psychological value of supporting the municipality in being a Cittaslow and the values it stands for (see Table 1). This relatively high percentage can be explained by the type and level of “linked interests”. The answers to all questions in the Supporters’ Questionnaire were scanned for expressions of values and other indications of linked interests. These indications were labelled either:

- ‘Linked interests at meso level’ if they pertain to the municipality and/or fellow Supporters and/or typical Cittaslow values, such as “using local products” or “small scale”;

or:

- ‘Linked interests at macro level’ if the Supporter expresses values or refers to the broader environmental or societal (potential) benefit of the collaboration, such as the Dutch equivalents of “sustainable”, “biodiversity” and “nature conservation”.

These categories of interests overlap, in the sense that the Cittaslow philosophy focuses not only on the municipality but also aims to achieve broader environmental or societal goals. Those Supporters expressing values and linked interests at the macro level are motivated to support their municipality in being a Cittaslow because this is the way to achieve the broader environmental or societal interests they care about. This may also be the reason why many express linked interests at both levels.
Table 5 provides an insight into the number and percentage of Supporters expressing values or referring to linked interests within the Cittaslow alliance and/or what Austin and Seitanidi (2012a:729-730) call “the larger social good” at the macro level.

The overall picture that emerges is that of motivated residents, of whom many made the deliberate choice to contact the municipality about becoming a Supporter. These Supporters realise that they “have linked interests in that creating value for oneself is dependent on creating it for the other” (Austin and Seitanidi 2012a:739-740). Whereas one Supporter states “We were Cittaslow before it got a name”, indicating he welcomed the Cittaslow philosophy adopted by his municipality and wholeheartedly took on the role of Supporter, another Supporter explains that becoming a Supporter motivated her to have her company work in an even more sustainable way. In terms of Austin and Seitanidi’s “Partnership Fit Potential” (2012b:934), a majority of Supporters seem to comply with important requirements. It explains the relatively high level of psychological value perceived and the disappointment some express about the collaboration not resulting sufficiently in specific results.

7. Conclusions

This paper explored the reasons why Cittaslow accredited municipalities in the Netherlands are not well known as Cittaslows and brand awareness of the Cittaslow movement in general is very low, as well as opportunities for raising brand awareness. A lack of strategy, (knowledge of) communication and visibility explains in part why Cittaslows in the Netherlands are hardly known as such. The municipalities leave unused many opportunities to generate exposure and co-create on-brand (resident and visitor) experiences.

We analysed in-depth the alliance between the municipalities and their Supporters using insights offered by collaboration theory, in particular, the Collaborative Value Framework as proposed by Austin and Seitanidi (2012a, 2012b).

We found that opportunities for increasing brand awareness lie in optimising the collaborative alliance in order to increase the level of perceived collaborative value accruing to Supporters from this alliance. Increasing the perceived collaborative value of the alliance will increase the perceived value of the status of Supporter and consequently the Supporters’ willingness to invest in communicating about their status and their role in the Cittaslow movement.
Most respondents to the Supporters’ Questionnaire do perceive the collaborative alliance with their municipality as generating some value. Interaction value is created most, by meeting other Supporters and by connecting and “being in the picture” with representatives of the municipality. Psychological value comes second due to Supporters perceiving “linked interests” and being motivated to support their municipality in implementing the Cittaslow principles and values. However, as visibility is low, so is the perceived associational value accruing to Supporters.

As Wood and Gray (1991:146) explain, “Collaboration occurs when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain”. Collaboration is about getting access to different resources from those one possesses. Dutch Cittaslow are not very successful in accessing the power the Supporters have to generate visibility or to co-create the transferred and synergistic type of value necessary for the realisation of the Cittaslow ambitions and the coherence and consistency that place branding requires.

This lack of success is regrettable, for many express having ‘linked interests’, that is, they do adhere to Cittaslow values, they even have a sense of urgency, and are motivated to support the municipality in establishing quality of life and sustainability. Issues affecting the creation of collaborative value include a lack of purpose of the collaborative alliance, that is, in the eyes of the Supporters it is not change-oriented enough and there are no specific objectives and processes ensuring outcomes. Supporters do not “act or decide”. In addition, there are issues of credibility due to the municipalities being perceived as not having (Cittaslow-compatible) strategies and policies and appointing Supporters perceived by other Supporters as not having the same value framework and/or contributing equally to the municipality being Cittaslow.

The Cittaslow movement encourages members and stakeholders to meet and learn from each other, and this is what Dutch Cittaslow municipalities facilitate too. The wish of the Supporters, though, is for more: visibility, change-oriented and purposeful collaboration with their municipality and with other Supporters – provided these have matching value frames – resulting in specific outcomes. These wishes are some of the aspects of what Austin and Seitani (2012b) call “partnership compatibility” and “partnership implementation” and offer opportunities for Cittaslow who wish to raise the level of perceived collaborative value, the perceived value of the status of Supporter, and
to leverage the role of their Supporters in raising brand awareness for the Cittaslow movement.

Table 1: Perceived value of the status of Supporter and related issues as expressed by those responding to the Supporters’ Questionnaire. Percentages relate to the number of respondents (64).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived value of the status of Supporter</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicating value of any kind is created and accruing to the Supporter (even if very little)</td>
<td>44 (69%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating this value of being type associational</td>
<td>23 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating this value of being type transferred</td>
<td>5 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating this value of being type interaction</td>
<td>35 (55%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating this value of being type psychological</td>
<td>24 (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating this value of being type synergistic</td>
<td>9 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>States that being a Supporter has been of no value at all for company/organisation</td>
<td>17 (27%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Related issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>States that collaboration as a Supporter has not led to any specific results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referring to supporter status as a quality brand (“kwaliteitsmerk”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of the opinion that anybody can become supporter and thus the value of the status is low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentioning low brand awareness of Cittaslow with citizens and/or clients/stakeholders (due to the municipality not making enough of an effort)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referring to low visibility and low brand awareness as reasons for the low value of the status of Supporter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentioning (also other) issues of credibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentioning issues of fairness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Summary of the results of the analysis of Cittaslow municipality websites and Facebook pages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Dutch Cittaslow investigated</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home page</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cittaslow logo in header</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cittaslow logo in footer</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logo clickable and referring to dedicated page</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text link to a dedicated page about the municipality as Cittaslow</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elsewhere on website</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicate page about the municipality as Cittaslow</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Links to) video about the municipality as Cittaslow</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total number of websites of Cittaslow working with Supporters** 6

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name of Supporters provided</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link to Supporters’ websites provided</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each Supporter has a dedicated page</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total number of Facebook pages identified and analysed** 9

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cittaslow logo in header</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference/link to Cittaslow in info</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Summary of the results of the analysis of Supporters’ websites. Percentages relate to the number of Supporters with websites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of Supporters (belonging to 6 municipalities)</th>
<th>333</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supporters with websites</strong></td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home page</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cittaslow logo</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Supporter of’ mentioned</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of municipality mentioned</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logo clickable or other link provided to <a href="http://www.cittaslow-nederland.nl">www.cittaslow-nederland.nl</a></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Supporters about the communication with the municipality (value judgement and topic). Percentages relate to the number of respondents (64).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value judgment</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provided no information about communication</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information provided contained no (clear) value judgment</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little to no communication</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics mentioned:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Communication relates to specific projects | 6 | 9%  
Communication business (not Cittaslow) related | 6 | 9%  
Communication mainly Cittaslow events related/invitations | 33 | 52%

Table 5: Number and percentage of Supporters expressing values or referring in another way to linked interests. Percentages relate to the number of Supporters responding to the Questionnaire (64).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressing linked interests</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Referring to linked interests of any level (1 and /or 2)</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Referring to linked interests at meso level with Cittaslow/the Cittaslow municipality/other Supporters</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Referring to linked interests at macro level</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References**


Abstract

The aim of this paper is to examine to what extent nation branding can be applied to the European Union (EU) concerning EU efforts to enhance its image and reputation, especially after the arrival of several crises such as the economic and migration crisis, Brexit etc. Exploring previous but also current attempts of the EU to better communicate itself, the paper shows how EU communication shifted from communication campaigns focused on issues such as EU citizenship and a “common sense of belonging” to a holistic and integrated “branding” strategy aiming to gain people’s hearts and minds focused on narratives and storytelling. The sui generis nature of the EU was also analyzed taking into account the remarkable cultural and social diversity of the EU, the complexity in its functioning, the multiple levels of governance (EU, national, regional, local) and the multiple actors involved (European Commission, European Parliament, member states, national parliaments, citizens etc) underlining thus any similarities, particularities or constraints the EU presents regarding branding issues. The research was based mainly on qualitative data analysis (EU official texts, reports, audiovisual material) as well as on existing quantitative data (surveys, public opinion polls) in an effort to approach the topic basically through content and discourse analysis. Special attention was given to the May 2019 European Parliament election campaign where the new EU branding effort -based on the narrative of an EU that “delivers, empowers and protects” accentuating on values, solidarity and democracy- was applied more systematically. The paper concludes that EU branding efforts borrow many nation branding elements but given the particularities of the EU as a sui generis political entity, these efforts are considerably affected.

Keywords: nation branding, EU branding, EU image, EU strategic communication, EU identity
Introduction

The way the European Union (EU) communicates itself has evolved over the years ranging from one-way communication campaigns in order to inform European citizens, to a more participatory model trying to establish a relationship with people. Recently, especially after the arrival of unprecedented crises in Europe such as the economic and migration crisis, Brexit, the rise in populism and euroscepticism, there has been a shift in the way the EU communicates with the public. A more holistic and integrated branding effort, concerning the promotion of a positive EU image, has been observed with a view to restoring EU’s reputation, both in internal and external audiences. These efforts could be described as an attempt to enhance the EU’s competitive identity, as this term is defined in Anholt’s work (Anholt, 2008, cited in Dinnie, p.22).

The purpose of this paper is to examine to what extent these efforts to enhance the EU’s image can be considered as nation branding, taking into account the particularities of the EU as a sui generis political entity. The research was based mainly on qualitative data analysis (EU official texts, reports, audiovisual material) in an effort to approach the issue through content and discourse analysis. Narrative analysis was also conducted as storytelling and language used in the texts are of utmost importance concerning branding issues. Existing quantitative data from Eurobarometer public opinion polls, EU surveys and Simon Anholt’s Nation Brands Index (Anholt 2007a) were also taken into consideration. Special attention was given to European Parliament elections of May 2019 both in terms of electoral campaign and results.

The paper concludes that although the EU cannot be considered a state, EU branding efforts have many similarities with nation branding tactics, facing though additional challenges deriving from the complexity in the functioning of the EU and the multiple levels of governance. Moreover, an integrated but more realistic approach in EU branding seems to be more appropriate than other more ambitious previous attempts.

1. Legitimacy through communication

It is in the year 2005 that the EU for the first time -and more precisely the European Commission- started to become concerned about the EU image and thought upon communicating the EU to the general public in a more organized way. That is when the French and the Dutch people rejected in separate referendums the big vision of the EU at that time, namely the EU constitution and the deepening of the European integration. In an effort to gain the approval of European peoples and
the proper legitimacy to enhance the European project, the Barroso Commission launched the “Plan D for Democracy, Dialogue and Debate” (Commission of the European Communities, 2005b) in a first attempt to “clarify, deepen and legitimize a new consensus on Europe”.

This initiative with that long and unattractive name was designed to promote citizen’s participation to the discussion about the future of the EU with a special focus on gaining insight into the “needs and expectations” of EU citizens. In the “Action Plan to improve communicating Europe by the Commission” (Commission of the European Communities, 2005a) which accompanied Plan D, an important observation was made signaling a shift in the way EU communication was perceived, emphasizing that “communication is more than information: it establishes a relationship and initiates a dialogue with European citizens, it listens carefully and it connects to people. It is not a neutral exercise devoid of value, it is an essential part of the political process”. What is more the European Commission started to realize the need to improve the image and the communication of the European Commission and of the European Union as a whole (Commission of the European Communities, 2005a), although no concrete actions for a holistic approach were taken.

A year later the European Commission adopted a “White Paper on a European Communication Policy” (Commission of the European Communities, 2006) describing a communication strategy that emphasized on the two-way communication with citizens and underlining the need to develop a ‘human face’ for the EU, which is often perceived as ‘faceless’ having no clear public identity.

The basic idea was to improve the public understanding of the EU and its activities and to strengthen a common sense of belonging among citizens fostering an EU identity, an element that was missing in the EU area and its peoples. The strategy comprised several measures and activities such as publication of programmatic documents, adoption of new online tools or provision of funds for civil society’s initiatives. These communicative efforts were associated with an aspiration to form a “European public sphere” (Valentini and Nesti, 2010) –a place similar to the national public sphere (Habermas, 1989)– where citizens could discuss about several political issues influencing political decisions about the EU. In this way, European citizens could feel that they are participating in the European project through discussion and dialogue, experiencing at the same time a collective sense of community.

Although the rejection of the European constitution in 2005 referendums was also reflecting the disapproval and discontent of
national politics, it cannot be ignored that European citizens were reluctant to confer more power to the EU, questioning the direction the Union was taking. The EU identity deficit coupled with the so-called “democratic deficit” within this sui generis polity that is the EU - where citizens do not participate directly in the decision making but only indirectly through European Parliament Elections - was hindering popular support towards the ambitious Union’s goals. At the same time, the globalised international environment was challenging people’s perceptions about the world as they knew it, since this was rapidly changing in terms of economy, governance and culture, making people feel unsecure.

2. Deterioration of the EU image

The aforementioned EU Communication Strategy did not seem to convince European citizens to support the Union’s goals and in the 2009 European parliament elections a further decrease in the turnout (to just 43%) was observed, while little to no interest was shown in the manifestos and campaigns of the EU-wide political parties (Tsoukalis, Cramme and Liddle, 2009, p.18). At the same time, according to the Eurobarometer that was published in September 2009 (Eurobarometer 71, 2009), less than a majority of EU citizens had a positive image of the European Union (45%), although national support for membership of the EU had been stabilized at a level just over 50%. Moreover, a majority of 35% was thinking that the EU is “going in the wrong direction” while a 34% was seeing the EU as “on the right track” but what is really eloquent is that the majority of European citizens (53%) did not think their voice counted in the EU.

In the coming years, the arrival of some unprecedented crises in Europe such as the economic crisis, the migration crisis, terrorist attacks and Brexit would severely damage the image of the EU both in the domestic but also in the international public, eroding general public’s trust in the EU.

According to a study conducted by the European Parliament Research service published in 2016 (Major changes in European public opinion regarding the European Union, 2016), there was a significant

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45 Follesdad and Hix 2006 (cited in Valentini and Nesti, 2010, p.8) in their analysis of the question of the democratic deficit in the EU, mention, as causes of its weak popular legitimacy, the excessive power hold by national executives within the Council against the legislative, the limited competencies conferred to the European Parliament and the presence of weak electoral mechanisms. This is still the case, although the role of the European Parliament has been reinforced in the domain of the EU budget and legislation and in the election of the European Commission President.
deterioration of the EU image between autumn 2011 and autumn 2013, when the economic crisis became a “Member State” public debt crisis. Trust in the European Union and its institutions also deteriorated from spring 2010. In addition, according to a Pew Research Center survey in September 2018 (Connor, 2018), there was widespread disapproval of how the EU had handled the refugee issue. Interestingly, this disapproval exceeded disapproval rates of the EU’s handling of the economy, according to the Center’s spring 2017 survey.

The previous strategy that aimed at fostering public support through dialogue and communication with the European citizens had not been quite successful, especially at a time when the EU did not seem able to address properly and in time the prementioned crises. In addition, there was no concrete narrative about the EU, European citizens did not take part to the “EU Dialogue” to a great extent and when asked they did not have a decisive say about the future of the EU.

3. The new EU communication approach

Faced with these challenges and especially with the rise of nationalism, populism and Euroscepticism, the EU has recently started to transform its communication strategy to a consistent branding strategy. Against the ‘political’ approach of gaining people’s legitimacy through democratic procedures and the creation of a European public sphere, the new approach is more pragmatic and shifted to the results that the EU delivers. Some analysts argue (Surowiec, 2017) that in this case the image of the EU tends to be depoliticized putting emphasis on market-oriented branding, without leaving any space for political changes by the citizens, in a highly complex international environment.

This new approach is borrowing notions and tactics from nation branding such as branding strategy, narratives and storytelling, even if the EU cannot be compared neither to a state nor a nation. Having though in mind that the EU is a supranational political entity affecting people’s lives by its policies, seeking at the same time to enhance its image and reputation both internally and externally, one can find a

46 For the approach of input legitimacy that is based on a shared European identity and procedures vs the output legitimacy that is based on the ability of the EU to deliver results for European citizens, see Tsoukalas, Cramme and Liddle, 2009, p.21.
47 For a thorough analysis concerning the technical-economical, political and cultural approach on nation branding see Kaneva, 2011.
48 The Europe-wide student competition to design a new logo and slogan for Europe in celebration of the 50th anniversary of the Treaty of Rome in 2007 was a first but inconsistent attempt to create a “brand identity” without taking into account that the EU brand itself was vague and unclear. A thorough analysis about the EU Birthday Logo Competition in (Aiello, 2012, pp 459-486 and Anholt, 2007 p 118).
substantial affinity between EU and nation branding. With no doubt the particular characteristics of the Union reveal a number of constraints when applying nation branding to the EU.

3.1 Nation Branding and EU Branding

Without neglecting the numerous definitions of nation branding and the disagreement about its meaning and scope, a working definition of nation branding, for the sake of this paper, could comprise the efforts of a nation (or the EU) to enhance its image and reputation adopting techniques and practices from corporate marketing. According to some analysts “nation branding uses the tools of branding to alter or change the behavior, attitudes, identity or image of a nation in a positive way” (Gudjonsson 2005). That could describe the efforts of the EU to change internal and external public opinion in favor of the EU model. The interdisciplinary character of nation branding attracting the interest of analysts from various disciplines like communication, marketing, political sciences, international relations, social & cultural studies and economics depicts the large scope of nation branding and could be useful to explain the analysis of EU branding in nation branding terms.

In a measurement of the EU as a brand, in Simon Anholt’s Nation Brands Index (NBI) in 2006 (Anholt, 2007a), it came out that “Europe as a continent was very highly esteemed, whereas the ranking of the EU as an institution was very low being associated with factors that are at best tedious and worst dysfunctional, even corrupt: bureaucracy, interfering legislation, outdated ideologies and so on”. People from third countries outside the EU seemed to be incapable of making a distinction between the European Union and Europe as a continent. This observation reveals an issue that is not only technical concerning the actual brand of Europe, “as the word ‘Europe’ can mean quite different things to different people in different contexts and it’s sometimes hard to know which ‘brand’ one is actually measuring” as Simon Anholt cites in his article (Anholt 2007a). Anholt argues that “one reason why the brand image of Europe-as-institution falls so far short of the powerful ‘natural’ brand of Europe-as-continent is because the region is lacking a powerful and widely agreed internal brand, a sense of common purpose and common identity” an argument that demonstrates the need for EU branding.

3.2 Towards an EU branding strategy

In 2018 the President of the European Commission Juncker proposed a corporate communication strategy that promotes the narrative of an EU
that improves people’s lives. This narrative is built upon three main strands that constitute a strategic communication framework reflecting the political priorities of the EU, an EU that delivers, that empowers and that protects (Communication to the Commission from President Juncker and Commissioner Oetinger, 2018). The aim is to create a consistent branding strategy and reinforce the corporate approach not only vis-à-vis the public but also with the Commission and the rest of the EU institutions. The general objectives of this corporate communication strategy are: i) to listen, exchange and engage with citizens on what the EU stands for, ii) to raise public awareness about the EU as a whole, iii) to demonstrate the positive impact of EU policies and laws on European citizens, iv) to address the most widespread myths and misinformation about European Commission and EU, v) to raise public awareness about the ways the EU citizens and stakeholders can contribute to the EU policy and law making.

To achieve the above objectives, the following range of specific actions and tools were suggested: i) production of content, including photos, audiovisual, graphic and written material, ii) provision of other corporate technical services that benefit the institution as a whole such as online services, including the institutional web presence and social media activity, in line with existing corporate policies and domain standards iii) disseminating information through integrated communication actions, including on multimedia platforms, including holding the required licenses, iv) acquiring media space, including TV and radio air time, outdoor and indoor advertising, web adverts and other online promotion techniques and print media space, v) organizing and participating in events, including exhibitions, fora, dialogues and other activities aimed at citizens (face to face events and / or online consultations) etc. All these actions should be communicated to the citizens in the language they know best using instruments that promote multilingualism. An evaluation phase of all these actions is also foreseen.

According to a report ordered by the President of the European Commission Juncker (Van den Brande, 2017) a year before the publication of the corporate communication strategy, the EU instead of disseminating only rational information with facts and figures about the Union should mainly try to win peoples’ hearts, if it is to gain their emotional engagement. The use of a simpler and a more popular language when communicating with people could more easily invoke their emotional empathy. Efforts to build on the emotions of fear, solidarity and pride were already observed in official EU texts in 2017 concerning the future of the EU (Munin, 2019, p.52).
In a recent document in May 2019 about the future of the EU (Preparing for a more united, stronger and more democratic Union in an increasingly uncertain world, 2019), the issue of effective communication was once again raised. The document stresses the importance of “constant, honest and transparent communication about what the EU is, what it does, what values it stands for and how its decisions are taken” underlining that this communication is a responsibility shared not only by EU institutions but also by Member States at all levels – at national, regional and local level. The aim is to have a coherent message transmitted, since the emission of different messages concerning the EU, does not serve the creation and promotion of a coherent brand.

Another important element in this new communication approach (Landabaso, 2017) towards a coherent brand is that communication no longer involves separately the EU institutions (Commission, Parliament, Council) but comprises an integrated effort to communicate the EU as a whole in broad audiences. The emphasis is currently on constructing a narrative for hope and EU values, a storytelling with a human angle. The message has to be transmitted using appropriate communication channels (offline and online communication) targeting real people with real stories when communicating EU’s benefits and achievements (EU investments, EU funding projects, regional policy, internal security, prosperity, solidarity etc). As Peter van Ham described it (van Ham, 2001) in an article “knowing that Europe will never inspire affection in its citizens similar to that enjoyed by the nation-state, the EU is in the midst of a campaign to brand itself as a beacon of civilization and prosperity in an otherwise disorderly and disoriented world”.

Special emphasis is put on multilingual communication, this hallmark of the EU and its cultural diversity, since the ultimate purpose of communicating about Europe is about enabling citizens to make informed choices and participate fully in EU procedures. According to the official EU texts (Preparing for a more united, stronger and more democratic Union in an increasingly uncertain world, 2019) “the increasing nationalist-populist narrative that is based on a false dichotomy pitching national against European has to be contested by a strong counter-narrative that explains the EU’s fundamental role and benefits”. As it is expressively described in the aforementioned text, it is time to end the phenomenon of “over-delivering and under-selling”, both in the domestic and international area. This communication about the EU has to be expanded to third countries to promote EU’s role on the global stage and EU’s strategic interests.
3.3 Particularities of EU Branding

The EU as a sui generis political entity is characterized by several particularities that hinder EU efforts to promote an EU branding. First of all there is a remarkable cultural, social and economic diversity among the nation member states making difficult the creation of a European identity and a sense of belonging. The complexity in the functioning of the EU, the bureaucracy and the “democratic deficit” that was analyzed above, do not help the formulation of a clear image about the EU.

The multiple levels of governance (EU, national, regional, local) equally hampers the creation and dissemination of coherent and unified messages to citizens about the EU and its goals. At the same time the multiple actors that are involved in the functioning of the EU (European Council, European Commission, European Parliament, European Central Bank, European Court of Justice) as well as the various EU agencies and organizations that act in a complementary way, do not have a unified communication approach of the EU towards citizens. As a result, EU citizens but also all the above actors in national and EU level do not perceive the EU in a similar way, an element that is critical for a successful branding. What is more, the EU itself as an entity has not reached its final structure, but it is constantly evolving, mainly according to member states leaders’ decisions.

It has to be underlined that communication and branding efforts are conducted by the European Commission, the executive body of the EU, trying to transmit a corporate communication approach to the rest of the EU institutions but also to the member states. Until recently EU institutions had their own communication strategies and even their own logos. The new approach of the EU communication resembling to EU branding, is trying to overcome the above particularities of the Union in an effort to strengthen the EU’s image both in domestic and foreign audiences. These efforts could be described as an attempt to enhance the Competitive Identity of the EU in a globalized world where multiple players (countries, regions, corporations, religions, NGOs, organizations etc) are competing each other for a favorable positioning (Anholt, 2007b).

In order to tailor the transmitted messages to the local interests and sensitivities, the European Commission works closely with its Representations in the Member States acting actually as the extension and hub of the European Commission in their respective countries. Their work is to connect with national, regional and local authorities, social partners, academics, researchers, journalists, businesses, cultural
actors and the media, in order to relay EU priorities and promote the EU image. At this point, one could argue that, insofar as the citizens of the member states are part of different nations and that an EU nation (or a strong EU identity) does not exist, EU citizens could be considered foreign audience as regards EU branding efforts. In this sense, the audience within the various EU institutions and organizations could be regarded as domestic audience. That is one major difference between EU and nation branding as communication efforts seem to be dispersed without clear target audiences.

A short comparative listing between EU branding efforts and nation branding elements follows in the next table, to facilitate the understanding of applying nation branding to the EU.

Table 1: Comparative list between Nation and EU Branding – Basic elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Nation Branding Elements</th>
<th>EU Branding</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Brand Image</td>
<td>The EU is a Union of people and values, providing peace, stability and prosperity across Europe and beyond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Identity</td>
<td>The EU is trying to create the sense of a European identity based on European values such as Freedom, democracy, equality and respect for the rule of law, human rights and dignity. Cultural heritage and diversity in EU countries is also a reinforcing element of EU identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>An EU that delivers, that empowers and that protects its peoples. A narrative for hope reviving EU values through storytelling with a human angle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Messages</td>
<td>Efforts for a coherent and unified message concerning the role and benefits of the EU. Clear and sharp messages in all EU citizens own language adapted to age, culture and background. Example of messages: “The EU is built on solidarity”, “EU investment is creating jobs, changing lives and revitalizing communities across Europe”, “EU empowers reconnecting Europeans with core EU values”, “EU protects taking measures to promote safety, health and security”, “the EU is an important global actor addressing challenges such as climate change, terrorism, migration”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Governance

Multi level EU governance (EU, National Regional, Local level). Efforts to create and disseminate common messages under the EU brand as a joint responsibility for EU Member States, governments at all levels and EU institutions alike.

Actors involved

Multiple actors involved (European Council, European Commission, European Parliament, Member States, National Parliaments, Citizens)

Competitive environment

EU has to strengthen and promote its image against alternative choices that have been recently available, such as nationalism/populism or even exit from the EU (e.g. Brexit).

Channels of Communication

Increasing use of social media, audiovisual communication and digital tools, use of infographics, visual narratives and story-driven videos. Emphasis is also put on offline communication (visits, events etc).

Audiences

Concerning the EU, domestic and foreign audiences cannot be clearly distinguished, as member states audiences cannot be considered “domestic” since they belong to different nations and not to an EU nation. Audiences of third countries and organizations are definitely what nation branding considers foreign audience.

4. European Parliament Elections 2019

This new brand-centered communication approach of the EU was largely implemented in view of the European Parliament Election of May 2019, the most crucial Parliament Elections concerning the future of the EU. The lack of trust in the European Union in conjunction with the severe economic and migration crises that have hit the EU in the past years, without forgetting the traumatic experience of the ongoing Brexit, was certainly worrying EU officials about the elections results. Taking into account the significant rise of nationalist and populist parties according to European polls, the European Parliament but also the European Commission, prepared a dynamic election campaign making use of this new “EU branding” effort.

Through the organization of a professional election campaign, the EU49 repeatedly used the narrative of an EU that delivers, empowers and

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49 Although the election campaign was mainly conducted by the European Parliament and the European Commission, it is considered an EU campaign since the campaign was in line with the new EU branding communication approach.
protects accentuating on a European identity that is based on values, solidarity and democracy (European Parliament, 2019). Disseminating in a firm and constant way clear and coherent messages about the role and benefits of the EU but also about the cost of non-membership, the EU presented a counter narrative against those that devaluated the Union.

At the same time in order to maximize the campaign’s results the EU tried to include all actors involved in the EU project in a multilevel approach i.e. states, regions, cities, citizens, journalists etc. Needless to say, that the European Commission’s Representations in Member States supported the effort to adapt the messages to local audiences. To this direction, all messages and material produced during this campaign were translated to all communities’ languages in the EU. Making use of all communication tools and channels both online and offline (website, outdoor advertising, media, fact-sheets, infographics, visuals, leaflets, events, meetings etc) (European Commission, 2018), and especially social media, the EU tried to have a direct contact with citizens overcoming the lack of mass media coverage for EU issues, bypassing also the powerful national political agenda.

In order to attract citizen’s interest to the election, the European Parliament decided to disseminate an emotional and shocking video, as the main campaign video, showing raw scenes from a birth representing the anxiety and hope for the future of the EU. The video, that broke taboos in EU Communication, was a real success as, within a few days, over 75 million people had seen it, generating thousands of positive but also negative comments on social media. Another provocative video almost the 51% of European voters and a limited victory of the nationalists / populists showing the Austrian transgender singer Conchita Wurst encouraging European citizens to go and vote also caused a vivid conversation about the EU and its values. The polarization among social media users mainly between nationalists/populists and pro-europeans also characterized the 2019 EU election campaign. A large number of vivid, intense and sometimes insulting comments were observed in various EU social media, in a campaign that was surely the least dull of all EU parliament elections.

The campaign turned out to be quite successful for the EU since its main goals were met i.e. a rise in turnout and a strong presence of pro-european political forces that have won a majority. Overall support for the integration project is at historic highs, and the benefits of membership are obvious even to the EU populist critics (Rohac, 2019). On the other hand, traditionally strong and pro-european political parties like the European People’s Party and the Socialists & Democrats
have lost their majority in the European Parliament, generating the need for more coalitions in a Parliament that is more fragmented than ever. Only time will tell if the EU will be able to gain solid engagement and support from EU citizens, besides any temporary successful EU communication campaign.

Conclusion

The new EU communication approach incorporates communication tools such as branding strategy, narratives, clear messages and storytelling in an effort to enhance EU’s reputation and influence both internally and externally showing many similarities with nation branding. The holistic and more realistic approach of EU branding that is focused on legitimacy through results, targeting at the same time at the emotional engagement of EU citizens, seems to be more appropriate for the EU which is a sui generis political entity. Taking into account the European Parliament Election results in May 2019, it could be argued that this branding strategy is on the right direction. The EU survived against a strong confrontation with the populist/nationalist narrative that strongly denies its goals and values. Although the analysis of the results requires, with no doubt, a thorough examination, this new EU communication approach reinforced the electoral campaign. On the other hand, the EU should not rest after the satisfactory election results but it should enhance its communication with citizens, listening and responding to their needs and criticism, in addition to any branding strategy. As Simon Anholt cites, branding is neither a technique, nor a set of techniques by means of which brand image is directly built or enhanced. It has more to do with the quality of products, services or policies that are provided rather than what is said or how it looks like (Anholt, 2010).

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THE Local Identity and Cultural Heritage as the Core Values in Branding Chinese Ethnic Villages as Tourist Destinations

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Abstract
China has 56 ethnic groups, amongst them the Han group is the largest ethnicity, accounting for almost 92% of the total population. The remaining 55 ethnic groups represent about 8% of the Chinese population, that is why they are called ethnic minorities in Chinese. According to government statistics in 2018, they were 1,168 ethnic villages in China. Ethnic villages are villages occupied by one or more ethnic minorities.

As China’s smallest administrative divisions, villages usually count a few thousand inhabitants. Since 2009, the Chinese government has begun to further value the protection and development of ethnic minority villages, nationwide; encouraging ethnic villages to preserve local cultural heritage (including intangible cultural heritage), highlight the characteristics and features of traditional dwellings, carry out ethnic cultural traditions, further develop the cultural and creative industry, build more beautiful living environment and promote ethnic cultural tourism. Thereby, increasing the local people’s income and allowing the villages’ economy to thrive. The People’s Republic of China’s State Ethnic Affairs Commission has been granting the title of “Chinese Minority Cultural Village” to ethnic villages with distinctive culture features. Therefore, more and more ethnic villages are using their unique cultural characteristics to attract more tourists.

The present article explores the Chinese ethnic villages’ cultural identity and how to create a tourism destination brand through the characteristics of the minorities’ culture. The authors attempt to investigate the topic by giving a survey to villagers and tourists, as well as leading in – depth interviews with village officials, ethnicity and cultural experts and regional branding experts, to answer the following questions:

1) What is the link between the villagers’ cultural identity and the tourists’ expectations towards the ethnic villages?

2) In the process of building a touristic destination, how is the villagers’ cultural identity transmitted to the visiting tourists?

3) In branding the village as a touristic destination, which brand elements are not accepted by the locals, and what are not?

4) In the process of branding ethnic villages into tourist destinations, how should the local cultural heritage be included and become the brand’s main feature of attraction?
Through 200 questionnaire surveys (100 valid questionnaires for each category: villagers and tourists), 12 interviews (3 village officials, 4 local cultural experts, 2 cultural tourism experts and 3 regional brand experts) and the authors’ on-site observations, this study will reveal the problems surrounding the process of building ethnic villages into cultural tourist destinations, such as the weakening of villagers’ identity, the imperfect measures to protect cultural heritage, the incoherent brand positioning of tourist destinations and the ineffective communication of the local identity in cultural heritage tourism.

**Key words:** cultural heritage tourism, local identity, ethnic village, branding, China, touristic destination
FOOD AS A DIMENSION IN DESTINATION BRAND MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

The process of building a destination brand is complex and requires the understanding of tourists’ motivations to visit a specific destination. To enjoy the local food is frequently mentioned as one of several reasons to visit a destination. Consequently, an increasing number of researchers have focused their attention on gastronomic tourism. Most studies in the subject matter have approached food consumption as consumers’ main motive to visit a specific destination. That is, this type of consumer, often referred to as ‘foodies,’ choose a destination to visit based on its ability to offer the food experiences they seek. However, even for tourists whose primary motivation for traveling is not food related experiences, opportunities for food consumption is also perceived as an attribute that impacts the overall satisfaction with a trip and benefits the destination’s brand image.

To discuss the impact of food for the development of a destination brand, this paper used the Algarve (Portugal) as its empirical destination brand, and it is based on 58 in-depth interviews with British tourists. Results suggest that the Brand Algarve already enjoys a positive image based on a number of factors – landscape, infrastructures). However, should food consumption be used in the process of the Algarve’s brand building? The present paper contributes to the literature offering support about the relevance and the workings of food as a dimension in destination brand management.

Keywords: destination branding, food, cuisine, brand dimensions, destination brand management
**Supporting Accessible Tourism Through Gamification: Branding Thessaloniki Through Thes4all**

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**Abstract**

**Aims**

The aim of this paper is to explore if and how Thessaloniki can be promoted as an accessible tourism destination through the creation of a unique game-tour application (Thes4all). A brief analysis of the gamification framework is provided in general as well as a short introduction of accessible tourism, with the intention to further examine Thessaloniki as an accessible destination in order to suggest the creation of a gamified tour app that aims to provide all the necessary information about the accessible spots and options of the city, so as to enhance and facilitate their tourism experience.

**Main approach**

During the last decades, the tourism industry has become one of the main sectors of urban economies and the competition among urban destinations, in order to differentiate themselves, has impressively increased; consequently, the need to expand into niche markets with the usage of innovative tools is more crucial than ever. Accessibility is a key issue and can offer an important advantage (Buhalis and Foeste, 2015; Luiza, 2010). The research was conducted on the basis of a case study-analysis of Thessaloniki's city center and interviews within the framework of the MSc Hospitality and Tourism Management of the International Hellenic University.

**Key Arguments**

Searching for a way to include this identity in a destination marketing strategy is connected to the view that a city brand relies on a multitude of associations that are often contradicting each other, creating a complex situation for policymakers (Lucarelli and Berg, 2011; Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013).
Conclusions

The research investigated whether the infrastructure of Thessaloniki (public areas, archaeological sites and museums, bars and restaurants, etc.) meets the disability standards and presented a short sample of the suggested gamified tour app. The derived outcomes of the research are that the city is in an early-stage in terms of accessible infrastructure and specially designed services. Therefore, the development and introduction of service standards for disabled tourists are of high importance in order to reach the desirable target group. The results of the interviews showed that the creation of an application like this would be an effective tool but in order to succeed there are more practical issues that should be addressed first.

**Keywords:** accessibility, gamification, destination marketing, Thessaloniki
“ASGARD ISN'T A PLACE, IT'S A PEOPLE”: TOWARDS A MODEL OF HUMAN-CENTRED PLACE BRANDING

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Abstract

Place branding, whether considered as a strategic management tool or as an organic representation of place identity, is a complex, dynamic, and iterative process. This process begins when people make interactions and relationships with the place in order to form networks of mental associations. Building upon the concept of internal branding, this article highlights the importance of internal stakeholders in the place branding process and argues that their interactions with the place constitute the most valuable assets in place branding. While identifying some issues relevant to the process of place branding, the study is trying to propose a new inclusive model for place branding based on theoretical insights drawn from the combination of distinct literature on place branding, design studies and environmental sociology. In doing so, it offers guidance on how to implement a human-centred place branding (HCPB) strategy within place branding practice and aims to develop a human-centred approach to place branding. The practical aspects of this approach are addressed in various fields of study, such as design and marketing, and its role in developing frameworks like human-centred systems (Cooley 1989), human-centred design (Buchanan 2001; van der Bijl-Brouwer and Dorst 2017), and human-centric marketing (Kotler, Kartajaya and Setiawan 2010) has been examined. Considering place branding as series of activities that requires strategy, substance and symbolic actions (Anholt 2007; 2008), this article points to the internal stakeholders as fundamental constituents of the whole process by characterising their relationships with three components of the model, as well as the impact that they make on and/or take by the process of place branding. The HCPB model presented in this article incorporates the three main components of cognition, collaboration, and communication that need to be considered as key activities within any inclusive place branding processes. This argument supports three main components of the HCPB model by reasoning from the fields of environmental sociology/psychology (i.e. the Mead’s symbolic interaction theory or Weick’s sense-making system theory), business and management (i.e. Intentional community) and
communication studies (i.e. social aspects of communication). By these lines of reasoning, we argue that if place branding is not seen simply as a promotional tool for delivering place/destination brand offerings or an incentive to strengthen the economic and political aspects of a place, it can be considered as a set of measures that can act as a magnet for attracting stakeholders around a common vision as well as a compass to guide them in the right direction and, consequently, to develop the place and improve stakeholders’ quality of life. From this point of view, place brand associations are defined based on stakeholders’ relationships and interactions which gives meaning to the place/brand as imaginary places like Asgard are known for their people and stories about their epics. Such an approach, we believe, is essential to achieve stakeholders’ engagement and commitment, and might lead to authenticity, legitimacy, and sustainability of the place brands. It is also anticipated that the HCPB model will contribute to academic work and as well be of benefit to practitioners charged with place branding.

**Key words:** place branding, human-centred approach, inclusive branding, internal stakeholders, conceptual model
REBRANDING A CITY VIA CO-CREATION WITH ITS RESIDENTS: THE CASE OF THE CITY OF PORI IN FINLAND

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Abstract

This paper uses the city of Pori in Finland as a case example to investigate how a city brand can be rebranded as a result of co-creation with the city’s residents. The purpose of this study is to analyze the co-creative role of residents in rebranding a city. Herein, the city of Pori in Finland is used as a case example as it is a city with a reputation not only for focusing on business and tourism but also on the wellbeing of its residents. The latter approach can be witnessed in the willingness of the city authorities to solicit branding ideas from the residents.

Qualitative methods were being used to investigate the co-creation process from initiation to implementation. The brand co-creation process has helped the city of Pori open up the strengths of the city and foster a positive community spirit among the residents and other internal stakeholders, thereby developing the city brand among tourists and other external constituencies. A multitude number of interviews conducted between 2015–2019 harvests the opinions of residents and supporters of Pori on the city’s brand image.

As to the theoretical implications, the findings of this study underline the role of its stakeholders, and particularly its residents, in developing a city’s brand, and thus enhance place-branding literature. Most studies on place branding focus on the tourist context and consequently the role of residents can be underestimated. The authors believe the current study is a rare example of exploring the role of residents in co-creating a city brand.

Keywords: brand co-creation, city branding, residents, brand image, place rebranding
1. Aims (Introduction)

Branding research and practice have traditionally focused on the managerial creation and implementation of brand identity. In this static approach the role of the residents and other stakeholders has been minimal or nonexistent. A paradigm shift emphasizes, however, that brand identity emerges as a dynamic outcome of social processes between various stakeholder interactions. According to this thinking, stakeholders play an important role in the identity development of a brand (Wallpach, Voyer, Kastanakis and Mühlbacher, 2017). This paper discusses place identity and the role of residents in creating and implementing it, arguing that the residents’ strong role can enhance the place image and the place brand. We echo Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) who, drawing on a combination of the literatures on place identity and organizational identity, have proposed a dynamic view of place identity that considers identity a constant dialogue between the internal and the external.

The theory and practice of place branding demonstrate considerable shortcomings in terms of the role of residents in the place-branding process (Green, Grace and Perkins, 2016) whether it concerns launching a novel brand or rebranding an existing one. Also Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013, p. 25) argue that a form of place branding that integrates the views, opposition, and desires of residents is warranted. Residents are important stakeholders in building the place brand; however, the majority of studies to date focus on the tourist context, that is, destination branding. Therefore, there is a need to explore the effect of creating the brand together – co-creation – has on a place brand. As advised by Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013), the more residents the joint process involves and integrates, the more the city corresponds to the residents’ needs, making it a better place to live. The main challenge for place brand managers is posed by the residents, who can make or break the whole place-branding effort (ibid.). As stated by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) the role of branding within the identity dialogue leads to an appreciation of the full dynamics of place brands. The true nature of place branding is revealed as one of interaction and dialogue between stakeholders. In our study the interaction between the city branders and the residents of the city is consequently in the focus.

Using the city of Pori in Finland as a case example, this study aims to analyze the co-creative role of residents in rebranding the city. Pori is a city with a reputation not only of focusing on business and tourism but also on the wellbeing of its residents. The latter approach can be witnessed in the willingness of the city authorities to solicit branding ideas from the residents of the city. This initiative is used as a case
example in this study. The study uses qualitative methods to investigate the co-creation process from the initial stage to its implementation. In order to delve into the process, we first interviewed the communication manager of the city of Pori. The process, catalyzed by political decision making, started in 2015 and was linked to the development of the administration system of the city of Pori. In the initiative phases, in 2015–2016, the need for a more dynamic and co-creative administrative approach needed to be approved in all levels of the administration. In 2017, the residents were invited to participate in a brand co-creation process coordinated by a marketing agency, which had an important role as a partner of the city. During 2018 and 2019 we have interviewed approximately one hundred residents of the city in order to be able to analyze their perception of the co-created city brand.

The interviews harvest opinions of the residents of Pori of the city’s brand identity and image. The brand co-creation process has helped the city of Pori open up the strengths of the city and foster a positive community spirit. The external marketing employed by the city administration is supported by the citizens and even more, the residents have become brand owners. As to the theoretical implications of the study we can underline the role of its stakeholders, and particularly its residents, in developing a city’s brand, and thus enhance place-branding literature.

In the following sections the theoretical background of the research is first discussed followed by description of the methodological choices. In the findings the City brand co-creation with residents is identified as a dynamic, multistage process. The theoretical and practical implications are presented in the Conclusions as well as propositions for further research.

2. Main approach (Theoretical background)

In a Special section on Co-creating Stakeholder and Brand Identities Wallpach, Voyer, Kastanakis and Mühlbacher (2017) introduce a reciprocal co-creation framework of stakeholder and brand identities based on recent paradigmatic shifts from managerial to co-creative branding and from consumer to multi-stakeholder approaches in marketing. According to the authors (ibid.), the new dynamic paradigm of establishing a co-created and reciprocal brand and stakeholder identities leads to a deepened understanding of the reciprocal co-creation of stakeholder and brand identities. Also Black and Veloutsou (2017) emphasize the creation of brand identity as a core topic in marketing theory. They explored identity co-creation among the brand,
the individual consumer, and the brand community suggesting that the interactions among these entities co-create their identity, primarily through the actions of highly motivated working consumers. Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) were on the same line already a few years earlier stating that place branding practice and, to a great extent, place branding literature have adopted a rather static view on place identity as something that can easily be articulated and communicated for the purposes of branding the place. The identity-based approach to place branding theory would bring a better understanding of the relationship between the place identity and place brands and might thus advance the theory of place branding (ibid.). In our study an analogical approach will be utilized in the context of city branding where we will be able to identify the main dialectic relationships between the residents and the city branders.

The theory and practice of place branding demonstrate considerable shortcomings in terms of the role of residents in the place-branding process; for example, Green, Grace and Perkins (2016) note that there is a gap between the city branding research and practice. This study aims to analyze the co-creative role of residents in developing a city brand. Brand co-creation (Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Miller, Merrilees & Yakimova, 2014) stresses that brands are not formed through traditional communications, but are co-created by a multitude of people who encounter and appropriate them. The co-creation of a place brand calls for the involvement of all stakeholders and particularly residents whose daily lives are dependent on the place’s identity and image.

Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013, p. 25) argue that a form of place branding that integrates the views, opposition, and desires of residents is warranted. In addition, residents are important stakeholders in building the place brand; however, the majority of studies to date focus on the tourist context, that is, destination branding. Therefore, there is a need to explore the effect co-creation has on a place brand. As advised by Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013), the more residents the co-creation process involves and integrates, the more the city corresponds to the residents’ needs, making it a better place to live. The main challenge for place brand managers is posed by the residents, who can make or break the whole place-branding effort (ibid.).

The co-creative city branding approach consists of promoting stakeholder involvement in branding (Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Miller, Merrilees & Yakimova, 2014). Co-creation with a particular focus on residents indicates that brands are not formed through traditional communications but are co-created by a multitude of people who encounter and appropriate them. This implies the need for
empowerment and allowing the residents to participate freely in creating the brand and thereby influencing the brand image of the place concerned (Miller, Merrilees & Yakimova, 2014). Hence, co-creation is a collaborative process between city branders and residents. But the image and the brand have to be based on real actions, not words (Anholt 2008). It is not enough for a place to say it is remarkable – it has to be remarkable from the residents’ point of view, the ones who live the brand.

In accordance with this, Ballantyne and Aitken (2007) state that brand image is a shared reality, constructed through social interaction in a continual process of iteration, where meanings created by the stakeholders have a fundamental role. This idea is central to the paradigm of co-creation (Grönroos, 2000), which following the input of Vargo and Lusch (2006) repositions customer experience in terms of brand experience (Payne, Storbacka, Frow & Knox, 2009).

City brands are influenced by local history and culture as well as the industries and organizations operating in the area. All combine to inform how meanings are ascribed and which ones take hold (Aitken & Campelo, 2011). According to Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015), the place or city (added by the authors) brand formation process starts when people are associated with the place. These associations are not static but evolve and change over time as they interact and use place-making elements (materiality, practices, institutions and representations) to form mental associations with each other on several dimensions. They also call for more empirical evidence on residents’ attitudes to place brands and on residents’ place satisfaction (see also Merrilees, Miller and Herington, 2009; Govers and Go, 2009; Insch and Florek, 2010). These interactions constitute the way in which the place brand is formed. The argumentation leads to a novel conceptualization of the role of place branding in the above processes. In complex organizations, such as municipality or city, public relations practitioners and researchers must cope with the reality that an absolute consensus between stakeholders, which is assumed in theories of co-creation, is hardly reachable in practice. This calls for a focus on the challenges of applying theories of co-creation in practice in an example of a special type of public relations concerned with building connections between stakeholders and a specific place (Thelander & Säwe, 2015).

According to Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015), the dominant idea that brands are formed as sums of mental associations needs to be brought further by going beyond associations and adding a missing element: the interactions between those associations. They propose a rethinking of place brands based on two pillars: first incorporating a more
geographical understanding into place branding and, second, outlining a process that allows place elements and place-based associations to combine and form the place brand. The practical applicability and implications of the proposed rethinking of place brands suggested here are explored in detail through the examination of the branding process followed recently in the city of Pori, situated in the western coast of Finland.

The current study uses the city of Pori in Finland as a case example because it is a city with a reputation not only for focusing on business and tourism but also on the wellbeing of its residents. The latter approach can be witnessed in the willingness of the city authorities to solicit branding ideas from the residents. This initiative and mode of action are used as a case example in this study. The brand identity formation of Pori has previously been discussed (Lemmetyinen, Go & Luonila, 2013) from a brand-equity perspective analyzing what happens when the aspirations embedded within the identity of Pori, a relatively small community (with 84 000 inhabitants), interact with the realities of international marketing decisions of famous Jazz Festival held in Pori during more than 50 years’ time. The discourse(s) in the content analysis revealed, that Pori is a city which – despite its relatively small size – has been able to expand its political, economic, environmental and social influence thanks to the annual, international music festival, Pori Jazz. Today Pori Jazz is one of the main partners in the rebranding strategy of the city.

“The city and the festival are mutually each other’s brand ambassadors” (Communication Manager).

The co-creation of brand meanings by residents shifts brand ownership from the managerial sphere to allocate it to those who live the brand in their daily lives thus following a novel approach towards place branding theory, which among others has been presented by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013), and adopting a view based on the relationship between the place brand and place identity. The empirical research of this study is based on this view.

The following paragraphs briefly describe the methods used to study and evaluate the co-creation process.

3. Methodology

Qualitative methods were being used to investigate the brand co-creation process. One of the authors lives in Pori and was therefore able to observe the process from the beginning when it was published in the
local press and in social media. Another author, as the representative of the marketing discipline at the local University participated in the co-creative labs organized for the residents and supporters of the brand. Both of the aforementioned authors interviewed the manager of communication in autumn 2018 and 2019. The authors also discussed with the representative of the media agency who was responsible for the co-creation labs organized for the residents and the supporters of the brand. Both the interview of the manager in communication as well as the discussion with the media agency representative gave, retrospectively, a conception of the first stages of the process.

In order to be able to gain an understanding of the evaluative phase of the branding process 100 interviews were conducted among the residents in autumn 2018-2019. The residents were asked whether they were aware of the rebranding process, whether they have been participating in the co-creation labs, how they perceived the new brand and how it was seen in the services offered by the city.

After analyzing the data we were able to name the dynamic stages in the rebranding process according to the stages employed by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013)—in other words we identified the initiating stage at the beginning of the process. That stage was followed by the stage, when the meeting points for the residents were facilitated. Finally, we also identified the stage, when the dialogue with the residents was stimulated by the media agency, the partnering organization of the city. However, thanks to the interventions we made in the form of interviewing the residents, we were able to add on the process two stages of evaluation, both before the stage of stimulating the dialogue and also after it.

### 4. Findings

We were able to identify the dynamic stages of the process as presented below: the Initial stage, catalyzing the process, the stage of Facilitating meeting points and co-creation labs, the stages of Evaluating the implementation internally and externally, the stage of Stimulating the dialogue and again, the stage of Evaluating the implementation.
The Figure 1 above presents the ongoing brand co-creation process, where the city of Pori is engaging its residents in a continuous dialogue, where the residents are able to actively participate in the rebranding activities.

**The Initial Stage, Catalyzing the process**

In order to investigate the co-creation process from the initial stage to its implementation, we first interviewed the communication manager of the city of Pori. The process started in 2015 catalyzed by the development of the administration system of the city, also linked to political decision making. The aim of the organizational change was to trim the hierarchical structure of the city. Accordingly, the brand co-creation process became a strategic action in which the communication department was given a leading role. In 2016, the communication manager convened an internal branding group aiming to clarify the perception of the Pori brand and to ensure the personnel's commitment to brand building. The core idea of the Pori brand was that it should be based on the culture and history of the city.

In 2017, the residents of the city were invited to participate in a brand co-creation process coordinated by an external marketing agency which had
an important role as a partner of the city. The process of building the brand was started by mapping the residents’ experiences of their home town. In practice, the marketing agency coordinated the collection of narratives from the residents and supporters of the city. The process generated 4700 narratives which were further analyzed by the marketing agency. In other words, the city did not seek to build an entirely new brand, which might look strange to the people of the city, but to build a unified brand based on their personal experiences of the city. Many saw that Pori is considered a little negative, because there is a certain amount of self-irony and melancholy in the Pori people. Earlier this may have been seen as a negative feature, but the new brand wanted to highlight these Pori characteristics. The new brand did not want to smoothen this view but wanted to be authentic, i.e. to show the city of Pori brand just as the citizens see and experience it: peculiar and sometimes slightly difficult to approach. This is communicated in the new slogan of Pori “Really odd but absolutely unique” which has attracted a great deal of interest and a lot of fans particularly in social media.

The outcome was that the collaborative knowledge produced by the citizens of Pori and other supporters of the city shaped the planning of the city’s branding. This was eventually crystallized in the cornerstone applied in the communication messages directed at the city’s target groups.

**Establishing meeting points and co-creation labs**

The co-creative role of the residents of Pori brand was made easy by setting up a meeting place in the city center, which was called Poris (meaning ‘in Pori’ in the local dialect) where people, for example, from a cultural network, a kindergarten, an elementary school or a senior club were invited to participate in workshops in which they created ideas on how Pori should present itself to its own people and visitors.

> “Those workshops generated four brand visualizations that were presented to a wider audience, who then chose their favorite, and the votes were counted to reveal a winner.” (Media Agency representative)

A brand adopting the logo, visual characteristics and the brand story of a bear, long associated with the city, was the clear winner. The bear motif is deeply rooted in the history and culture of Pori. The city has a strong Swedish speaking industrial heritage and a bear appears in the Swedish name of the city Björneborg [Bear burg]. The bear in the favored brand visualization wears a crown, which harks back to the logo of an old manufacturer. The word bear also appears in the name of an old Pori brewery, and even though the brewery closed in the 1980s, the brand still exists. This modern version of the Pori bear has landed down the town hall and advertising brochures where the citizens are: on street...
advertisements, buses and all the services provided by the city, notepaper, envelopes, job advertisements etc.

Figure 2. The logo of Pori with the performing bear

The co-creation labs clearly increased the interest of the residents in the new brand, which certainly made them influence the brand building itself and commit to the new brand.

**Evaluation of the implementation I (external)**

The brand co-creation process has been recognized in several national competitions; for example, the city of Pori received an official excellence designation in a respected competition in marketing communication under the best service design category. Nominees in that category had to demonstrate instances in which the service design had contributed to improving the customer experience and had advanced business activity. The brand co-creation process was praised specifically for its customer-based approach.

“The recognition of excellence is a huge acknowledgment from several viewpoints. However, it did not come out of the blue since the development was always goal oriented. The recognition of excellence is a great landmark for Pori on its way to becoming a smart citizen-based town for the new generation; one built on collaboration and co-creation.” (Communication Manager)

**Evaluating the implementation I (internal)**

In evaluating the implementation of the branding process, the most important thing, however, is how the Pori brand has been adopted by the
city’s residents and supporters. There seems to be huge enthusiasm for the brand, as is underlined by the communication manager:

“The image of Pori has clearly strengthened, and people have praised the brand: it has touched not only the hearts of the citizens of Pori but also those of outsiders.” (Communication Manager)

In addition to the interviews with the key persons involved in the co-creation process, we interviewed representatives of various resident segments, such as senior citizens, working residents, young people, and children. Moreover, we also asked the exchange students attending the Turku University’s Pori campus about their feelings about Pori as a city. The accounts of different segments are considered to represent the views of visitors of Pori.

Based on the information gathered from the interviews most of the residents of Pori are aware of the rebranding. They knew that the brand was co-created with the residents and it seems that the informants experienced the new brand as their own, even though only few of the interviewees had been able to participate themselves in the rebranding process. They had been acquainted with the rebranding via the social media or through other media channels. Moreover, the interviewees had been familiarized with the cycling bears and the other visual signs of the rebranding on the streets of the city. The informants felt that the new brand mirrors them uniquely and gives an honest picture of the city, in a sarcastic way characteristic of the residents of Pori.

All the informants, however, did not see the rebranding process as a complete success – in these statements peoples’ experiences from the services of the city were emphasized. In particular, the elder residents did not know the brand especially well or they did not experience that the brand reflected the real picture of the city – it did not correspond to their personal experiences about the citizens of Pori nor its services.

**Stimulating the dialogue**

The rebranding of the City of Pori has from the beginning of the process been strongly present in the social media and it has received very much positive visibility via these channels. The love letter campaign, for example, arouse a “movement” in the social media.

Not only did the recipients of the letters post photos of the love letters and send responses to others’ letters in the social media, but also people enthusiastic about the campaign shared comments and updates about it. The love letter campaign began to live its own life in the social media and people continuously produced their own content to it, which strengthened the original message and the brand of the city in a positive way. Because of the positive feedback from the love letter campaign the city of Pori also sent a “Sorry, but this time you have been rejected” letter
to them who had applied for a job in the city and been rejected. The “No thank you” letters were strongly criticized as insulting and too personal.

Figure 3. A Love letter from the City of Pori stimulating the dialogue with the residents

Pori is an old industrial city and until the 1980’s it was known for its smell of industry. Today Pori is known for self-irony as brand-building material. The city’s own perfume ”Eau de Pori” was launched in 2018 and it caused a lively discussion among the residents. ”Great, and for once something unprejudiced”, praised the social media. The visual elements of the perfume package brought many comments and proposals, how the [red] package should better express the ”Pori-ism”, for example ”this is a green, seaside and musical city”, ”jackdaws can be seen” [in the parks of the center of Pori there are many jackdaws]. The colors of “the bricks in the old cotton factory” and the color of “the chimneys of the factories” were proposed as the color of the package.

5. Conclusions

In regard to the theoretical contribution the study was able to underline the role of its stakeholders, particularly its residents, in rebranding the city, thereby enhancing the place-branding literature. Most studies on place branding focus on the tourist context where the role of residents can be underestimated. We also identified the dynamic stages of the co-creative branding process originally presented in the conceptual article of Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013). The stages were named as the initial stage, the facilitating of the meeting points and the stimulating of the dialogue.
Thanks to the branding process and as evidenced by the study findings, the residents have become more like the brand owners of the city and its brand. The empirical evidence also witnessed that the process, at its best, is an ongoing dialogue between the stakeholders in engaging in the branding process.

As to the managerial implications the study findings show that a co-creative rebranding process can be an effective way of spreading the awareness of a place brand. In the case of Pori, the visual image of the brand has been implemented in the services offered by the city and also in the social media. The co-creative process utilized in the rebranding is an opportunity to develop the city’s services together with the residents, now that the city and the residents are accustomed to the co-creative way and have positive experiences of it. At its best the process enables that all services provided by the city are developed in a dialogue with the city and its residents and visitors, engaging all age groups and other demographic segments. This is the only way for building an authentic and complete city brand. Pori is a university city and also active in attracting tourists and visitors. It is important to realize that these temporary residents have not been able to form a relationship to the place beforehand but they are doing it via the services they are offered by the city. Consequently, it is important for the city to facilitate the meeting points and stimulate the dialogue with all its stakeholders. For example, the residents are offered an opportunity to engage in the rebranding process through a pop-up meeting place. The city also cooperates with several NGOs and, for example, with the entrepreneurship association which enables tailoring the services offered by the city.

As to the limitations of the study and at the same time also as an avenue for a future study, we could repeat the study in another context, for example in a rural community. An option would also be to compare the city rebranding process in another country. As for now, this longitudinal study has been conducted in a Finnish medium-sized city, which can be reported also as a limitation.

References


Abstract

Aims

The aim of the current paper is to explore the practices and approaches to city branding among the representatives of Polish district cities with special focus on the identification and discussion of major barriers and limitations of the process.

Main approach

A total of 32 individual interviews were carried out in the district cities, where official brand/marketing/promotion-related strategic documents are present. The sample was composed of the chief officers in the cities’ marketing/promotional units or their deputies. Research themes included: the understanding of city brand and its importance to the city, the position of brand strategy against other urban strategies, city branding as a participatory process - all of which constituted a vital context to the identification of barriers and limitations that jeopardize the practices of city branding in Poland. A pre-defined list of barriers provided by the interviewers based on the literature review: (i.) budgetary limitations; (ii.) deficit of support from the local community; (iii.) lack of cooperation with city stakeholders, (iv.) susceptibility to political cycles; (v.) insufficient competences of city brand managers; (vi.) lack of data on the effects of brand building on the city development (Hereźniak et al., 2018; Houghton and Stevens, 2010; Insch and Florek, 2008; Jørgensen, 2015; Kavaratzis, 2012; Lucarelli, 2018; Zenker, 2011)

Findings

Although the respondents presented a relatively high level of knowledge and awareness of city branding practices and they recognized an important role of the brand in city development, they identified a considerable number of barriers to branding practices in addition to those included in the pre-defined list. Namely, the interviewees mentioned and provided insight into the following obstacles: (i.) low awareness of branding issues among the local politicians (city councils);
(ii.) lack of intra-organizational cooperation; (iii.) the absence of a formalized city brand unit; (iv.) confusion as to which activities fall under a category of city branding; (v.) misunderstanding of the brand concepts among target audiences; (vi.) political and biased media coverage; (vii.) using the brand for the benefit of particular stakeholders; (viii.) associating the brand with the promises it cannot deliver; (ix.) procedural/ legal barriers.

Conclusions: The analysis of the responses given by the representatives of municipalities revealed that this group experiences an insufficient institutional support for their brand-related activities. It can therefore be concluded, that in a wider sense, one of the biggest challenges of the effective and sustainable city branding in Poland is bridging the existing gap between the level of branding competences in city marketing/promotional units and the quality of institutional environment that is meant to provide a necessary support for the brand and to equip it with a much-needed content. The current situation generates tensions between the city brand managers and other administrative units, adversely affecting city branding practices, whose quality has been steadily growing for the past decade.

**Keywords:** city brand, city branding barriers, city brand strategy, Polish district cities
INVISIBLE CITIES: THE MODERN TOURISM DESTINATION MARKETING THROUGH ITALO CALVINO’S STORYTELLING

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Abstract

The current paper aims to analyze the novel of Italo Calvino “Invisible Cities” from a destination marketing perspective. Remarkable efforts have been made within the last 2 decades to throw light on the particular novel from different aspects and different scientific fields. Sociology, History of Art, Political Science, Architecture, Literature and Engineering contributed with in-depth studies and reached interesting findings.

However, Marketing and Destination Marketing in particular, may offer an innovative approach to Calvino’s visionary destination and, in general, enhance the knowledge on this novel, by showcasing its affiliation with the discipline of marketing and the effect of storytelling on the readers. Additionally, from the destination marketing perspective, “Invisible Cities” demonstrates its topical character and constitutes a brilliant paradigm of how modern marketing addresses to the the receiver’s unconscious, dealing with the formation of expectations. The author indirectly, but always on purpose, transforms his readers to imaginary visitors of his destination, by using a storytelling to an extent that it creates images, desires and expectations.

Marco Polo, one of the 2 main characters in the novel, does not merely describe what he encountered in his trips, but, also gives weight in his descriptions on what he felt and what his thoughts were every time he walked in a new city. Kublai Khan, the other main character, enjoyed this narration and chose to learn everything about his Empire from Marco Polo, even though there was a language barrier in the beginning. The resemblance is remarkable between the pair of Kublai Khan – Marco Polo and marketer – visitor or the pair storytelling - expectations

Four assumptions have been made and proved in this desk research, based on a literature review of destination marketing. Comparative content analysis and conceptual analysis have been applied in order to confirm the viability of our assumptions.

Kublai Khan reflects every modern tourist, Assumption I, whilst Marco Polo represents every destination marketer, Assumption II. The two aforementioned assumptions are independent factors to each other, but
they both constitute a necessary condition for Assumption III to be proven, according to which Italo Calvino attempts to bring his readers to the Emperor’s position and lures them with his narration to imaginary journeys.

With this action, Italo not only invites his readers to visit his destination but, in parallel, triggers them to develop expectations and motivates them to create their own visionary image of the destination. And this, is one of the main goals of the modern destination marketing. Consequently, is Italo Calvino a genius destination marketer of his age and is “Invisible Cities” a great paradigm of modern destination storytelling?

This question constitutes Assumption IV of this study and follows the confirmation of all the prior assumptions. Based on conceptual analysis, we conclude that Italo Calvino offers a remarkable destination marketing case study with this novel, a fact that leads to the confirmation of the fourth assumption.

**Keywords:** Destination, Marketing, Invisible Cities, Expectations, Tourist motivation

1. Introduction

The remarkable and continuous growth of tourism in a global scale, especially from 1960 and onwards led not merely to a growing demand for holidays destinations but also in a growing demand in different types (forms) of tourism. The dominant 3S model (sea-sand-sex) gradually loses his former appeal to more and more experienced tourists (Κοκκώσης, 2011). Additionally, the beginning of the post-industrial era with the post-Ford model as its main characteristic, improved peoples’ quality of life and left space for free time in their time planning. The emergence of free time was the main factor to initiate a raise in tourism demand.

The continuous raise of tourism demand led inevitably to a raise in tourism supply: numerous regions across the globe, with the aim of gaining a part of the increasing tourism demand, put serious efforts to become tourism destinations. (Morrison 1998, Santos, 1998) Plenty of urban centers but, also, rural areas based exclusively in agriculture, made the decision to add tourism activity as an economic development tool for their communities, in the dawn of ‘60s. (Coccossis, 2004)

Consequently, destination competitiveness appears and as more and more destinations embrace the new reality, marketing starts to constitute a key factor for all those destinations to achieve their goals.
Of course, tourism destination marketing is the newly emerged discipline, with the mission to manage a sum of tangible and intangible elements, (material goods and services) (Kotler 2006, 2017) or, more precisely, the image and the good function of tourism destinations.

2. Tourism Destination Marketing

In the destinations competitiveness era, marketing institutes a valuable tool. Either at the level of a city or even at a national level, any tourism destination can be expressed and managed as a “product” in terms of traditional marketing. As such, marketing models can apply to the case of a tourism destination. (Govers, 2007, Kotler, 2006, Lai, 2016) Braun defines destination marketing (he labels it “place marketing”), as the use of all marketing tools in a customer centric philosophy, aiming to the creation, communication and interactivity of all offered urban elements to both customers and residents. (Braun, 2008) Analyzing Braun’s definition, 2 important elements come to surface: Firstly, who are “customers” according to Braun? As such are defined all different types of visitors attracted by a particular destination and motivated by different purposes. Some of them may choose to visit the area for leisure or some others for residence purposes, or even for business reasons. The entirety of all different visitors form the term “customers” in Braun’s definition.

Secondly, the aforementioned definition is not limited to customers but extends to local residents, making it obvious that the main goal of destination marketing is not merely luring more and more visitors to an area, but takes also into consideration local communities.

Furtherly, Kotler gives a new dimension to Braun’s definition, pointing out that the goal of destination marketing is the promotion of the image, the potential and values of a particular destination, in order for everyone to be aware of the comparative advantages (Kotler et al. 1993). Based on the above Kotler’s definition, it can be seen that destination marketing is not a sole tool for economic development but also refers to the total satisfaction that a particular destination can offer (Zenker, 2011)

According to Middleton and Clarke the total offered satisfaction a visitor can experience at a certain destination, can be categorized in 5 elements: the natural landscape (natural beauty), infrastructure and offered services, accessibility, pricing and finally if the destination meets with visitors’ formerly formed expectations about the place. (Middleton,
2001) Substantially, every single destination constitutes a provider of a total experience. (Soteriadis, 2012)

In overall, destinations are considered as the hardest challenge for the discipline of marketing, as their management requires deep knowledge, mainly due to the plethora of involved parties and their relations. (Buhalis, 2005, Pike, 2004)

2.1 Promoting a Destination

In modern marketing, there are 3 different approaches, regarding a product’s promotion (Perreault et al., 2014) According to Perreault, a different approach applies to different market segments. Of course, market segmentation must have taken place in prior.

The first approach targets to customers that are not aware of the promoted product. It refers to either newly launched products or to products expanded to new markets. Promotion is achieved through informing the customers about the product. (informing objective)

The second approach (persuading objective) is based on persuasion about selecting a particular product over competitive ones. This approach is used for market segments that are already aware of our product, but they show preference to competitive products.

Within the third approach, reminding is the key to promote a product to market segments that have been already purchased the product in the past, however, the goal is to achieve repeatability (reminding objective) Table 1 illustrates the characteristics of the 3 aforementioned approaches, according to Perreault. (Perreault et al., 2014)

Table 1. Characteristics of the 3 promotion objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion Objectives</th>
<th>Adoption Process</th>
<th>AIDA Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informing</td>
<td>{Awareness, Interest}</td>
<td>Attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuading</td>
<td>{Evaluation, Trial}</td>
<td>Desire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminding</td>
<td>{Decision, Confirmation}</td>
<td>Action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Perreault et al, 2014)
As already mentioned, tourism destinations are faced as products for the discipline of Marketing, thus, the followed promotion techniques go in line with the 3 approaches listed above. Market segmentation is conducted at first, with the phase of promotion always to follow. In this way, having defined the different market segments to be targeted (visitors, tourists and residents in the case of destinations) marketers are led to the most effective promotional approach.

In the case of a tourism destination, the first promotional approach (informing objective) intends to arise expectations to non-visitors about the destination. This method is frequently followed by newly appeared destinations or by already known destinations to be introduced to new tourism markets. The persuading approach is targeted to tourists that have already spent time at the destination and the goal is for those tourists to be turned to repetitive visitors (repeaters) Of course, this method is selected only by already known destinations. Finally, the third method (reminding objective) is functional, again, for already known destinations with the purpose of making loyal visitors - tourists (repeaters)

In Italo Calvino’s novel, a new destination is presented to the audience. Calvino’s readers have never “visited” this destination, therefore, the first method (informative method) is being applied, in an effort to create expectations. This will be furtherly analyzed in detail in chapter 2

In modern times, promotion of tourism destinations can be executed by providing information through numerous different channels. (Rodriguez, 2009, Govers, 2007) Travel agents or tour operators, brochures, websites and social media constitute such channels. Of course, word of mouth (W.o.M) or e-word of mouth (e-W.o.M.) is another very effective channel of modern times. Another categorization is the direct and indirect promotion. This categorization is based on who is the sender of the promotional message (the receiver is always the “customer” – visitor) and is highly crucial for the purpose of this paper to establish “Invisible Cities” as a masterpiece of destination marketing. Direct promotion is the case where the sender of the message is a tourism services provider related with the destination (local D.M.O., travel agents or other tourism business operators of the particular destination.) As indirect promotion can be considered any message sent to the final receiver by other services providers (not tourism services) or by other tourists – visitors. This is the case of the word of mouth, which belongs to the indirect promotion.
2.2 Pull and Push Factors – Motives

Tourism can be undoubtedly considered a social phenomenon apart from its economical nature. (Rubio, 2003, Wacker, 1996) Likely to consumers’ behavior, tourists behavior (consumer of the tourism product) is affected by psychological factors (among a series of other factors) Multiple psychological factors apply to different demographic groups of tourists (different nationalities or different age or different gender show different behaviors). (Beerli, 2004, Chon 1991, Walmsley 1998) Also, tourists behavior is very frequently influenced by former experiences. (Devesa et al., 2010)

Same to consumers behavior, tourists select a particular tourism destination because of one or more factors that “pushed” or “pulled” them towards that decision. (Uysal, 1994, Dann, 1981, 1977) Thus, the terms “push” and “pull” factors are widely used for describing internal and external factors accordingly.

“Push” factors are mostly related with the inner desires or the emotional state of a tourist. Escape from everyday routine, need for relaxation, adventure, new acquaintances and socializing to name some. (Devesa et al., 2010, Dann, 1981) There are 7 categories of push factors: (Crompton, 1979, Yoon, 2005, Uysal, 1993)

1) Escape
2) Inner search
3) Relax
4) Prestige
5) Reminiscence
6) Socializing
7) Visiting relatives (family bounds)

On the contrary, ‘pull” factors mainly refer to the external environment of a tourist and could be triggered by coincidental events or by previous knowledge or information that tourists have collected themselves. Ease of access to a destination, competitive price policy, extraordinary natural landscape, friendly local communities or history and culture of a destination can be enlisted as “pull” factors.

“Pull” factors are likely to strengthen, under certain circumstances, the internal factors of a consumer (tourist), guiding him to a destination by creating expectations. (Yoon, 2005)
The co-influence of “pull” and “push” factors on a tourist is highly important to the selection of a destination. Consequently, destination marketers pay great attention to spot the right markets for their destinations and correlate the strong points of destinations with corresponding push and pull factors of their markets. (Khyong, 2014, Gnoth 1997, You et al., 2000, Devesa et al. 2010)

3. Invisible Cities review

Calvino’s “Invisible Cities” is a novel written in 1972. It refers to 55 fiction places, which summarize Calvino’s gaze towards his home city, Venice. The writer puts an effort to communicate several messages to his readers, through the conversations of Marko Polo with the Emperor of Mongols, Kublai Khan. The mixed concept (description of the cities and the 2 mens conversations) brings before all readers eyes the way that cities are being faced and experienced by their residents or their visitors. Italo Calvino, through the 55 Marco Polo’s narrations, makes an effort to present every modern city as a vital organism, which should be discovered in depth by its residents and visitors. A superficial gaze is never enough to truly gain a total experience of a city. As Calvino mentions: “The city does not consist of this, but of relationships between the measurements of its space and the events of its past” (Calvino, 1974) Later in his novel, he also states: “The city, however, does not tell its past, but contains it like the lines of a hand, written in the corners of the streets, the gratings of the windows, the banisters of the steps, the antennae of the lightning rods, the poles of the flags, every segment marked in turn with scratches, indentations, scrolls.” (Calvino, 1974)

The current paper analyzes “Invisible Cities” from the perspective of destination marketing, demonstrating all the techniques that the author uses in his effort to “sell” his imaginary destinations to his readers. In the end, Calvino succeeds in effectively promoting his own home city, Venice, while initiates a new perspective of how a visitor or a resident should experience any city.

4. Methodology

For the purposes of the current in desk research, literature review has focused on the concept of destination marketing and the tourist motivation factors. A review of the novel “Invisible Cities” has been conducted. With the intention to throw light on this novel from the
perspective of destination marketing, 4 assumptions have been made and proved by using conceptual and comparative text analysis.

This paper investigates the semantic similarities of the two heroes of the novel and furtherly, of the writer and his audience with the modern tourist and the destination marketers. The demonstrated similarities verify the correctness of the four assumptions made. At last, based on the conclusions of this paper and empirical knowledge, this paper proposes 2 topics for further research.

5. Assumptions

4 assumptions have been made and proved in the current paper:

- Assumption I: There is a semantic similarity between Kublai Khan and the modern traveler
- Assumption II: There is a semantic similarity between the writer and Marko Polo
- Assumption III: The writer is a marketer of his imaginary destination
- Assumption IV: The writer promotes biomatic tourism by promoting his destination.

There is no connection between Assumptions I and II.

Assumption III has as necessary condition that Assumptions I and II are correct.

Assumption IV has as necessary condition that Assumption III is correct.

5.1 Assumption I

The Emperor of Mongols, Kublai Khan remains always indoors in his palace while ruling his vast empire. He shows great interest in getting to know his empire, besides, Calvino confirms this fact from the first line of his novel. Kublai Khan is not merely interested in obtaining knowledge about the territorial issues or the range of the areas which are under his occupation. He expresses the wish to have an overall image about these areas, including information about the local communities, local residents profile, their dialects, their daily habits and
traditions and the conditions of their living. Of course, he is also interested in economic activities that take place in these areas.

For this reason, he pays more attention to Marko Polo’s descriptions, over his own scavengers, who only provided financial elements for the territories of the empire, regarding commerce activity and agricultural production. Great Khan obtains an holistic knowledge of the areas of his empire through Marco Polo’s descriptions and he forms his own opinion for each area. This situation predisposes him either positively or negatively to every narration of Marco Polo.

The case is identical with the case of every tourist at the initial phase of a trip, where several pieces of information are received, from different sources and about different destinations. The modern traveler has a wide range of sources to be informed about any destination. From the aspect of marketing, these sources can be either direct or indirect, and they constitute promotional channels for a destination, as demonstrated in chapter 2.1. Every traveler selects the source of information to trust for his final decision. In the same way, Kublai Khan chooses Marco Polo to be his “source”. Every source, either direct or indirect, provides to travelers a wealth of information about not only the geographical location of the destination, but also about natural characteristics, local cuisine, local culture, offered activities in the area and numerous other elements of the destination. All those elements create expectations, which in turn, are determinants for the traveler to select a destination.

As seen in 2.2, the aforementioned kind of information is categorized as ‘pull” factors and it needs to be combined with the internal needs of every traveler. For this reason, every destination marketer, in order to be successful, creates different kind of expectations to different receivers, or to be more analytical, to different demographic groups of travelers.

Great Khan in our case, is exposed as a receiver to Marco Polo’s narration and this is a characteristic paradigm of direct promotion, if Marco polo is taken as a promotional tool of the destination. On the other hand, this is a case of indirect promotion (word of mouth), if Marco Polo’s narration is taken as the feedback of a visitor. Taking into consideration that the conversation of Kublai Khan and Marco Polo is imaginary and Marco Polo is the voice of Italo making an effort to “sell” his destination to his readers, it is obvious to conclude that Marco Polo plays the role of an information source related to the destination, so it’s a typical case of direct promotion to Kublai Khan. Also, it is a typical case of the first promotional approach (informative objective), as
presented at 2.1, since Kublai Khan is a non visitor to the presented destination.

As a conclusion to the first assumption, this research features Kublai Khan as the reflection of every modern traveler, who as a receiver through multiple different promotional channels, creates images and expectations about a destination before his visit and he is also driven by the desire to visit the destination in order to fulfil his expectations.

5.2 Assumption II

Marco Polo plays the role of the narrator in this novel, describing several areas of China. It is an historical fact that Marco Polo wandered in China during his journeys. However, Italo Calvino offers to his audience 55 descriptions of imaginary cities, as he clearly states. In fact, Italo Calvino uses an historical personality and a real journey to create a fictional destination: a cluster of 55 imaginary cities, the Invisible Cities of the Mongols’ Empire.

Italo Calvino never speaks in first person during his descriptions, neither presents any of the cities as his own experience. He describes them as Marco Polo’s experiences and he lets his hero to speak in first person during his conversations with Kublai Khan. This is Italo Calvino’s way to travel his readers, through Marco Polo, to his imaginary cities and, respectively, to 55 different aspects of the one and only city, Venice. Those 55 descriptions, enriched by short dialogues between Kublai Khan and Marco Polo, demonstrate 55 different perspectives that a resident or a visitor might have about his own city. During the short conversations between Kublai Khan and Marco Polo, Italo Calvino successfully forestalls his readers questions (emperor’s questions) and gives his own answers by using the voice of Marco Polo.

It is obvious that the writer seeks to open a dialogue with his readers, to be asked about the concept of the city and, also, to bring on the table different points of views that his readers may have. He successfully achieves this interaction with his audience, putting every reader in the position of Kublai Khan’s. The Great Khan seems to be swamped by a vast range of questions and thoughts, in an attempt of Italo Calvino to cover every potential thought of his audience about the concept of visiting or living in a city. However, Kublai Khan is open to new knowledge, no matter if he occasionally disagrees with Marco Polo. This last element features an effort from Italo Calvino to manipulate his readers to be open to new information, exactly as Kublai Khan is with Marco Polo.
5.3 Assumption III

Italo Calvino chose to create a combination of a fictional – real world in this novel. It is a fictional world regarding the 55 imaginary cities and a real one regarding the fact that these 55 descriptions refer to different perspectives of every real city. In parallel, the content of the conversations between Marco Polo and Great Khan highlights real problems and aspects, as well as the residents and visitors role in every city of the real world.

At this point, after the presentation of assumptions I and II, it’ll be taken as a fact that Marco Polo is the voice of Italo Calvino and Kublai Khan represents every reader and a potential traveler.

Marco Polo describes every destination to Kublai Khan, not merely aiming to provide a range of information about the destination, but also to arise emotions. He wants to show Kublai Khan the way that every destination affects its visitors. By creating expectations to Great Khan, Marco Polo tries to make him imagine how would that destination affect him and what would he feel if he visited there. At this point, Marco Polo has already succeeded in bringing the Emperor to a state that he pictures himself of being at the destination, exactly the same technique as every marketer does with his receivers: Trying to make consumers to vision themselves being tourists in the promoted destination.

Considering the fact that Kublai Khan actually represents every reader but also every potential visitor, it becomes clear that Calvino puts in use the expectations creation method, in order to make his audience to finally follow him. Different readers will choose to visit some of Calvino’s cities and reject others. Surely, all cities will be “sold” and later on, Calvino will show that, in fact, it was not about the cities but about something deeper, about the way that every one of us face and experience his city or any city. Calvino acts as a real marketer and by having managed to take control of his receivers’ imagination, it becomes effortless for him to guide them to any destination he wishes or to any idea he wishes, Assumption IV later will prove that the entire promotional goal of Invisible Cities is to promote an idea through the destination.

As argued in assumption II, Calvino’s promotion can be characterized as both direct and indirect, depending on Marco Polo’s role. Some readers take Marco Polo’s narration as a friend’s recommendation, while some others as an expert’s opinion. The mix of direct and indirect promotional acts is highly preferred by destination marketers, which is
another key element to support the current assumption of Calvino acting as a destination marketer.

In conclusion, it is quite obvious that the pair of Kublai Khan and Marco Polo has been gradually replaced by the pair Calvino – audience. The writer faces his audience as a market and uses mixed method of direct and indirect promotional approaches in order to travel them to his described destinations.

5.4 Assumption IV

After having proved Calvino a destination marketer the last and maybe most important assumption of this paper is to investigate which is, actually, the destination that Calvino promotes by his storytelling. The city of Venice would be an easy and correct answer, as it is already declared by Calvino in his book. Nevertheless, Italo Calvino’s promotion goes deeper than a destination. The promoted product is the tourist gaze and the attitude towards any destination. In essence, it is not the destination which is promoted by Italo Calvino but a particular type of tourism, through the narrations of Marco Polo. This element makes “Invisible Cities” a masterpiece of tourism marketing.

Italo Calvino succeeded in not only traveling his visitors through the suggested cities, but also to propose a way of taking the most out of a new destination visited. He proposed his market a way of thinking in order for them to obtain the outmost experience from the visited place. The writer wants their visitors to gain strong experiences from the destinations, to interact with the local communities, to discover every popular or unknown corner of the cities and to participate in local activities. This is the only way, as Marco Polo convinces Kublai Khan, for any visitor to keep a place deep in his mind. Same applies to the locals, not only to visitors.

Italo Calvino actually describes the concept of biomatic tourism and the experience economy. Consequently, when visitors attitude changes, this might lead to a general change to the attitude towards their own cities and the way of life in the cities as well. Undoubtedly the purpose of the writer is two-fold: firstly to change the tourists’ attitude initiating a biomatic type of tourism and secondly to make visitors adopt this new attitude even towards their own city.

6. Conclusions - Suggestions

In conclusion, analyzing ”Invisible Cities” from the perspective of destination marketing, offers valuable findings with great interest, as
two parallel worlds are taking place in this novel: a fictional one, where Great Khan having talks with Marco Polo and a real one, much stronger, where the reader travels in a unique way to several suggested destination. The writer succeeds in reaching to the emotional world of his readers and as an effective marketer, to travel them to his suggested destinations. The great achievement is that Italo does not simply promote a destination to his market, but he also combines the place with the type of tourism that would be preferable for the destination. In this way, all travelers are addressed to a new way of traveling, a most effective way of gaining experiences and, indirectly, to a new attitude towards every place they steps on.

The current paper also intends to offer two suggestions for further research or implementation by destinations managers:

A) The relation between literature and tourism destination branding/marketing and how literature could be furtherly connected with place marketing. It is a relation already well established but, of course, there is always room for literature to become a strong asset for destinations, contributing to their image, exactly the same way as Calvino did in “Invisible Cities”. Another question would be in what extend could possibly literature be part of destinations marketers promotional tools. This paper proposes to local DMOs or cities authorities to proceed to literature events or poetry competitions with topics relevant to the destination, as part of the implementation phase. Such events should be definitelly supported and promoted by DMOs, local travel agencies or tour operators, to become worth visiting events for tourists.

B) This paper suggests to follow for once more the paradigm of Italo Calvino and promote more intensively particular types of tourism within the destination promotion. Every destination has its own special characteristics, which means that not all types of tourism are suitable for every destination. Strategic planning for destinations with a focus on suitable forms of tourism would contribute in a major extent to visitors experience, eliminating any negative financial, environmental or social impact. Italo Calvino initiates this tactic with “Invisible Cities”, through his storytelling.

References:


CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AS A METHOD TO STUDY CITY BRANDING AS A TOOL OF GOVERNMENTALITY

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Abstract

The paper makes the call of studying city branding through a critical lens, especially with the perspective governmentality. The paper provides a review of critical literature of city branding and identifies that there is a lack of scholarship with the critical perspective especially with that of governmentality. The analytical framework of governmentality takes city branding as a tool of governance rather than only a strategy of managing the city image. In this perspective, the city brand creates self-governing citizens by instituting certain social rationality and ideology. This rationality is delivered through a discourse that the city enacts with its branding process. This paper makes the case of studying the discourse that city branding produces and are produced of. To study the discourse, the paper proposes the methodology of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). CDA assumes that our social and political actions are mediated through discourse. It seeks to reveal the latent structures, ideologies and politics entrenched in the society through the language of discourse. It applies a critical textual analysis of discourse to investigate how it is used to constitute and legitimize inequality, disparity, marginalization, discrimination, dominance, and power. It generates questions such as what kind of social rationalities are produced through city branding. What kind of disciplinary regimes is being enacted? The paper provides a theoretical overview of CDA and generic analytical framework that can be used to study city branding. The paper concludes with the claim that critical studies of city branding do not translate to an abject rejection of city branding. Rather, it is a comprehensive evaluation of the city branding to understand its corresponding ideologies and through this understanding, it aims to make the society and city branding better.

Keywords: Critical Discourse Analysis, Governmentality, City Branding, Critical Theory, Discourse
Introduction

City branding is defined as an intentional image building and management policy to create an emotional association with the city (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Green et al., 2016). Branding is not simply a visual identity of logos and slogans (Anholt, 2005); rather a city brand is formed in multi-lateral communication between the stakeholders of the city through which an emotional connection is established (Hansen, 2010). It involves managing people's ideas, values, and perception by creating an emotional and psychological association with the city (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013).

In the last two decades, the practice of branding cities has gained prominence in the global north, and so has its presence in the literature (Green et al., 2016; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Oguztيمur & Akturan, 2015; Papadopoulos, 2004). According to Web of Knowledge, there has been an exponential increase of academic scholarship since 2000, with over 2,260 total academic articles on city branding as at 20th February 2019 (Clarivate Analytics, 2019). The recent literature, especially from Urban Studies, Geography and Social Science, also includes studies of city branding from a critical lens who have generally argued that the city branding has largely been a neoliberal urban project to attract capital that can be oblivious to justice, equity and democratic participation.

Figure 2: Number of publications on City Branding is increasing exponentially (Clarivate Analytics, 2019)
This paper makes a call for more attention from the scholars of critical studies, especially with the lens of branding being a tool of governmentality. The analytical framework of governmentality takes city branding as a tool of governance rather than a strategy of managing the city image. Because the city branding influences the identity, values and expectations of its citizens (Oguztimur & Akturan, 2015; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005; Pasquinelli, 2013; Schwak, 2016; Volcic & Andrejevic, 2011), it does the work of ideology. The brand expectations create a set of discourse that shapes how the citizens should think, act and behave.

Currently there is no major scholarship on city branding available with the perspective of governmentality. This paper calls for critical studies with the broader scope of city brand as a tool of governance. It renders investigations such as what kind of discourses produces the city brand and is produced by the city brand? What are social rationalities the discourses generate? What kind of governance regimes is being enacted by the city branding?

The paper proposes the methodology of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to conduct the study of discourses and its social rationalities that are produced by city branding. At the heart of the CDA approach lies the critical theories that posit language as a manifestation of structural power relationship in the society. It seeks to investigate hidden ideologies that are entrenched in language and discourse (Fairclough, 1992; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). By critically analyzing the text, CDA seek unveil what is being represented here as truth, norm or social rationalities in language.

1. Critical Literature of City Branding

Critical theory is a distinctive form of epistemology that has derived from the idealism of Frankfurt school and Marxism. It opposes the traditional philosophy of scientific knowledge that only seeks to understand the world in an objective manner. Rather, critical theory aims to understand the world in a comprehensive manner and also transform it for betterment. Critical theory involves a thorough social criticism with normative judgments and evaluation that aims to transform the society. The concept of critique is an essential feature of this tradition as it sets to the unveil the social conditions under which the knowledge is embedded. It takes the position that how we comprehend the objective world depends on the dialect we hold. Thus, the critical theory does not only seeks to understand the world the way it is but also seeks to comprehend the hidden set of social cognitive
arrangement that constitute how we see the world (Habermas, 1985; Brenner, 2009; Thompson, 2017).

This section provides an overview of the literature that sees city branding with a critical lens.

1.1 City branding - a product of neoliberalism

The most scholars who study city branding with a critical lens argues that city branding is a product of neoliberal governance and hence shares the same perilous effects of neoliberalism. Neoliberalism has resulted in an urban governance system where cities are in constant need to attract capital (Cleave & Arku 2015). This brings about entrepreneurialism in urban governance where cities are being run like businesses (Harvey, 1989; Hubbard & Hall, 1998). In the process, cities are commodified to be sold in a competitive market in a bid to attract capital (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013; Greenop & Darchen, 2016). Globalization of capital has further accentuated this phenomenon, where cities across the world are in hyper-competition with each to attract capital (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013).

City branding, in this perspective, is a strategic policy instrument of an entrepreneurial urban governance that seeks to make cities economically relevant (Pasquinelli, 2010; Anttiroiko, 2015; Eshuis and Edwards, 2013; Hansen, 2010; Johansson, 2012). The main premise is to define and manage a favorable perception to gain a competitive advantage in the intercity capital market (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2009; Hernandez & Lopez, 2011). In a bid to compete in the capital market, cities across the world have undertaken similar strategies offering analogous services, infrastructure, communication, and incentives. This reduces the competitive advantage of a city to attract capital because the homogenized policies and services offered by competing cities eliminate any unique selling proposition of an individual city (Cleave & Arku, 2015). Branding provides a solution here by creating differentiation between the competing cities by forging unique perceptions. Branding provides an additional dimension of the attractiveness of the city in the capital market (Johansson, 2012; Khirfan & Momani, 2013). Moreover, the capacity of a brand to create an emotional association can influence the rational evaluation of a place and produce an emotional persuasion (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013; Cleave & Arku, 2015). This means that an effective city brand can be more than just a differentiation factor; it can itself be the competitive advantage.

Scholars of urban studies, sociology and geography have been critical of city branding for being a neoliberal project that attempts to commodify
the city to market to investors, tourist, and new residents (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013; Harvey, 1989). This commodification of the city makes the city a profit-making endeavor that ignores the historical, cultural and social issues of the city (Boland, 2013). Additionally, being a product of the neoliberal political system, city branding shares the same critique of the neoliberal urban governance—social marginalization, displacement, and gentrification (Dinardi, 2017). Paganoni (2012), for example, demonstrates through her research in 12 UK cities that there is a gap between the communicated image of the city and the actual reality. She claims that the narrative of city brands is self-congratulatory and behind that narrative remains the abject disregard for poor people of the city. Kipfer & Keil (2002), through their research on the branding of Toronto to become a ‘competitive city’, find that the branding strategy led to the practices that paved prominence of large companies in city development which eventually lead to inequity and exclusion. Rousseau’s (2009) account of industrial cities in UK and France shows that the city branding that targets to attract middle-class in the city center eventually results in the gentrification of the urban poor.

1.2 Cities are not analogous to product

Concepts of the city branding practices are heavily drawn from broader conversations of product brand management literature (Ashworth & Voogd, 1995; Giovanardi, Lucarelli, & Pasquinelli, 2013; Colomb & Kalandides, 2010). A brand symbolizes the summation of physical attributes, emotional association, and beliefs related to the thing that is branded (Simoes & Dibb 2001), which in our case is the city. However, this transposition of product branding concepts to describe city branding has been contested by some scholars (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Braun, 2011; Freire, 2005; Giovanardi et al., 2013). The premise of their argument is that product branding strategies cannot simply be transposed to cities because cities have a more complex web of interrelated and diverse stakeholders. Positioning a single notion of the city brand identity is problematic to the diverse range of people a city typically holds. Moreover, Braun (2011) and Freire (2005) claim that individuals develop their own image of the city independently—’organically’. Each individual has a personal image of the city as they navigate the city across time and space (Castillo-Villar, 2018). The factors influencing the city image are autonomous, diverse and innumerable, ranging from individual first-hand experiences of the city, interactions with other residents, word-of-mouth, media to literature, arts and history (Ashworth, 2009; Blichfeldt, 2005; Kapferer, 2011). These factors are so diverse and the individual response to these factors
are so unique that the image of the city develops randomly, chaotically and autonomously in the mind of its residents (Parkerson, 2007). Therefore, unlike product brands which can be forged as one identity from the beginning, the image of the city differs at the individual level and pre-exists in the mind of the people (Giovanardi et al., 2013), making it a more complex endeavor than product branding.

1.3 City branding is undemocratic and exclusionary

City branding has also been critiqued in the literature for being an undemocratic practice and exclusionary (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013; Greenop & Darchen, 2016; Insch, 2001). Critical scholars have argued that the processes of city branding have largely been top-down, opaque, non-participatory and unaccountable to people. Bennett & Savani (2003), for example, through their studies of nine cities across Britain, Denmark, and USA, illustrate that the city branding decisions are typically made autocratically by a few public officials and private parties. Instead of accounting for the needs, voices, and imagination of citizens, the decisions are typically made by private brand management agencies and political elites (Bennett and Savani, 2003). Accounts of Greenberg (2008) on New York and Brownill (1994) on London, show the opaqueness of the city branding process. They argue that city branding management takes public need out of the equation and puts the need of the brand image at the forefront of decision-making (Greenberg, 2008; Brownill, 1994). The recent account of Dinardi (2017) on Buenos Aires takes the critique even further in her claim that political parties and individuals have exploitatively used the city branding policy as a project of their personal branding. The branding of Buenos Aires, a+BA, which means You Love Buenos Aires, is a political advertising devised for Mauricio Macri. Dinardi (2017) points that the practice of city branding in Buenos Aires has often been used for political exploitation of the Mayor and has very little reflection of the citizens of the city.

The undemocratic approach to city branding practices means that administrators have imposed a single and static narrative of the city on its people (Oguztimur & Akturan, 2015; Pasquinelli, 2013). Different groups within the city have different social expectations, and this diversity conflicts with a singular brand image the city attempts to forge (Trueman et al., 2004; Paganoni 2012). The forceful imposition of one singular identity through branding can ignore and even erase the narratives of the communities leading to a mismatch in the brand image (Medway & Warnaby, 2014; Paganoni 2012; Pasquinelli, 2013).
1.4 Governmentality and City Branding

The critical scholarship of city branding is growing. However, this is a call for academic scholarship with deeper critical perspective of city branding than the typical silos described above. One of the ways the critical scholarship of city branding can be ameliorated is through studies of city branding as a tool of governmentality. This lens explores the role of city branding in shaping ideologies, social rationalities, and discourses in the city. City branding involves collective management of expectations of the city by creating an identity of the place and its people. By living this brand, citizens forge an emotional and psychological association with the city that shapes their ideas, values, and perception. In this context, the city branding acts as the ‘technology of self’, a tool of governance that governs through shaping the social rationalities of the citizens. Currently there is no major scholarship available with this critical dialect of power relationship of city branding and it is very interesting because it can help us to investigate how the city branding, as a technology of self, is used in governing the urban citizens.

2. City Branding as a Tool of Governmentality

The term Governmentality is coined by the 20th century French philosopher Michel Foucault, which he refers to a concept of governance that is not limited to state politics and laws, but a rather a form of power that governs by producing self-regulated individuals. It is a mode of governance through which conducts of the people are shaped by manufacturing social truths/rationalities whose compliance results in self-regulated subjects (Foucault, 2010; Ouellette & Wilson, 2011). Foucault writes: “...Governing people, in the broad meaning of the word, governing people is not a way to force people to do what the governor wants; it is always a versatile equilibrium, with complementarities and conflicts between techniques which assure coercion and processes through which the self is constructed or modified by oneself” (Foucault, 1993, 203-204).

Although governmentality applies to a variety of historical governance system, it is typically associated with the reference of neoliberal political economy where power is decentralized. In the neoliberal political economy, governance is conducted through willing participation of the governed. The consent of the people is not gained by the fear of law but by engineering certain social rationalities and discourses, which forms the conscience of the people that regulate people from inside. The social rationalities are deployed through various technocratic tools of
knowledge production and through disciplinary institutions such as school, hospitals, state agencies etc (Rose & Miller, 1992).

According to Foucault, the function of the modern state is to improve and maintain a well-ordered society (2007). This is achieved by instituting a political economy that not only governs the public affairs but also manages the personal affairs at the individual level “in depth, in all its fine points and details” (Foucault, 2007, p107). However, the state does not regulate people at the granular level with the disciplinary apparatus of law (Li, 2007). To manage at the individual level, the state resorts to the development of knowledge and technologies that produces a certain social rationalities, truths, and associated discourses (Foucault, 1983). The domain of the social rationalities and its associated discourses limits and defines the configuration of desires, habits, aspirations, and beliefs of individuals, essentially shaping the conscience of the citizens. The engineered conscience of citizens is imbued with ideas of what are they responsible for, what are the acceptable behaviors, how they should think and evaluate themselves and others. These consciousness produces self-surveilling and self-regulating citizens – a form of governance regimes of individuals (Li, 2007).

There are three key processes that drive governmentality (Foucault, 2007). The first process is about developing and managing the social norms that are engineered and levied on individuals through social institutions (Foucault, 1991). The second process is about installing a power-knowledge nexus (Foucault, 1980). This involves generating knowledge of personal affairs such as marriage statistics, divorce rates, birth rates, public health, worker safety, educational levels, and even sexual practices (Newswander & Newswander, 2009). Such knowledge allows technocratic experts to deploy power to shape the conducts of personal affairs (Foucault, 1980). The third process is called the ‘technologies of the self’, which are technocratic tools that shape the very conscience of the people on what they are and how should they act (Foucault, 1983). These technologies instill self-disciplinary principles in individuals according to the market logics of discipline, efficiency, and competitiveness- transforming individuals into responsible ‘entrepreneurs of their selves’ (Foucault 1988; Pedwell, 2012; Mitchell, 2006).

How does governmentality relate to city branding? City branding has been described as a process of collective strategy-making through setting and managing the specific expectation of their city. It is not only limited to promotion and communication. Rather, branding is a holistic strategy for a city government that creates beliefs, identity, values and expectation (Oguztimur & Akturan, 2015; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005; Pasquinelli, 2013; Schwak, 2016; Volcic & Andrejevic, 2011). In this
context, branding acts as a technology of governmentality because it forges the identities of the citizens through expectations. Through the participation in the branding process, and by performing according to the set brand expectations, citizens enroll themselves in the domain of the social rationalities that shapes, controls and govern their behavior (Rose & Miller, 1992; Eshuis & Edwards, 2013). The brand expectations forge a social rationality and a set of discourse that bounds how the citizens under the branded place should think, act and be. This manufactured discourse of the brand expectation defines the configuration of actions, desires, and essentially the very consciousness of individuals. By living the brand, people transform themselves into self-regulated citizen who thinks and behaves in a certain domain of discourse produced by the city brand (Volcic & Andrejevic, 2011).

This analytical framework of governmentality broadens the scope of city branding. It is not only a strategy of building and managing the city image, rather it can be a tool of governance. Such dialect generates questions such as what kind of discourses are being generated by a city brand? How are the discourses produced shaping the social truths and rationalities? What kind of disciplinary regimes is being enacted through such social rationalities? And what are, if any, moments of resistance?

Critical Discourse Analysis is one of the methodologies that can be used to study the discourses and its social rationalities produced by city branding. Critical Discourse Analysis seeks to investigate how ideological presuppositions that are embedded and reproduced through language and discourse (Fairclough, 1992; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). The following section provides a brief overview of Critical Discourse Analysis as a methodology.

3. Overview of Critical Discourse Analysis as a Methodology

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a methodology that seeks to assess the meaning of the language of discourse. Domain of CDA includes studies: 'to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power' (Fairclough, 1995, p. 132). CDA systematically investigates how practices and language arise out of ideology by investigating the hidden relationships of discursive practices, language and wider social structures and context (Locke, 2004).

CDA assumes that our social and political actions are mediated through discourse (Farrelly, 2010). The concept of discourse in CDA is an aid to
understanding the way societies organize and be organized by the use of language (Farrelly, 2010). Each discursive site of a society has a range of possible language utterances, which essentially limit and govern its subjective, epistemic, and ethical production (McKenna, 2004). This creates a phenomenological objective reality that shapes practices, systems, and knowledge (Schwak, 2016; McKenna, 2004); and in the process it creates the social rationalities (Foucault, 2004; Deleuze, 2004). Language and communication of discourse shapes and are informed by wider processes within society. They are not mere tools of expression that describes the world, but rather provide the meaning to it and shape perspectives (Fairclough, 1985).

CDA investigates form, structure and content of discourse, from its creation to its reception and interpretation. It facilitates an assessment based upon more than simple quotations but upon what the discourse is doing and what it is being asked to do in its production, dissemination and consumption. Thus, CDA seeks to reveal the latent structures, ideologies and politics entrenched in the society through the language of discourse (van Dijk, 2001; Meyer, 2001; Wodak, 2001). Through a textual analysis of discourse, CDA investigates how the social function of discourse is used to constitute and legitimize inequality, disparity, marginalization, discrimination, dominance, and power (Wodak, 2001; Fairclough, 1992; Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018). When studying governmentality with the method of CDA, it investigates the role of discourse in the production and maintenance of social rationalities that govern people (Fairclough, 2001; McKenna, 2004; Jäger, 2001).

Using CDA as a method of understanding discourse involves an analysis of texts to raise questions such as: what is being represented here as a truth, norm or social rationalities? How are the discourse constructed? What evidence and assumptions are being used? What alternative meanings/explanations are being ignored? (Fairclough, 1995). This prompts an investigation into city branding through the lens of power, discourse and governmentality. It generates questions such as what kind of social rationalities are produced through city branding? And what kind of disciplinary regimes are being enacted?

3.1 Analytical Framework of CDA

Critical Discourse Analysis is considered both a method and an analytical framework (Fairclough, 2001). However, the main analysis of Critical Discourse Analysis is interpretive and deconstructing reading, and therefore, there is no one way to follow (Mogashoa, 2014). Various scholars have prescribed guidelines to conduct CDA. Rogers et al (2005), for example, recommends a three-step approach: first, establish a relationship among texts and social practice; second, analyze and interpret the discourse; and third analyze how social rationalities are
created and maintained by the discourse. Kendall & Wickham (1999), on the other hand, outlines the following five steps to conduct CDA studies:

- Recognize that discourse is a systematic body of statements
- Analyze how statements that form the discourse are created
- Evaluate the epistemic scope and range of the statements: what can be said and what cannot be said
- Analyze spaces in which new statements are created
- Analyze how discourses form practices that are both material and discursive

Farrelly (2000) describes CDA to have three analytical categories: Genres, Style and Discourses. Through analyzing genres, styles and discourses within the data, the CDA seeks to understand what kind of discourse is produces and produced by the city branding campaign; what kind of identities and their interrelations are created through the discourse; what kind of social rationalities and governing regimes are being produced through the underlying discourse.

Genres are referred to as various ways of linguistic interaction that has specific forms and structures derived through social and institutional context (Fairclough, 2003; Boyd & Monacelli, 2010). It is a particular way of framing discourse; examples of genres are public interviews, speeches, planning documents, reports, media article. Genres can be the locus of power and are bound in social practices, conventions, rules, and norms that govern certain types of communication and thus provides a framework for the people to comprehend discourse (Wodak & Meyer, 2009). CDA analyzes how different genres are used in social and institutional context to legitimize ideas, policies, and rationalities (Chilton & Schäffner, 2002). An analysis of genres can help to understand the vehicles and their bounded social conventions through which the discourse is engineered.

The second analytical focus of CDA is ‘style’, which is the way language embodies identity and personality (Fairclough, 1999). This involves the tone embedded within the genres through which the discourse of compassion is being carried. Through the analysis of style, CDA can inquire the nature of relationship between the various actors that are being created and embodied in the genres that carry the discourse.

The third focus of CDA is that of the discourses itself, which investigates the epistemic world that is formed through the use of language (Fairclough, 2003). The analysis of discourse involves abstracting the underlying rules, norms and practices that govern the language of the discourse (Fairclough, 2003). It investigates how the world can be understood from different perspectives. It can identify the
themes of social life that are being produced and the underlying perspective that is driving the discourse.

3.1.1 Data Collection
There is no specific way of gathering data in CDA and neither is data collection considered to be an exclusive phase of research to be completed before the analysis. Rather, data collection is an iterative process where analysis of the initial data may provide new questions that requires to collect new data or re-examination of the existing data (Meyer, 2001). Thus, data is collected throughout the study period with various iteration depending on new questions the analysis brings.

The nature of the data collected is dependent on the nuances of the specific research question. An investigation with CDA of the social rationalities produced in a city branding program can start with secondary data. Example of the secondary data are, but not limited to, promotional materials, relevant media reports on the branding, official press-releases, publicly available planning documents, government reports, and minutes of city council meetings. Initial analysis of the secondary data will guide the need for further data collection. This might include collection of primary data through semi-structured interviews of government officials, private enterprises, non-profit organizations, consultants who are part of the city branding process, and communities that are relevant to the research questions.

It is important to note here that data collection in the CDA method has received criticism and this part should be dealt with extra care (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Widdowson (1998), for example, has questioned the lack of rigor in data collection in the CDA method. He claims that studies with the CDA method lose credibility for the lack of systematic data collection, and for the use of limited or small dataset. In this regard, it is prescribed to provide an extensive description of the methodology to clearly explain how the data has been collected, selected and downsized. Additionally, studies of CDA is advised to work with an adequately large dataset to negate the question of representativeness and credibility (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017).

3.2 Probable Research in City Branding with CDA
Common scholarship with CDA methodology is primary concerned with analyzing hidden structural relationships of power, control and discrimination that are embedded in language (van Dijk, 2001; Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018). Typically, the studies involve analysis of hegemony, class, control and gender (Wodak, 2001). However, CDA studies does not necessarily need to be limited to these domain. The fundamental idea of CDA is to critically analyze how the use of language
establish and legitimize discourse that shapes the social order (Farrelly, 2010). Therefore, as long as discourse are studied with an underlying critical approach, the breadth of domain of CDA can be limitless.

In this context, the domain of studies of City Branding with CDA can be broad. Some of the probable themes of studying City Branding with CDA could be following:

- What kind of discourse produces a city brand? Investigation of such question with CDA can identify the embedded logics of the society that are resulting in the need of the city brand. It can help strengthen the studies of why do we brand cities? Why do we choose a certain imaginary or narrative of the city brand? Who does it serve and how?

- What kind of discourses are being generated by a city brand? A city brand creates an imagery, narrative and an identity which helps in legitimizing or producing a certain social discourse. Research with CDA can help to study the discourses that are produced through the city branding. The critical perspective may include studies such as power relations latent in the discourse. Are the discourses exclusionary in any aspects? What is the discourse serving in the society and what are its effects? How are people reacting to the discourse?

- What kind of governance regime a city brand produces? The framework of governmentality sees the city brand not only an image management strategy but a potent tool of governance. The narrative of the city brand forges discourse that bounds how the citizens under the branded place should think, act and be. This manufactured discourse of the brand expectation defines the configuration of actions, desires, and essentially the very consciousness of individuals. In this context, studies may include what kind of social truths are being produced by the discourse of the city brand. How are the discourse effecting the social structure? What kind of governance structure is enacted or legitimized by the discourse of the city brand? How is the discourse of the brand accepted and negotiated by the citizens?

**Conclusion**

The paper makes the appeal of more critical studies of city branding, especially with the perspective that it is a tool of governmentality. It proposes to study the hidden discourse that city branding is produced of and produces through the method of CDA. The methodology critically analyzes the language to identify the latent ideologies embedded in the discourse that shapes how citizens think and act. It helps to answer questions such as what kind of social rationalities are produced through city branding? And what kind of disciplinary regimes are being enacted?
As a concluding remark, it should be noted that the investigation of city branding with the critical approach does not mean an abject rejection or meaningless disapproval of city branding. Critical theory does not seek to evaluate society with preconditioned values and ideals; rather it seeks to unpack the contradictions of ideology that already exist in the society. In the heart of the critical theory lies the intent to make society a better place (Thompson, 2017). In this regard, studying city branding with a critical lens does not necessarily mean to oppose city branding. Rather it is social critique and evaluation of the city branding to understand the ideologies that produces and maintains it. In doing so, the critical studies of city branding aim to make the city and society a better place. It acknowledges the gravity of city branding, not only as an image building strategy but as a tool of urban governance. Such studies will give us new understanding of city branding that will help us use the city branding tool more prudently for the benefit of the society. In other words, such critical studies will make city branding better.

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CRAFTING PLACE BRANDS: A CROSS-REGIONAL COMPARISON OF EFFORTS TO PROMOTE JAPANESE CRAFT IN INTERNATIONAL MARKETS

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Abstract

Cultural and creative industries can be both contributors to and beneficiaries of a city’s, region’s, or nation’s brand, allowing for investigation of how jurisdictions seek to incorporate these industries into their brand identity, and how the industries’ product offerings incorporate the place brand into their projected image. As traditional craft industries in Japan decline year on year, many Japanese cities and prefectures are building programs that support craft producers in developing contemporary products for global markets.

Yet with awareness of region/city brand expected to be considerably lower in international markets, how will this affect a jurisdiction’s effort to brand and promote local producers overseas? Similarly, to what extent is local or regional identity important to producers and to what extent do they explicitly incorporate place brands in their projected image?

This paper comparatively examines the strategies employed by Japanese regions in promoting a cohesive and ‘authentic’ image of their craft producers in international markets.

Five cities/prefectures were selected from those exhibiting at January 2018 Maison & Object, an international tradeshow in Paris. As awareness of many of these regions among international buyers is likely to be low, it provides an opportunity to examine any difference in branding strategy including (1) project characteristics and participants, (2) product focus - whether product offerings are extended, adapted or invented (Keegan, 1993)) for international markets or production location elements are changed (based on a partitioned [place] of origin framework (cf. Chao 1993, 1998)), and (3) place brand elements incorporated in the projected image.

Furthermore, cases have been purposively selected to increase variation in brand strength based on “attractiveness” index of all 47 administrative prefectures on the 2018 regional brand ranking from the Brand Research Institute (2018) (cf. Rausch, 2009). Regions chosen (and respective rank) include Kyoto (2nd), Kagoshima (18th), Wakayama (30th), Gifu (40th), and Tokushima (46th). Hence, this paper further explores how difference in place brand strength might

Findings indicate that projects vary considerably in objectives, structure, and in their product focus - ie promoting existing products vs new product development. Findings also suggest that in contrast to stronger brands, weaker brands are likely to make explicit appeal to the nation brand and collaborate with renowned international designers to boost recognition.

**Keywords:** place branding, Japan, brand strength, projected brand image, international marketing
PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP, SPONSORSHIP, OR PHILANTHROPY? MOTIVES BEHIND PRIVATE COMPANY INVESTMENTS IN CITY BRANDING

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Abstract

Cooperation between public authorities and private businesses may take different forms and vary in organization, purpose, outcome and impact. Well known examples are privat-public partnerships, sponsorships, philanthropy and charity, but so far literature is scarce on city brand projects and these cooperation structures (Zhao 2015).

Public-private partnerships (PPP) are ‘partnerships between the public sector and the private sector for purposes of designing, planning, financing, constructing and/or operating projects which would be regarded traditionally as part of the public sector’ (Webb and Pulle 2002). In the typical PPP the private company funds the construction of a project, maintains and operates it for a longer period of time after which it is transferred to the public sector – the government (Tieva and Junnonen 2009).

PPP is seen as an effective approach to heritage management (de Vries 2007), and branding related PPP has been successful in facilitating business development (Ateljevic and Doorne 2002, Maheswari et al 2014) and in helping cities navigate trends in profit based on urban transformation projects (van der Toorn Vrijthoff 2006).

Nadeau et al (2013) see a sponsorship as a situation where ‘the parties work together in an arrangement where the sponsor invests cash and/or contra- product or services in the sponsee, which is then activated to achieve the objectives of the sponsor’. It is well known that sponsorships make an important revenue contribution to events, including mega-events like Olympic Games and World Championship in Football.

In the early days of modern sponsorship, this was often not differentiated from philanthropy, defined as the act of doing charitable work, or an activity designed to improve human welfare. Kim and Koe (2009) see philanthropy as part of the social aspects within the ethical domain of a company’s Corporate Social Responsibility, where businesses are expected be a good corporate citizen to contribute to the society at large.

In a study of Danish city brand projects Jørgensen (2015) found only 4 examples (out of 25 projects) where private investors participated in a city brand project with the city. The largest number of investors was...
found in Horsens. The city council and 15 private investors (none from the tourism industry) invested 1, 5 mill. Euros into a limited company (Horsens and Friends A/S) intended to develop the brand of the city by attracting large musical events.

13 private investors have been interviewed (semi-structured interview based on a fixed questionnaire) about the purpose of their investment and how they see their company outcome. Findings are that investors from the start wanted to help change the city’s image (dominated by a large state prison) through international musical events. Investors are satisfied with the impact on the city’s brand and see employees’ opportunity to go to large international concerts as their key outcome. The set up in Horsens is fundamentally different from the above mentioned structures and is run like an ordinary business on commercial grounds. Opportunities and limitations of this model are discussed.

**Keywords:** city branding, public-private partnerships, sponsorships, philanthropy, investor impact
ATHENS’ APPEAL AS A CITY IN CRISIS: “SOLIDARITY TOURISTS”, THE IMAGE OF A NEW BERLIN AND SOME PLACE BRANDING DILEMMAS

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Abstract

Aims

Athens seems to be leaving behind the image of a crisis-stuck city as tourism is booming; the last few years the city has witnessed the opening of many new hotels and AirBnB premises and new cultural buildings such as the iconic Stavros Niarchos complex, the flagship construction on the Athenian seafront which hosts the National Library and the Opera designed by Renzo Piano. Within this narrative the main identity of the city is mostly connected to cultural heritage and the notion of the classics. Still, interviews and research conducted by the author show that particular tourists but also Erasmus students, researchers, artists etc. are attracted by an alternative different new identity of Athens which is connected to the crisis, the protests and the solidarity movements and not by the image of the Acropolis and the notion of the classics; although the data is limited, it is a segment that cannot be ignored and is examined in this paper (Yalouri 2001, Souliotis et al 2014, Karachalis 2015).

Main approach

The paper draws on the new identity the crisis and the different urban social movements – official and unofficial- create for Athens in relation to the discussion on place branding. To what extent can Athens’s support the “arm aber sexy” image Berlin had in the 1990s and how do these images match with the image of a new, prestigious cultural complex or the fancy five-star hotel? Are social movements a tourist attraction factor with positive associations for the city or could this turn into dark tourism when connected to poverty and immigration challenges? The aim of the paper is to critically discuss the contradictions within these developments.

Key Arguments

Athens has recently been labeled –wrongfully- as the “New Berlin” by both Greek and foreign media; this is connected to the cheap rents, the attraction of young creatives, the vibrant and youthful art scene (e.g. music, graffiti), the urban social movements and the organization of the prestigious Documenta event in 2017. Searching for a way to include
this identity in a place branding strategy is connected to the view that a
city brand relies on a multitude of associations that are often
contradicting each other, creating a complex situation for policymakers
(Lucarlli and Berg 2011, Kavaratzis and Hatch 2013).

Conclusions

As Athens is emerging as a popular, mainstream city destination having
reached the 5 million visitors a year milestone, some of its visitors come
to Athens for reasons related to the crisis: e.g. to either visit or show
their support to alternative sites such as the squatted City Plaza hotel or
the refugee solidarity squat on Notara Street. On a neighbourhood level
the latter is mostly expressed in areas such as Exarchia, Kypseli and
Koukaki. Still, Athens’ identity as a “city in crisis”, a “rebel city”, etc. is
not at the center of the official city promotion despite the fact that for
many Athenians and visitors it can be seen as a strong identity element;
including it in the official narrative of the city would be a challenge with
many difficulties.

Keywords: austerity crisis, city identity, “solidarity tourists”, Athens
INcredible indiA – an example of successful destination branding?

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Abstract

India in 2002 decided on introducing a campaign focused on destination branding. At the beginning of the 20th Century, tourism in India was not a highly developed sector, mostly owing to 9/11 attacks, war in Afghanistan or parliamentary attacks in India in 2001 (Greary, 2013). The aim of the “Incredible India” campaign was to foster tourism, mainly create an image of India as a luxurious destination with many high quality touristic attractions (Greary, 2013).

In spite of increasing numbers of visitors in the following years, campaign has gained a lot of criticism as well. The aim of the proposed research is to analyse critically “Incredible India” campaign with intention of identifying its potential weaknesses resulting with criticism. The research refers to two main terms. The first one is nation branding, which can be defined as a tool of positioning a state, mainly in touristic categories or as a process of linking a state with its unique characteristics that make it distinctive in comparison to others (Gilboa, 2008). The second is destination branding, which is about designing a place of touristic destination and creating a unique identity of a place, which is then communicated to the outside recipients (Harish, 2010). Since the campaign not only provided branding of a touristic destination, but also it offered a unique brand of a state and clear identity of a nation (Rishi, Singh, Misra, 2013), we can classify it as an initiative within both nation branding and destination branding.

Another significant concept providing a theoretical basis is soft disempowerment, stating that every state not prepared for international scrutiny when undertaking some branding actions can weaken its soft power or image instead of strengthening it.

The proposed investigation is a part of a wider research, which is examining the phenomenon of soft disempowerment based on case studies of chosen states and initiatives within nation branding and public diplomacy. According to tested hypothesis, non-Western states, culturally different from Western civilisation’s countries, or those which do not follow generally agreed rules within international environment (e.g. human rights, tolerance, equality etc.), may be more prone to criticism when trying to shape their image, strengthen soft power or nation brand. Therefore, India provides an interesting subject of
analysis, since it is included within Orient together with China, Japan and South-East Asia regions (Inden, 1986).

**Keywords:** nation branding, destination branding, soft disempowerment, soft power, India
Abstract

International sports organisations such as the International Olympic Committee or FIFA, which formally are international non-governmental organisations (Chappelet, 2009), are regarded as subjects of international diplomacy. They are able to engage in contacts and negotiations with established actors of international relations such as states or transnational corporations (Murray and Pigman, 2014) sometimes even being able to exert pressure on them. This leads to a question about the reason why bodies responsible for managing international sports competitions gained such position in international system.

The aim of the research is to investigate reasons for the growing importance of international sports organisations within the realm of international system. It is a case study of the IOC – the most prominent example of an international sports organisation. The analysis includes situations connected with selecting the host cities of the Olympic Games, conducting negotiations concerning the organisation of the Olympics, recognising National Olympic Committees, attempts to exert pressure on states and the specificity of contacts between the IOC and state representatives. The data was collected during an archival query in the IOC archives in Lausanne.

The investigation led to a proposition of a model that displays a set of possible relations between states and sports organisations. The sports event is the central point of mutual relations (in the case of the IOC, the particular sports event being referenced is the Olympic Games). The event is the main asset that the sports organisation owns. States are interested in hosting it and participating in it in order to reach its public diplomacy and nation branding goals, whereas the international sports organisation makes the decision in this regard. Therefore, the possibility of materialising diplomatic relations and their strength (the more popular the sports event, the greater diplomatic significance of the sports organisation) depend on the sports event. As a result of international sports organisations’ control over sports events, sometimes they are able to exert pressure on the state interested in participating in the event or hosting it. For example the IOC exerted pressure on future hosts of the Olympic to make them allow athletes
from East Germany to enter their territory (Letter from IOC Chancellor Otto Mayer, 1962; Letter from John E. Palevich, 1962). The second dependence stems from the fact that a sports event is an asset that is attractive to states and is based on the fact that international sports organisations are interested in the success of the event, whereas when it comes to states, only the host shares this desire. This leads to two types of relations. First, negotiations (dialogue) may be engaged between the state hosting the event and the sports organisation with the shared objective of the success of the event. This was the case for example between the Seoul Olympics in 1988 (Hill, 1996). On the other hand, other states may exert pressure on the international sports organisation with a sports boycott as a potential sanction since it diminishes the significance of the event.

**Keywords:** international sports organisations, International Olympic Committee, public diplomacy
WINE TOURISM AND FAMILY ENTERPRISES IN SOUTHERN SWEDEN: PROBLEMS, CHALLENGES AND POTENTIALS

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Abstract

Background. Starting in 1999, Sweden officially entered the EU wine sector with a quota of 250,000 litres p.a. Since then, the Swedish wine sector, predominantly located in southern Sweden, has commercialised and become a market in the agricultural area. As in other wine producing countries, the Swedish wine sector is dominated by family-owned businesses. It is established in gastronomy tourism research that e.g. wine tourism promote the regional image and attract new tourists to the region. About 50 wineries produce wine in southernmost Swedish region Scania (in Swedish: ‘Skåne’). Some of them have been commercially successful in linking wine production with tourism. Still, the sector appears to be unable to take-off.

Aim. This paper aims at discussing the wine tourism in southern Sweden and its reliance on family business development. Three research questions are proposed to be answered: (1) is there a potential for wine tourism in southern Sweden? (2) What structural problems challenge the development of the Swedish wine tourism? (3) What is the impact of family businesses on wine tourism?

Main approach. This is a market analysis based on secondary data. The discussion focuses on structural challenges, the marketing environment, to identify the key elements for family enterprises in entering a new market.

Key arguments/findings. Factors such as grapes, climate or technical issues regarding wine production cause little problems. The challenges to overcome lay in structural problems, e.g. a monopoly market due to the government alcohol monopoly, legal constraints, lack of marketing and promotion, lack of viticulture knowledge, networking and cooperation with local enterprise, and, hence, a relatively limited demand for Swedish wine.

For family enterprises, wine tourism appears the most suitable opportunity to run a profitable business in the wine sector, and, hence, the family enterprises are, as in all wine producing countries, a key factor for wine production development.
Conclusion. Most wine producers in southern Sweden have a profound interest and competence in wine producing from a technical side. At the same time, the lack of viticulture knowledge, marketing and promotion, networking and cooperating with local enterprise may partly explain why the Swedish wine sector does not take-off. The Swedish government alcohol monopoly rather represents a challenge than an insurmountable obstacle; the small local Swedish producers of e.g. vodka, gin, brandy and whiskey have successfully managed to deal with these legal constraints. As soon as the family owned Swedish wine sector understands how to attract new target groups with an unexpected, exotic and unique product, the Swedish wine tourism will take-off.

**Keywords:** Wine tourism, family business, local development, alcohol monopoly, Sweden

**Introduction**

The contemporary wine sector faces several challenges globally: restructuring of vineyard areas, over production, thousands of destroyed vine hectares, and, the most influencing, the *climate change* (Rowlands, 2013; Säfwenberg, 2019; Smith & Bentzen, 2011; Crouch, 2015). The increasing temperature in the Nordic countries stimulates and enables viticulture. The climate change is especially visible in Old World wine countries (France, Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece) when longer periods of extreme temperatures seriously damage the grapes and has a negative impact on the wine quality, which leads to a decreasing wine production (Rowlands, 2013). Historically, Germany was considered as the northern border of the wine production mostly because of the climate suitable for the grape growing. For the last two decades several new countries entered wine production – “new cool climate regions”. Countries as Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Norway and Netherlands show significant potential and advantages in wine sector (Smith & Bentzen, 2011; Rowlands, 2013; Säfwenberg, 2019; Crouch, 2015; Hultgren Karell, 2015). While Finland, as the most northerly wine producer, is prevented by EU subsidies from wine commercialisation, *Sweden* has become *the youngest and the northernmost wine country* in the world taking into consideration the commercial wine production (Rowlands, 2013). Researchers, practitioners and winegrowers agree that the temperatures in Sweden has increased since the mid-18th century, especially the last seventy years (Rytkonen, 2012; Malm et al, 2013; Markkanen J, 2018; Winqvist, 2017). For time being, a longer growing season, milder winters, and warmer summers, have all resulted in an extra month in the growing season each summer in the southernmost Swedish region *Scania* (Crouch, 2015).
Sweden is by tradition considered a part of the so-called “vodka belt” with a high consumption of distilled beverages. Around the turn of the Millennium, Sweden adapted the West European consumption of alcohol and hence wine became more popular. The growing interest to wine cultures and increase of wine consumption rapidly turned Sweden into a leading wine importing country in Europe. Nevertheless, Sweden has some traces of the historical wine production; it is evidently that around the 16th century there were few vineyards in monasteries of southern Sweden (Föreningen Svenskt vin, 2019). The wine sector in Sweden shows its rapid growth, turning from the ‘pensioners’ hobby into a small commercial area. Everything began in 1999, when Sweden officially entered the EU wine sector with a quota of 250,000 litres of wine per annum (Skjöldebrand, 2010).

Today, the southernmost region in Sweden, Scania, is considered to be “Sweden’s own vineyard” as it hosts most of the Swedish wine producers. With its nearly 51 businesses related to viticulture, Scania is about to form a wine district. The activities related to viticulture display a mixed character in the sense of being commercial and non-commercial, either limited company or sole proprietorship. Almost 50% of the vineyards can be regarded as family businesses, i.e. family members are represented in the board and/or are working in the business and/or are owners of the business (Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017). In a majority of the cases fathers are owners and other family members are represented as board members (Alla bolag, 2019).

Swedish wine sector struggle with a few challenges. The main challenge is the remaining government alcohol retail monopoly, with the state retailer selling beverages over 3.5%. According to the alcohol regulation, Swedish wineries are not allowed to sell any wine at the vineyard, no cellar door sales (Säfwenberg, 2019; Rytkonen, 2012; Skjöldebrand, 2010). Wineries have to sell their products to the state Systembolaget, and then consumers can buy these wine at three nearest to the winery stores (or via Internet shop with a delivery to any Systembolaget’s store). There is a possibility to sell the wine at the local restaurants and pubs for immediate consuming. In this case, the most suitable way to deal with consumers is to invite them to visit the winery and offer the wine tasting together with tourism and hospitality activities (Malm et al, 2013; Vinvägen, 2019). This is why the wine tourism becomes an important part of the wine business in Scania, as one of the opportunities for the wine sector development.

Wine tourism is a global growing phenomenon considered to serve as a driver for the rural and regional development for wine producing countries (Presenza et al, 2010; Koch et al, 2013; Mitchell & Hall, 2006).
As such, it plays an important role for wineries’ development and marketing as places to visit (Getz & Braun, 2006; Petrevska & Deleva, 2014), and as a way to inform the potential target audience and surrounding about the wine and activities behind. The wine tourism research shows its’ strong geographical clustering – two thirds of the research focus on Australian and New Zealand’s wine tourism (Woodfield & Husted, 2017; Koch et al, 2013; Mitchell & Hall, 2006; McDonnell & Hall, 2008), significant part of the wine tourism research based upon the Old World wine regions (Woldarsky & Geny-Denis, 2019; Frochot, 2003; Alebaki & Iakovidou, 2011; Thomas et al, 2013), and New World wines (Hojman & Hunter-Jones, 2012; Meireles & Ferreira, 2016; Iatisin et al, 2018), new cool climate regions (Smith & Bentzen, 2011; Rowlands, 2013), while research on Swedish wine tourism market is quite limited (Rytkonen, 2012; LRF, 2018; Malm et al, 2013)

A second rationale for this paper is the lacunae in research regarding family businesses in the Swedish wine industry. Although family firms in the wine industry have been frequently researched, the selection of producers and study objects has been focused on Old World wine countries and southern Europe, such as: Italy (Iaia et. al., 2017; Bresciani, et al, 2016; Broccardo et al., 2015; Gallucci & D’Amato, 2013; Vrontis et al., 2016; Tudisca et al., 2014), Spain (Alonso & Liu, 2012), France (Bessière, 2014), Cyprus (Georgiou & Vrontis, 2013), Turkey (Gumus & Gumus, 2008; Sevil & Yüncü, 2010), and New World wine countries: Australia (Dufour & Steane, 2010; Mowle & Merrilees, 2005), New Zealand (Woodfield & Husted, 2017), United states (Delmas & Gergaud, 2014) and South America (Alonso & Kok, 2018). Some research is made on newly established wine countries, like e.g. Czech Republic (Murinova, 2017) and Mexico (Fernández et al., 2018).

The purpose of this article is to discuss the wine tourism in southern Sweden and its reliance on family business development. The paper will answer the following questions: Is there a potential for wine tourism in southern Sweden? What structural problems challenge the development of the Swedish wine tourism? What is the impact of family businesses on wine tourism?

**Swedish wine industry**

According to the Beverage industry report 2018, there were around 550 companies in Sweden producing alcohol beverages – from blueberry wine and beer till export quality alcohol as whisky and sweet cider – at the end of 2017 (Svenska dryckesproducenter, 2018). Sweden is a new emerging sector concerning vineyards and wine production; the country was
registered as a wine country by EU in 1999. As it was the culturally new product for the Swedish farmland an introduction period took almost ten years. – Consequently, the new established vineyards managed to avoid all mistakes and trials of wine growing from the beginning and started to position the Swedish wine industry on the map. In 2017 the average Swedish vineyard was 9 years old; while wineries could deliver standard wines after four to five years (LRF, 2018).

According to Statistics Sweden’s Business Register, which contains all legal persons, there were 76 companies registered as vineyards in Sweden at the end of 2017, 40 of them were more permanent established as commercial producers. In addition there are almost 200 wineries with a potential to become a commercial business units that can contribute to wine crafts (LRF, 2018; Svenska dryckesproducenter, 2018). There are vineyards in western Sweden, on the islands of Öland and Gotland, and even in mid-Sweden, but most of the vineyards (51 registered producers) are located in Scania – the southernmost region in Sweden (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Vineyards in Sweden (from Föreningen Svenskt Vin, 2019)

Swedish vineyards differ in size from the parts of one hectare up to over twenty hectares that influences the total manpower needs for the vineyard. 19% of the wineries employ more than three persons and up to ten on the annual basis; approximately 55% of the wineries employ just 1-2 persons. The remaining 26% are undocumented in the study and can implicitly be understood as these wineries have no employed at all. In total, to the end of 2017, the commercial wine production covers the areal of 100 hectares which count to employ around 250 persons on annual basis. Almost all vineyards produce more than one wine type, as dry white, sparkling, red or rosé wine. While 86% of wineries use just their
own grapes in wine production, 14% also buy grapes from other Swedish vineyards. Besides wine producing, many wineries also make other kinds of alcoholic beverages: 18% make distillate, 14% cider, and 5% do must beverages and mead. Other important products are tourism and services (LRF, 2018). The wines from Swedish vineyards are winning more and more awards every year – gold, silver and bronze medals and mentions (references) for example at: International PIWI Weinpreis (Bad Dürkheim), AWC Vienna (Wien), International Wine Challenge (London), Decanter World Wine Awards (London), Cuvee Ostrava (Czech Republic) etc. For the last three years Swedish wine producers obtained 23 medals (5 of them were gold) (LRF, 2018).

In Scania, there is a distinctive territory for viticulture with its nearly 51 businesses containing several of activities such as wine-growing, breed and bottle of wine and agricultural activity in vineyards (see Appendix). These practices are mixed in the sense of being commercial and non-commercial, either joint stock company or sole proprietorship; the size of firms varies from small non-commercial hobby activities to larger firms with a turnover of SEK 175 million (Alla bolag, 2019). Almost 50% of the vineyards can be counted as family businesses, that is, family members are represented in the board and/or are working in the business and/or are owners of the business (Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017). In a majority of the cases fathers are owners and other family members are represented as board members (Alla bolag, 2019).

**Family business and wine industry**

International family wineries have been studied from different perspectives, e.g. family members’ impact on family wineries’ business development in which *family power* is affecting company performance and increases revenue (Gallucci & D’Amato, 2013), the positive effect on sales growth and economic performance using *family as a corporate brand* (Gallucci & D’Amato, 2013; Gallucci et al, 2015; Broccardo et al, 2015; Bresciani et al, 2016), positive *female leadership* (Bessière, 2014; D’Amato, 2017), choosing *value creation* over wealth creation (Chrisman, et al., 2003; Delmas & Gergaud, 2014) and *succession* for long-term survival of the firm (Georgiou & Vrontis, 2013; Alonso & Liu, 2012). Family firms within the wine industry are also known for their commitment to *sustainability, environmental mindfulness* (Gilinsky, et al, 2015), family *human capital* and *tacit knowledge* (Chirico & Laurier, 2008) about wine production and wine tourism (Alonso & Kok, 2018; Dufour & Steane, 2010). However, some identified challenges are; limited financial *resources* (Alonso & Liu, 2012), *siblings’ rivalry*, conflicts
(Alderson, 2015) and family members’ lack of engagement in shared visions (Boyatzis & Soler, 2012).

Family firms rest on the foundation of value creation for coming generations (Chrisman et al., 2003), by transferring values and knowledge, sustainability over time extends life of the firm (Chirico & Laurier, 2008), which for Swedish family firms approximately gives up to 16 years longer company life (Emling, 2000). Succession within Swedish wine businesses is not urgent, however, within the coming three year period, 31% of them will be handed over to family members (LRF, 2018) which is a preferred alternative to many family business (Dehlen et al., 2014). Family firms can frequently be seen as a cooperation between husband and wife. European wine producers are high in female representation (D’Amato, 2017). However contrary to Europe, women in Sweden are in majority (about 75%) of vineyard leadership (LRF, 2018).

The biggest challenge for small family firms in the wine sector in Europe is limited financial resources (Alonso & Liu, 2012). The forecast (until 2020) of profitability for the wine industry in Sweden is ambivalent, approximately 40% estimate it to be good and approximately 40% estimate it to be bad. Wine business start-up demands an amount of capital, investments in Swedish firms are mainly funded by loans, or by family and/or friends (LRF, 2018). The appendix displays that wine family firms in Scania are engaged in an amount of activities, e.g. restaurants, arranging weddings, events, conferences and cooperating with local firms in order to develop an extraordinaire customer service. Human capital is usually a legacy in family firms (Chirico, 2008). Nevertheless, due to the young generation of Swedish wine producers, lack of human capital can be challenging. Hiring youngsters from the neighborhood and socialize them into the family firm over time is an option for survival (Cabrera-Suarez, et al., 2001; Miller et al., 2003).

**Wine tourism**

Wine tourism is not a new phenomenon, for more than two decades wine countries and regions put their efforts to the wine tourism development (Hall et al, 2000; Poitras & Getz, 2006; Mitchell & Hall, 2006). Both wineries, destinations and industry as a whole are benefiting from the wine tourism sector (Beverland, 1998; Getz, 2000; Sevil & Yüncü, 2010; Woldarsky & Geny-Denis, 2019). The Old World wine countries and destinations are leading in wine tourism, while the New World wine countries successfully entered the stage of setting themselves on the world wine tourism map (Woldarsky & Geny-Denis, 2019; Mitchell &

Hall et al (2000) pointing out that the wine tourism plays a significant role for both wine industry and tourism sector, where everything builds upon the relationships with the costumer – for the tourism sector wine tourism is the important element of the destination attractiveness, while for the wine producers it is the efficient way to communicate with consumers. Researchers define wine tourism from different dimensions: customer oriented, destination and regional development, and from wine producers’ perspective. The most common definition, taken as a base for the significant amounts of research, is provided by Hall et al (2000) and stated that the wine tourism is “visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region are the prime motivating factors for visitors” (Sevil & Yüncü, 2010; Yuan et al, 2008; Woldarsky & Geny-Denis, 2019). Carlsen and Dowling (2001) talking about wine tourism from destination marketing perspective, stating that the wine tourism is “travel for the experience of wineries and wine regions and their links to the lifestyle and encompasses service provision and destination marketing”. Getz (2000) defines wine tourism from the multidimensional perspective as a marketing opportunity for wine producers to direct selling to consumers and to consumers’ education in wining; as a marketing strategy for destinations and places to develop wine related attractions; further, as a motivation and consumer preferences in wine destination. Bridge (2017) proposed a four layers of the wine tourism development, such as: wine business; ancillary services; augmented services; and government - local as well as national.

Scania is on its way to become a formally established wine district (Markkanen, 2018; Winqvist, 2017; Högström, 2007), with a strategic goal for wine tourism development. The region even got its own Route du vin “Vinvägen” (Visit Skåne, 2019). Around 20 vineyards in Scania offer guided tours around the vineyards, included 13 wineries with wine-tasting activities (Vinvägen, 2019), the number of wine tourism actors is constantly growing. Two new traditions were born in Scania – the Wine Harvest festival and the Summer Wine festival. Visitors can taste different kinds of Scanian wine, to talk with wine experts, to learn more about wine harvesting, production and tasting, but also to experience the new reality – Scania as the wine district (Säfwenberg, 2019; Vinvägen, 2019).

Wine tourism seldom go beyond the vineyards to attract more visitors. If wine tourism can combine wine activities with other segments – mostly cultural, heritage and gastronomy tourism – it is well-known that
profitability will increase (Petrevska & Deleva, 2014; Woldarsky & Geny-Denis, 2019; Hall et al, 2000). This is valid also for the wine sector in Scania: to succeed in wine tourism vineyards need to become more than just a winery by including different tourism and hospitality activities. Scania has provided visitors with different kinds of cultural-historical, nature and sport experiences, as well as gastronomy leisure for some years and the region has remained on the top-rating positions as a unique gastronomy destination (New York Times, 2016; Säfwenberg, 2019).

Problems and challenges of the wine industry and wine tourism in Scania

The biggest challenge for Swedish wine producers is government alcohol retail monopoly when all beverage sales go through the government-owned company ‘Systembolaget’. The EU membership in 1995 was beneficial for Swedish alcohol industry. Due to the EU regulation four out of five public alcohol monopolies in Sweden (production, wholesale, distribution, and import/export) were abolished, and only the retail monopoly remained. In order to comply with the regulation, it is not allowed to sell any alcohol at the producers’ place, e.g. vineyard, while cellar door sales are the one of the most effective ways to promote and sell local wines. Wine market is extremely competitive and wine producers often look for new distribution channels, of which direct cellar door sale to visitors is becoming increasingly popular (Mc Donnell, & Hall, 2008; Sevil & Yüncü, 2010; Malm et al, 2013; Heindorff & Jähnke, 2019).

EU has strict market regulations for the wine sector regarding wine growing, production rules, labelling and types of wine, name protection, and subsidies (Bergström, 2008; Rytkonen, 2012). According to the EU regulations Sweden is a wine country without any wine regions, which automatically classifies all the Swedish wines as table wines. Due to this fact producers are not allowed to add any information about medals won at the annual competitions. The price level is not beneficial for table wines either; the significant production costs Swedish producers have to charge, generates a relatively high price per bottle compared to other countries (Bergström, 2008; Rytkonen, 2012; Malm et al, 2013).

Malm et al (2013) conclude that several Swedish wineries decided to not become commercial because of the strictly regulated market and many actors await a legislative change. If such changes occur, the number of vineyards are expected to double. Other reasons for non-commercialising wine production exist, e.g. investments, low profitability, knowledge on viticulture, administrative work, as well as combining wine production
with tourism and hospitality activities, family members engagement to unpaid work, need for marketing strategy, ageing when about 40% of Swedish wine growers reached the average age of 55-64 years. These aspects should not be underestimated. The lack of marketing and promotion of Swedish wineries also can be seen as a challenge. A winery can produce the best wine in the world, but never mind the quality if nobody knows about this wine (Säfwenberg, 2019). Promotion, both national and international, is needed to attract visitors and experts to the Swedish wine market.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Climate change, innovations in grape growing and wine production, wine enthusiasts, experience from established wine countries with similar climate characteristics (e.g. Denmark, New Zealand, Canada, and UK) have already showed that it is possible to produce good quality wines in Sweden. Now it is time to consider relatively more structural challenges, as well as the need of marketing and promotion for Swedish wines.

There is no official statistical report on what the wine sector in Sweden looks like, which makes it quite difficult to find any complete information about the vineyards and wine producers. It is, however, relatively easy to get information about the individual vineyards. The overall picture is missing, which is probably due to the fact that the responsibility regarding the Swedish wine sector is divided between many authorities and organizations (Reuterdahl, 2018). Furthermore, there is no register over family businesses, which in fact makes it difficult to identify if firms are family owned or not.

Most of the research in wine tourism field consider tourists’ knowledge about the wine countries, regions and wineries they are willing to visit (Frochot, 2003; Alebaki & Iakovidou, 2011; Petrevska & Deleva, 2014; Beverland, 1998; Fernández et al, 2018; Yuan et al, 2008). It works perfectly when we are talking about recognized and well known wine districts. It is not the same for Swedish wine tourism. First of all, far not every Swede knows anything about Swedish wine (Säfwenberg, 2019; Rytkonen, 2012) not to mention international tourists. So here we can talk about unknown unique unexpected tourist experience waiting for the visitors. For *Scania* wine tourism is more a part of regional tourism activities when tourists may combine the cultural historical and nature tourism with wine and gastronomy tourism.
The aim of this paper was to discuss the wine tourism in southern Sweden and its reliance on family business development. Three research questions were proposed to be answered:

(1) Is there a potential for wine tourism in southern Sweden? Due to a rapid growth of the wine sector in Sweden, especially in Scania, wine enthusiasts and professionals are beginning to deliver wine tourism activities in the region. Marketing and promotion are needed to succeed, as well as networking and collaboration with local and international communities. The concept of wine tourism development in Scania has to be provided.

(2) What structural problems challenge the development of the Swedish wine tourism? These problems are mostly structural such as EU regulations, Swedish state alcohol retail monopoly, as a result - no cellar door sales. During 2020 local municipalities wait for the government decision about cellar door sale (Heindorff & Jähnke, 2019), it can solve lots of problems and help wine producers to establish themselves on the market.

(3) What is the impact of family businesses on wine tourism? In line with the international trend, more than half of the Swedish wine producers are family enterprises or began their business as family owned. Family firms focus on long-term survival and value creation - a form that follows with wine industries’ entry barriers of high investments and long-term growth; family firm legacy is about know-how and a commitment to the local community engagement, securing both local and wine tourism development.

A general conclusion is that there are challenges for Swedish wine producers to struggle with. If factors such as cool climate, grapes and technical causes relatively limited problems, the structural challenges, such as e.g. the EU regulations force to label Swedish wines as table wines due to ‘nonexistence’ of wine regions in Sweden are more troublesome. Moreover, the government alcohol retail monopoly does not allow any cellar door sales for wineries and limits not just sale opportunities but also a tourist attractiveness. Most wine producers in southern Sweden have a profound interest and competence in wine producing from a technical side, while the lack of know-how in entrepreneurship, marketing and promotion, networking and cooperating with local enterprise may partly be included to the challenge list for Swedish wine sector.

The comparatively high price of Swedish table wines makes the customer relationship even more important, when storytelling is more crucial for consumers and wine producers rather than just promotion on
the price and product level (Rytkonen, 2012). For family enterprises, wine tourism appears the most suitable opportunity to run a profitable business in the wine sector, and, hence, the family enterprises are, as in all wine producing countries, a key factor for wine production development. Swedish wine sector as the new industry has hardly any stories to tell compared to established wine countries for generations producing wines with a family history and traditions behind. Lack of information about Swedish wine makes it difficult to reach potential consumers – locals as well as tourists and visitors.

Notwithstanding, there is a high potential for the wine tourism sector, especially in southern Sweden, where most of the wineries are located. Wine experts are praising Swedish wine (and Scanian at the most). Säfwenberg (2019) states that it is unique that almost exclusively organic wine can be offered as in the case of Sweden. The unexpectedly new experience combined with local history, culture, traditions and knowledge can play a significant role not just for wine tourism, but also for family business and regional development.

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**Appendix. Vineyards of Scania (southern Sweden)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vineyard</th>
<th>Form of business; Commercial/ non-commercial</th>
<th>Sales; Wine tourism activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Aplagårdens Vinhus</td>
<td>FB; NonC</td>
<td>B&amp;B, Vineyard and wine production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arilds vingård &amp; Villa Mathilda</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
<td>WT, restaurant, hotel. Selling to SB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://arildsvingard.se/bakgrund-miljo/">http://arildsvingard.se/bakgrund-miljo/</a></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Arkitektens Vingård</td>
<td>FB; NonC</td>
<td>n/a</td>
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<tr>
<td><a href="http://arkitektensvingard.se/lankar.html">http://arkitektensvingard.se/lankar.html</a></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Backåkra Vingård</td>
<td>SP; NonC</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Östra Kustvägen 1230, Löderup</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Bjäre Vingård, Svenstadsvägen 65, Båstad</td>
<td>SP; NonC</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Broddarp</td>
<td>SP; Com</td>
<td>GT. Selling to restaurants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Brådala vingård</td>
<td>NonC</td>
<td>n/a</td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Website/Link</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Cehlin Vingård</td>
<td><a href="http://www.cehlinvingard.se/">http://www.cehlinvingard.se/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Chateau Vaddeau</td>
<td>Com</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Domaine Bellevue</td>
<td>NonC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Ekesåkra Vingård/Österlenvin</td>
<td><a href="http://www.osterlenvin.se">www.osterlenvin.se</a></td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>Flintevång Vingård</td>
<td>FB; NonC</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>Flyinge Vingård</td>
<td>SP; Com</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Flädie Mat &amp; Vingård</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Fredholms Vingård</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Frillestads Vingård</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>Gullycke Vingård</td>
<td>SP; Com</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Gärd Gripen</td>
<td>SP; Com</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Hallavångs Vin &amp; Försöksodling HB</td>
<td><a href="https://www.fredholmsvin.se/">https://www.fredholmsvin.se/</a></td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>Hällåkra Vingård</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>Vingården itWine Glemmingebro</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Ívögården</td>
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<td>24.</td>
<td>Kiviks Musteri</td>
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Apple yard
25. Kornheddinge Kvarn Konferens & Vingård  
   http://www.kornheddingekvarn.se/  
   SP; Com  
   GT&WT. Selling to restaurants

26. Kronovalls vinslott  
   http://kronovall.se/?lang=en  
   FB; Com  
   GT&WT. Hotel & restaurant, events

27. Kullabygdens Vingård  
   SP; Com  
   GT&WT. Selling to SB

28. Kullabergs Vingård  
   http://kullabergs.se/svensktvin  
   FB; Com  
   GT&WT, events. Selling to SB

29. Köpingsberg Vingård  
   https://kopingsberg.se/  
   FB; Com  
   GT&WT

30. Körsbärlunden  
   SP; NonC  
   n/a
   Syremöllevägen 76, 275 68 Vollsjö

31. Lottenlund Estate AB  
   https://www.lottenlundestate.se/sv  
   FB; Com  
   GT&WT, culinary tourism

32. Lyngby vin  
   http://www.lyngbyvin.se/  
   NonC  
   GT on request

33. Mellby nr 5 Vingård  
   Com  
   GT, selling to restaurants
   E-post: info@haraburda.se

34. Möllehills Vingård  
   http://mollehill.se  
   SP; NonC  
   n/a

35. Nordic Sea Winery  
   http://nordicseawinery.se/  
   FB; Com  
   GT&WT, restaurant, events. Selling to SB

36. Nordanviks Vingård  
   http://nordanvik.se/  
   SP; NonC  
   GT&WT

37. Oxie Vinträdgård  
   NonC  
   n/a
   Blekekullsvägen 1, Oxie

38. Sandskogens Vingård  
   SP; Com  
   GT&WT
   www.sandskogensvingard.se

39. Sankta Thora Vingård  
   n/a  
   n/a
   Dalen 43, 26995 Båstad, tel. 073-0794465
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<td>42.</td>
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<td>FB; Com</td>
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<td>45.</td>
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<td>46.</td>
<td>Vinbacken</td>
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<td>47.</td>
<td>Vingården i Bertilstorp</td>
<td>FB; NonC</td>
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<td>48.</td>
<td>Vingården i Klagshamn</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
<td>GT&amp;WT. Selling to SB and restaurants</td>
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<td>Åhus Vingård</td>
<td>FB; Com</td>
<td>GT&amp;WT, events. Selling to SB and restaurants</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.ahuvingard.se/">http://www.ahuvingard.se/</a></td>
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<td>50.</td>
<td>Önnarps Vin &amp; Must</td>
<td>FB; NonC</td>
<td>GT on request.</td>
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<td><a href="https://www.onnarps.se/">https://www.onnarps.se/</a></td>
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<td>First harvest in 2021</td>
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<td>51.</td>
<td>Österlens Vingårdspark Tygeå</td>
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<td>GT&amp;WT. Selling to SB and restaurants</td>
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**Abbreviations:**

Com – Commercial vineyard; FB – Family business; GT – Guided tours; JSC – Joint stock Company; NonC - Non-commercial business; SB – Systembolaget; SP - Sole proprietorship; WT – Wine tasting; n/a – information not available.
CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE RELEVANCE WITH CULTURAL DESIGN: THE CITY OF TRIKALA

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Abstract
In recent years we have observed that several Greek cities have begun to adopt techniques of cultural planning, with the basic aim of cultural and also tourism development. Trikala city has a long history in urban innovations and was chosen to be analyzed, because it is considered as the most known example of cultural development, in Greece. By implementing various innovative programs as a basic part of civilization, this small town of the Thessalian plains has significantly been changed through the last years. As a result, it gains popularity both locally and globally. The everyday life and the habits of the approximately 80,000 inhabitants of the specific city, have been positively affected because of those changes. The cultural policy combined with the implementation of those innovations, allowed its cultural development and made it one of the 21 digitally-informed cities across the world. Trikala is a prototype city. The proper planning of cultural and economic policy has brought developments and through that, new innovation programs are set as goal for the future. Not to forget to mention about the image of the city, the innovative design and the projects being implemented. All these features attract visitors and tourists, from Greece as well as from several other countries abroad. My research was carried out through the following methods: surveys, search on existing data and bibliography, interviews, citizens observations. Through those methods, I ended up to the citizens point of view, the way they are used or using those innovative programs, if a smart city is actually smart for citizens daily life and examples if it is works on their needs. The cultural and tourism development of the city will be analyzed, as well, the most important cultural and innovative projects that has been done the last years, are going to be presented. The specific paper sets the stage for further research.

Keywords: cultural planning, cultural design, cultural development, Trikala, innovations
WOMEN COLLECTIVES AND MEANINGFUL TRAVEL DECISIONS ON VIRTUAL TRAVEL COMMUNITY: A SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY PERSPECTIVE

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Assistant Professor, School of Business Management, NMIMS

RAWAT SEEMA
Assistant Professor, School of Business Management, NMIMS

Abstract

Drawing on Social Identity Theory, this research investigates women travellers as a segment that associates to virtual travel community (VTC) to identify their desired features and preferences while making a destination choice. The objective of this study is to identify key dimensions of a virtual travel community that a woman identifies to and capture deeper meaning achieved by participating to gain social identity. This study uses in-depth interviews to understand the formation, perception and association of community participants with the travel groups. Narratives of travel, mentioned by women travellers are interpreted considering the complexity of different time experiences. Also, secondary data is retrieved from blogs, Facebook posts and testimonials available on the websites of selected women travel communities. Further, netnographic approach is adopted to capture the influences of community virtues, narratives, and key traits of associated participants. Data collected is analysed using thematic analysis and the dimensions of VTC that influence the women travel decision are studied. Based on the preliminary analysis of data, themes emerged from the narratives of women traveler’s includes online community bonding, inclusive travel and transformative experiences and redefined gender norms. Themes emerged highlights the reasons for associating with travel communities and expressing the essence of the deeper meaning basis the travel experiences. In addition, it can be seen that groups have opinion leaders that are normally experienced travellers that have greater effect on community for cuisine, security and accommodation related issues related to destination. This paper contributes to tourism gender literature and explored the needs of women travelers that will help marketers in designing and designing tourism products.

Key words: Virtual Travel community, netnography, Social Identity Theory, online reviews, Women travellers
Abstract

The paper is concerned with the construction, or the invention and establishment, of the signs that attach meaning(s) to a socio-spatial entity. It takes Thessaloniki, the second largest city of Greece, as a case study.

Thessaloniki, with a present day population close to a million, and a history dating even earlier than its very significant roman and byzantine period, has a very strong multicultural dimension, is a land and maritime transportation hub, home to some international annual events like the International Fair and the Film festival, and has been for a long time very close to or within the theatre of geopolitical developments.

The paper reviews the various attempts to re-establish the position of the city in the competition, mainly on a South-East Europe – East Mediterranean scale. These attempts go along with new promises, declarations, plans and campaigns for new institutions, infrastructures and places, and the construction of pertinent accompanying, mobilizing or sustaining narratives about the city’s potential and attractiveness.

The main interest of the paper lies with the interplay of four closely interrelated factors: The spatial component, either already explicitly or implicitly contained in mental images, projects or sustaining narratives, or as potentially providing elements for the construction of new ones (a). The connotations that attach meaning to specific elements (b) and the narratives connecting and the rhetoric amplifying the mental images of the city (c) and, ultimately, the construction of identities of the city.

More specifically, the paper comments on the distinction between real space and the images and words used in marketing and communication, the degree of iconicity attained in the representations of space, the invention of target groups and the declarations, narratives and policies used to address specific target groups.

Keywords: connotation, identity, iconicity, image, space
FINANCIAL OUTCOMES OF “PLACE BRAND EQUITY”? AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION ABOUT HOW PRODUCT BRANDING ASSUMPTIONS CAN BE TRANSLATED TO THE CONTEXT OF PLACES

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University of Leicester, UK

Abstract

One of the most important assumptions is that customer-based brand equity leads to favourable financial brand performance (increased profitability, premium prices, etc.). In an attempt to account for the value that places offer to their users, the concept of brand equity has recently been extended to the field of place branding. Most of the existing studies have so far focused on the rather intangible constituents of place brand equity (e.g., place attachment, loyalty). Rather tangible factors such as inward-investment have also been related to place brand equity, but the financial consequences of place brand equity on an individual level are unexplored. Therefore, the question is which, if any, financial outcomes are to be expected from (customer-based) place brand equity on a consumer level?

The exploration of financial outcome behaviours of place brand equity is relevant for the socio-economic development of places. Especially for place residents, which are considered the most relevant audience of place marketing, it is necessary to understand how their affect towards their place of living translates into monetary terms. The objective of this study is thus to identify how the financial assumptions about brand equity can be applied to a place context. More specifically, the study aims to explore the tangible consequences of resident-based place brand equity. Evidence is derived from semi-structured interviews at two places, namely the city of Stuttgart (n=18) and the community of Köngen (n=13), both located in southern Germany. The interviews suggest that the consumption of local (food) products, support for local shops and the acceptance of increased prices of living seem to be related to place brand equity. Donations and taxes seem to play a less important role.

Keywords: Comparative studies, customer-based brand equity, financial brand performance, place brand equity, place branding
Introduction

Marketing research into the concept of brand equity has suggested that financial brand performance is the result of customer-based brand equity (Kim et al, 2003; Park and Srinivasan, 1994; Simon and Sullivan, 1993). This means that positive customer-based brand equity is supposed to favour increased revenues (Washburn and Plank, 2002) and premium prices (Keller, 2001), among others.

Recently, the concept of brand equity has been exported to other disciplines such as tourism destination branding (e.g., Konecnik and Gartner, 2007) and place marketing (e.g., Jacobsen, 2012). Applied in a place context, the concept of brand equity has been used to identify the sources and outcomes of the value that consumers perceive in places (Florek, 2015). Drawing from the tourism literature (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007), most of the empirical assessments of place brand equity have focused on rather intangible consequences of place brand equity such as image or loyalty (e.g., Bose et al, 2016; 2018), while only a few studies have focused on rather tangible outcome variables (Jacobsen, 2009; Zenker, 2014) such as inward-investment. The financial consequences of place brand equity on an individual micro-level have also been neglected.

However, the question of which outcomes are to be expected from high (versus low) place brand equity is relevant for the socio-economic development of places. Especially for place residents, which are considered the most important target audience of place marketing (e.g., Zenker et al, 2013), it is necessary to understand how their affect or positive attitude towards their place of residence translates into monetary outcomes. For instance, high place brand equity could have an impact on local residents’ consumption behaviour towards the place (willingness to pay more for housing, etc.). However, there is missing evidence about such patterns and the influence of social factors on the (preferred) location of purchases (see Cowell and Green, 1994; Miller, 2001).

The overarching objective of this study is to explore if and how the financial assumptions about (product or service) brand equity can be transposed to the realm of places. In particular, the study aims to identify relevant monetary outcomes of resident-based place brand equity. The exploration of financial consequences may help place managers to identify how residents’ positive affect or behaviour towards their place of living is expressed in spending patterns. The understanding of how residents support their place in financial terms is
also relevant for the development of the place’s socio-economic and commercial infrastructure.

**Literature review**

**Brand equity and its financial outcomes**

The advantages of brands with increased levels of brand equity have been widely acknowledged (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; 2001). In fact, brand equity is expected to lead to customer loyalty, vulnerability of competitors, increased profit margins, favourable customer reactions to price changes, marketing effectiveness, brand-extension opportunities, and so forth.

There is consensus (see Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010) that brand equity can be considered from two different, but interrelated perspectives: the customer perspective and the firm perspective. Brand equity from the firm’s perspective is concerned with putting a financial value to the brand (Simon and Sullivan, 1993). The financial perspective considers brands as financial assets that contribute to a firm’s monetary value and performance. Firm performance is in this context related to financial metrics such as brand profitability or returns-on-sales (Aaker and Jacobsen, 2001).

Different studies (e.g., Simon and Sullivan, 1993) suggest that financial brand equity is the result of customer-based brand equity. This means that increased levels of brand equity are supposed to lead to higher profitability, sales revenues (Washburn and Plank, 2002), and premium prices (Keller, 2001). Customer-based brand equity can be described as the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer responses to the marketing of a brand (Keller, 1993). The central assumption behind customer-based brand equity is that brand value is created in the mind of consumers. Customer-based brand equity is therefore expected to influence “consumer preferences and purchase intentions, and ultimately brand choice”, leading to positive brand performance (Cobb-Walgren et al, 1995, p. 28).

Despite the theoretical advances around the concept of customer-based brand equity, Cobb-Walgren et al (1995) note that only few efforts have been made to understand how the latter affects consumer behaviour in tangible terms. Especially in times where managers need to justify increased marketing expenditures, the empirical outcomes of brand affect need to be assessed (Sharma et al, 2016).

From product or service brand equity to place brand equity
The assessment of the outcomes of branding activities is also a critical topic in the field of place marketing. Place marketing or place branding deals with the promotion of places as good places to live, to visit, and to invest in (Zenker et al, 2013). Considerable amounts of taxpayers’ money are nowadays invested in the branding of places (Herezniak and Anders-Morawska, 2015; Zenker, 2014), and this increases the need for evidence-based measurement of impact (Jorgensen, 2016).

The concept of “place brand equity” (Jacobsen, 2009) has been identified as a means to link (positive) place evaluations with potential outcome behaviours towards the place. Place brand equity thus refers to (positive) consumer associations and behaviours in relation to a place brand (Florek, 2015). Place brands are however different from conventional product or service brands, since place brands involve multiple stakeholders with diverging interests, various spatial levels, and different socio-economic dimensions (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005). Therefore, the outcomes of product or service brand equity might not be the same as the outcomes of place brand equity.

A critical question is in this context what could be part of the positive outcomes of place brand equity. There is evidence (e.g., Cheshire, 1999) that many factors contribute to the “well-being” of a place. Delgado and De Quevedo (2016) for instance conceptualise city performance in terms of economic activities, employment, and migration rates. Jorgensen (2016) considers such variables as tangible factors that contribute to place brand equity.

The interplays of local resources (e.g., socio-economic conditions) and external forces (e.g., investment) are important for explaining different levels of place performance (Courtney and Moseley, 2008). The relevance of exogenous factors such as inward-investment for place brand equity has been acknowledged (Bose et al, 2016), but there is a gap in the literature about the effects of place-endogenous factors and a person’s individual affect towards his or her place (Jacobsen, 2012).

In search of financial outcomes of place brand equity

Measuring the brand equity of places in financial terms seems to be a complicated task (Gartner, 2014). According to Gartner (2014), brand equity would need to be tied to gains in measurable metrics (e.g., taxes to government). Every gain must then be tied to a brand equity dimension (e.g., satisfaction, attachment). For instance, if residents’ place awareness is increased through marketing activities, marketers need to know how this has translated into spending behaviour. The increase in economic gain from an increase in awareness can then be considered as the return to marketing and brand equity. Gartner (2014)
however notes that many economic variables could potentially be considered. Therefore, “the debate will center on which ones are most important to monitor over time” (Gartner, 2014, p. 113).

Residents arguably form the most important group of place stakeholders (Zenker et al, 2013). The determination of relevant outcome variables thus needs to focus on the functions that places offer to their inhabitants. Residents perceive their place as a place to live (Merrilees et al, 2009), dwell and consume (Manzo, 2003). Therefore, local residents play an instrumental role in shaping the economic prosperity of a place (Insch and Florek, 2008).

Recent contributions (e.g., Yildiz et al, 2018) have attempted to explore the link between person-environment interactions and local consumption. For instance, identification with a place and affective bonds between a person and a place have been found to influence attitudes towards local products (see Miller, 2001). Cowell and Green (1994) also found that residents with higher levels of attachment tend to spend more for local food than those with lower levels of place attachment. Especially residents of rural communities seem to be more likely to show higher levels of financial support for their place (Mullis and Kim, 2011). However, there is missing evidence whether local inshopping behaviour is the only tangible outcome of positive place affect.

**Methodology**

The present study uses a qualitative research design to explore the potential monetary outcome behaviours of place brand equity. The study draws from a phenomenological stance and focuses on human events as they are experienced (Yin, 2011). The data was derived from interviews that were conducted in the south of Germany in the state of Baden-Württemberg between August 2018 and April 2019.

In total, 18 semi-structured interviews were held in the city of Stuttgart, and another 13 interview responses were collected in the (rural) community of Köngen. The sampling was carried out in a purposive way. Respondents were recruited with printed adverts and newspaper articles. For the community of Köngen, snowball sampling was also used to find informants. Participants’ age average was 48 years in Stuttgart and 52 years in Köngen. At both places, the data sample comprised male and female participants, as well as different family situations, levels of education, job positions and degrees of place knowledge (“natives” and “newcomers”).
The interviews were informed by existing theory and focused on how participants believe they contribute to the place in financial ways. Semi-structured interviews give participants much space to talk about their own opinions (Fontana and Frey, 2005), while interviewers can probe areas suggested by the respondents and pick up information that would not have been elicited otherwise (Flick, 2014).

The transcripts of the semi-structured interviews were analyzed with thematic analysis. Thematic analysis has the objective to identify the themes that are relevant to the description of a phenomenon (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). The interview analysis started with the reading and re-reading of the data. An initial coding scheme was created with QSR International’s NVivo software. Then, common categories were developed, so that divergence and convergence within the answers could have been identified (Boyatzis, 1998). Once the interview texts were assigned to a thematic category, the passages were translated into English.

Two places of different types and sizes (a city and a rural community) have been chosen as settings for this study in order to allow for comparisons. In every comparative study, the selection of the cases is of critical relevance (Flick, 2014). The selection of the city of Stuttgart (approximately 600,000 inhabitants) and the community of Köngen (approximately 10,000 inhabitants) was based on specific aspects that appeared to be similar across both places: local language and mentality (“Swabian way of life”, etc.), history (Roman settlements, etc.), topology (river Neckar, hills, forests, etc.), construction projects (train project “Stuttgart 21”), and the relevance of place marketing.

Findings

Interview results of the city (Stuttgart)

Local products and shops

The consumption of local products can be one way through which respondents contribute to their place in financial terms. In fact, several respondents mentioned that they try to support local shops with their consumption behaviour, because purchasing commodities in local stores was considered beneficial for local businesses, shop operators and production facilities:

“So when I shop stuff, clothes or something, then I try, then I actually only buy it from stores that are only here.” (female respondent, 26 years old, living in Stuttgart for 7 years)
One respondent clearly argued that purchasing products from local manufacturers (e.g., Mercedes-Benz) would enhance residents’ self-esteem. The relationship between the place of origin and the site of consumption was thus relevant. Respondents even feared that local stores would disappear if they were not supported by local residents.

However, certain respondents would only consume local products because they suffer from limited mobility. Other respondents problematized that local inshopping was difficult because of the limited availability of certain products. Respondents mentioned that it was hard to find specific types of products (e.g., clothes) that really come from the city. Especially younger participants (e.g., students) emphasized that products must be affordable, and e-commerce was seen as a good alternative:

“Technical devices are usually cheaper online and since I have the full choice, I just take the cheapest one.” (male respondent, 31 years old, living in Stuttgart for 3 years)

Local food products

The consumption of local food can affect different areas: gastronomy (cafés, restaurants, etc.), local supermarkets, but also self-growing and farming. Food markets were also considered as an appropriate place for purchasing local food:

“I like to be on the weekly market, which is not so much original, but it takes place once a week and that is why I consciously go there, that would be such a contribution.” (male respondent, 59 years old, living in Stuttgart since 22 years)

Respondents claimed to invest more money for fruits and vegetables because they wanted to know where it comes from and how it has been treated. The support for local producers ranged in scale, from local or regional farmers (e.g., eggs) to national producers (e.g., milk). Short production circuits, little ecological impact and fair employee treatment were important values in this context. Respondents commonly emphasized that it is important for the region and the environment to consume local products. Two female respondents also mentioned that they would like to see more stores where products are sold unpacked. The consumption of organic products was, however, only for a few respondents relevant.

Even though several respondents would preferably consume local products, most of the respondents were somewhat indifferent regarding local food. Many informants claimed to shop the products that are available in the supermarket without paying attention to origin. Many
supermarkets anyways offer local products, so consumers must not specifically search for them. Local or organic food was also considered as luxury, because they tend to be more expensive than conventional products.

Financial and material donations

Donations, on the other hand, were for many respondents not a relevant way of supporting their place financially. Several respondents reported that they do not donate for local initiatives, even if they liked the place and its neighbourhood.

Among the few respondents that would donate something, donations for national or international charities were often more important than donations for local initiatives. Several respondents reflected whether they would actually donate for a local cause. Two respondents reported that they donate clothes or cakes for local school events. A male respondent noted that donating money to disadvantaged people on the street would be a way to support the place’s community financially:

“So I support Stuttgart in that I give a few cents from time to time to a beggar.” (male respondent, 58 years old, living there for 25 years)

Prices of living and housing

Rents for property owners and investments in real estate were identified as an important way through which people contribute to their place financially. However, people seemed to have different levels of willingness to pay increased prices (price premium) in order to reside at the place. Respondents reported difficulties with finding an apartment because of the limited offer of affordable flats. One respondent was concerned that the city would become a place for rich people only. Especially the prices for renting an apartment were perceived to be very high.

Several respondents emphasized that prices for housing and living are higher than in other (smaller) cities. Some participants however said that their limit is not yet reached, which means that they would still support higher prices of living, as long as the prices do not increase immediately:

“I benefit from many advantages here in Stuttgart, I would accept higher living costs, but assuming my landlord increases the rent significantly at some point, then of course I would consider whether I can find a cheaper apartment in another district.” (male respondent, 46 years old, social worker)
Especially if respondents thought that the city offers everything they need (cultural offer, jobs, etc.), they were willing to pay the “price premium”:

“So it is, it is simply worth, yes, the aforementioned offer, and for that you have to pay.” (male respondent, 54 years old, living in Stuttgart for 12 years)

Living in the expensive city (centre) was in this context seen as a source of quality of life:

“That just has unbelievable quality of life, I have been commuting for over 10 years (...) and in the meanwhile (...) I run off in the morning, I am in the office 20 minutes later (...), which is simply quality of life that I don’t want to miss.” (male respondent, 32 years old, living in Stuttgart-West)

Certain respondent however stressed that they would not accept higher prices of living. These respondents explained that they only live in Stuttgart because of their partner and they were not really attached to the city. Another condition for accepting increased prices of living was related to salaries and employment. Several participants argued that they only accept higher prices because their salaries are also higher than elsewhere.

Taxes

Taxes were identified as another way through which respondents contributed to their place, even though the payment of taxes is for most people not an optional choice. One respondent with a migration background and rather high levels of place satisfaction thought that his tax money is well invested, and therefore he was willing to pay more taxes than in other places. Another respondent argued that his tax money is well invested because it contributes to the welfare of the place:

“They are all supported by the city and it is ultimately also money that comes in through my taxes and I find it is ok.” (male respondent, 54 years old, living in Stuttgart-East)

Interview results of the rural community (Köngen)

Local products and shops

Many participants from Köngen showed support for local businesses (e.g., bookstores, fashion stores), and some informants even argued that also other types of services (e.g., furnisher) should be ordered locally. There are different shops (e.g., bakery, butcher) in the village centre that people pro-actively want to support:
“Because I find it more beautiful that small shops are preserved than just huge consumer temples, where it is all about money, although small shops are of course also about money.” (female respondent, 27 years old, born in Köngen)

Many respondents however saw a decline in the commercial activity in the village centre. One respondent bemoaned that the local post office and police station were removed. Another informant argued that small shops in the village centre are important especially for older people:

“If no one supports the shops here anymore, then people who don't have a car or something, no longer have the option to shop here.” (male respondent, 79 years old, born in Köngen)

Respondents argued that big retail chains would destroy the local infrastructures, because small businesses may not be able to compete against them. Local stores also seemed to be on the decline because the Internet makes it rather easy for people to order online. Some respondents however argued that the Internet is a good alternative to counter-balance the limited offer of goods in the village centre.

Local food products

Respondents from Köngen were commonly in favour of locally produced food. Several respondents reported about the local food market in the village centre (on Saturdays). These participants saw a necessity in supporting local producers from the area:

“I think it's good that a lot of fruits and vegetables are also planted here (...), so I use that already, or if honey is sold from here on the market.” (female participant, 24 years old, student)

Most of the respondents liked the fact that people in the village can purchase food products directly from local farmers. The connectedness with local producers was emphasized by several respondents. Local consumers want to support the local “agricultural structures” and farmers financially because they want to be loyal to them and because they may go bankrupt otherwise. Another respondent mentioned his involvement in community-supported agriculture (CSA) in the neighbouring village. In this farming system, people can order meat in advance so that all pieces of animals are distributed and consumed without waste.

Several respondents from a charity foundation for fair trade stressed that they try to support not only the local farmers, but also producers in disadvantaged places all over the world (e.g., coffee). In situations where respondents were confronted with choice between local food and
imported products, most of the respondents said they would choose the local one, granted that the price is not much more expensive. On the other hand, some participants criticised the expensive prices of local food:

“For this I sometimes lack the necessary money, or the understanding, to spend much more money than for products that have travelled a lot.” (female respondent, 25 years old, born in Köngen)

Many respondents that showed support for local farmers also acknowledged that their food consumption is also based on industrial products from supermarkets, as they could not find a way to consume local food at all times (due to seasonality, etc.). Supermarkets were for many respondents still an alternative, especially in situations where they could not shop the products they needed.

For several respondents, knowledge and transparency about the production chain were important motives for purchasing locally produced food (e.g., meat, vegetables). Respondents did not want to support products that have travelled over long distances and that are sold for cheap dumping prices. For some respondents, the return to small-scale farming was the only right way. Self-production and subsistence were also mentioned by a few respondents:

“So with apples and so on I’m actually supplied with everything, I don’t have to buy anything like that anyway.” (female respondent, 45 years old, consultant)

Financial and material donations

Altruism and donations played, like in the city of Stuttgart, a less important role in the community of Köngen. One respondent mentioned that the local industrial players support the place with regular donations. It was also mentioned that local clubs and associations receive donations. However, most of the respondents claimed that they would not donate for local associations, but rather for national or international charities fighting for better conditions in disadvantaged places.

Being a member of the local library or paying regular fees for parking spaces were mentioned as potential ways to contribute to the place financially. However, like in the city of Stuttgart, most of the participants did not identify any other place- or community-related forms of donations.
Prices of living and housing

Most of the respondents showed no willingness to support higher prices of living just to live in Köngen. One of the reasons why people would not be willing to spend more money was that they already invest a significant amount of their income in housing. Limited access to the apartment market, restricted offers, and informality were problematized by some respondents. These factors seemed to have a negative impact on people's likelihood to accept increased prices for housing.

The point is that Köngen seems to be gaining in attractiveness, because more and more people would like to move there. The community was deemed a good place for children and its proximity to the city of Stuttgart, as well as its road and traffic infrastructure were also important reasons for this development. Certain respondents saw a general trend in terms of rising prices that affects the whole region:

“So no matter where, it is now not only the big city or middle city or small places, it is probably like this everywhere, especially if you have such a good [road] connection.” (female respondent, 27 years old, born in Köngen)

Nevertheless, one respondent justified her willingness to spend more money for living in Köngen because she did not want to break up with her roots. Local ties and the feeling of belongingness may be thus relevant factors in the decision to pay increased prices for housing:

“After all, actually yes, because just for breaking off my roots only because now somehow something doesn't fit anymore (…).” (female respondent, 45 years old, born in Köngen)

Taxes

Another form of financial support towards the infrastructure of the place was, like in the city of Stuttgart, related to taxes. Taxes on revenues, taxes for church memberships, and real estate taxes were mentioned:

“Yes by the fact that we bought [an apartment], we pay property tax for the apartment.” (female respondent, 56 years old, living in Köngen for 14 years)

An interesting account was given by a younger female participant. She mentioned that she does not contribute to the place from a fiscal perspective because she decided not to register her first place of residence in the community. Instead, she decided to register her first place of residence in her home town because she felt more attached to the place where she was born. If people have a second residence at
another place, they may be able to choose if they want to contribute to the place from a tax point of view.

**Discussion**

Overall, the empirical findings of this study suggest that the support for local shops, the consumption of local (food) products, financial or material donations, the acceptance of increased prices for living and housing, and the payment of taxes seem to be ways that can be more or less related to the outcomes of place affect and satisfaction (which is considered as an antecedent of consumer-based place brand equity). The relevance of these dimensions varies in terms of intensity and across the two places.

For instance, the consumption of local products and food seemed to be slightly more important for the residents of Köngen. Donations were considered less important at both places, because most of the respondents would not specifically donate for local associations. The willingness to pay higher prices of living and housing seemed to be more important in the city of Stuttgart than in the community of Köngen. The payment of taxes, on the other hand, was for most of the participants an imperative obligation and not a choice depending on place affect.

*Table 1: Comparison*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>City (Stuttgart)</th>
<th>Rural community (Köngen)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local products &amp; shops</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives of local inshopping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local food</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for consumption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for no consumption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode of shopping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and material donations</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target groups</td>
<td></td>
<td>Disadvantaged people, but mostly international charities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of donations</td>
<td>Money, clothes, cakes, etc.</td>
<td>Support for community events, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices of living and housing</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for supporting higher prices</td>
<td>Place offers everything that is needed &amp; quality of life</td>
<td>Good local infrastructure, personal rootedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for not supporting higher prices</td>
<td>Prices are already very expensive</td>
<td>Prices are already very expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes</td>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of taxes</td>
<td>Taxes on revenues, taxes for housing</td>
<td>Taxes on revenues, taxes for housing, taxes for leisure activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for supporting taxes</td>
<td>Good investment because it supports the public and the place</td>
<td>Choosing tax payment based on first place of residence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings may raise some questions about the categories of comparison. According to Flick (2014), it is difficult to select the “right” dimensions, whereas the identified dimensions may not be entirely inclusive. An issue with regards to the research design of this study was that many respondents somehow struggled to understand the question of “how they contribute to their place in financial terms”. This may have had an impact on the research findings. Another potential issue may affect the limited representativeness of this study, even if it was not the purpose of this research to provide generalizable results. Another point is that the characteristics of the residents of the city and the community may not be totally identical. The data sample from König included respondents with a fair trade background and this background might have an influence on their attitudes towards local food for instance. Furthermore, the consideration of monetary variables may neglect other important dimensions of place development. Gartner (2014) for instance argues that if one is to look beyond financial metrics such as household spending behaviour, further dimensions such as sustainability (see Merrilees et al, 2009) need to be taken into consideration.

**Conclusion**

The federal state of Baden-Wurttemberg invests more than 7 million € per year in its regional place branding efforts (Zenker, 2014). However, little is known about the positive outcome behaviours of branding.
processes and how place residents show their affect and positive behaviour towards their place in financial terms.

The findings of this study suggest that the consumption of local (food) products and the acceptance of increased prices of living and housing seem to play a more important role than donations and taxes in this context. Especially for the city of Stuttgart, the willingness to accept increased prices of living was important. For the community of König, the consumption of local (food) products was more important. The consumption of local (food) products and acceptance of higher prices of living might therefore be related to place brand equity.

The contribution of this study is based on its exploration of positive place behaviours and the question whether and how product branding principles can be translated to the realm of places. Following the recent calls in the literature (Mullis and Kim, 2011; Yildiz et al, 2018), the paper provided insights to better understand the processes that shape resident’s consumption patterns towards their place. In this sense, the paper suggested place-resident variables that further research may operationalize.

From a practical point of view, local authorities can benefit from having a better understanding of resident’s spending and consumption behaviour towards their place. The findings of this study suggest that as long as residents are satisfied with their place and feel some form of attachment or rootedness to it, they are also willing to support the place’s living prices, shops and products, which means that they are also willing to sustain the local commercial infrastructure.

References


BUILDING A BRAND FOR THE PRESIDENCY OF THE COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION: A CASE STUDY ON ROMANIA'S SIX MONTHS OF PRESIDENCY

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Abstract

When talking about the image of a country as a whole, one will most often refer to this concept in terms of perceptions about the life, fascinating language inflections, folklore, and cultural differences that distinguish it from other countries and establish a national identity. For six months, Romania hosted the presidency of the Council of the European Union. This commitment called for the introduction of a logo and, to encompass it, a country brand.

What was Romania’s contribution to the success of the presidency of the Council of the European Union?

How did the large public (both national and European) see Romania’s performance in navigating this important challenge? How well did the new image appeal to them?

This paper focuses on responding to these questions and more, thus fulfilling the aim of giving the reader clear insight into the topic tackled in the pages herein. Revolving around the sturdy pillar of a theoretical framework, the author makes use of questionnaires, interviews and other methods of analysis to allow for a satisfactory validation of the proposed methodology of this article. Its main objective is an in-depth observation of the six months during which Romania went to considerable effort to promote and address its new national brand on the European stage.

This paper concludes that, the countries from the European Union can take into consideration the Presidency of the European Council as a chance to improve or to change the national image and rebrand the country in six-month period. In addition, this research also strongly recommends a more careful attention toward the public opinion voice when it comes in building a brand for future countries, which will proceed to the presidency of the Council of the European Union.

Keywords: Romanian presidency of the EU Council, nation branding, country brand, logo
Introduction

National branding is a factor meant to improve, develop and create a better image of a country/product. A country’s brand is strongly related to its image, both the self-image created and transmitted by its citizens and the image projected and interpreted by foreigners. At present, in the context of globalization, the strategy of positioning a country in front of the other “world players” plays a key role in the international arena for commercial, economic and political purposes.

The issue of the “Romanian brand” is a special one because, while its creators are trying to build it to be a positive brand, it has to counteract the existing one, which has negative connotations: street children, beggar migrants, Dracula and Ceausescu.

The image abroad, how national values are promoted, and the perception European citizens have of Romania are problems Romania is facing in the process of reaffirmation at a European and global level. At the beginning of the current year, Romania had to present its new logo to the Council of the European Union and reinvent the nation brand.

The literature is almost non-existent regarding the Romanian presidency as well as Romania’s national image and branding. Nevertheless, the small amount of specialized literature available focuses more on Romania’s brand since 1989, keeping with the concept of the “post-communist era”. However, given the 30 years of democracy and inclusion of Romania in the European Union and NATO, and the active roles Romania has played on the international stage, new literature is called for that leaves the “post-communist” era behind.

The short list of research on a country’s presidency of the European Council presents different challenges such as methodology, research questions or findings. Most of the research looks at the strategies used and the achievements made in the six-month time.

This paper intends to fill the gap in the literature by talking about the most recent progress made by Romania regarding its national image, and, more specifically, on Romania’s presidency at the European Union Council. The principles, objectives, expectations, priorities and outcomes of the six-month presidency are evaluated in depth.

Theoretical Framework

Considering the definition of branding as a way of differentiating a particular product from its competitors, it can be extrapolated that this reasoning has a strong impact on a country’s ability to stand out on the
international stage. Branding principles apply equally to countries as well as corporations and seem to represent a central doctrine in the branding industry. Both the theoretical arguments and the evidence build a much more complex relationship.

The creation of a country image was defined by Nworah, as the process by which a country actively seeks to create a unique and competitive identity in order to position itself both domestically and externally as an attractive destination for trade, tourism and investment (Nworah, 2004). Creating a country image needs to take into account several aspects, as there are several audiences that a nation wants to address.

Public diplomacy and nation branding appear to be close but yet not entirely identical areas of studies.

As Melissen claims, public diplomacy and nation branding are sisters “under the skin” (model 4) (Melissen, 2005). As they both have the goals of building a national identity, creating a positive national image and managing the reputation of a country to increase its soft power and gain strategic advantages, public diplomacy and nation branding could best function together and in a coordinated manner. Indeed, the benefit of this model is that it unites institutions and marketing professionals in their ultimate objective – relationship building with multiple stakeholders and two-way dialogue, no matter if it is institutional or purely a marketing initiative. Finally and significantly, according to model 5, public diplomacy and nation branding are extremely similar in that both are entirely focused on communication about their connection to advertising.

This study intends to apply the model presented above (the nation branding and public diplomacy relationship) to fill the gap on this topic. Therefore, the author of this research considers and utilizes this framework because it applies well to the present case study.
Literature Review

Nation branding and relational public diplomacy are medium- and long-term strategies that place public relations theories and practitioners in the foreground of effective public diplomacy (Golan, 2013).

As Jaffe and Nebenzahl discuss, the image of a country is influenced by the perception of its people, culture, level of economic development, quality of its products and products for which it has a comparative advantage (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001).

While the country image is the sum of the beliefs and impressions that people everywhere have about the places and people of that country, national identity is what a country believes about itself, what it thinks it is. Each country has an image that can change over time and this image encompasses a consumer's perceptions of a country's products and services, as well as those of an investor about the country as a place to do business. A balance must be found between the image of a country and its national identity so that the image is nothing more than the identity of the country. National identity can be viewed from two perspectives: 1) what people think of themselves; 2) in the context of international relations, in other words, the sense of society's identity in the context of the relations established with the international community.

In the current sense, branding is the process of creating and maintaining a brand. It comprises all the methods by which an organization or product communicates, symbolizes and differentiates itself from its competition.

Nation Branding Conception

Nation branding, like much of branding in general, is a participatory process, a conversation between equals that confers on patriotism a relevant and contemporary significance. Civil society must continuously follow the process of establishing the country brand, but also how it is promoted and protected. After all, in a world subjected to globalization, the struggle to maintain identity is managed by building and promoting a defining national brand, ideally a profitable one.

The author of this paper agrees with the idea of Brymer (Brymer, 2003) that designing a program to create a country image involves an effort to integrate all of these dimensions as well as the ability to communicate and act in a coordinated and reinforcing manner when it comes to using persuasive themes to differentiate one country from another. Such
coordination, when it concerns the creation of a country image, needs to involve many actors.

The central idea is that the image is not built randomly, but methodically: first is the hard core of the image or the strong elements (strengths) that support it, have to be articulated. Once constituted the hard core of the image, the latter becomes a representation and is assimilated by the public. Therefore, the image of the country depends on the strategy of the adopted image, the technical means used and the resources enabled, because this product must be harnessed and assimilated.

National Image

Numerous studies conducted have shown that the country image can directly or indirectly affect personal perceptions regarding the evaluation of some products. Han (Han, 1990) concluded that country image could be defined as a suite of general consumer perceptions regarding the quality of products or services from a particular country. Generally, information on country image is important for consumers when researching products.

Country image consists of various factors, such as a country’s representative products, national economic and political characteristics, history and tradition. This country image is fixed in consumer memory and is enabled whenever a consumer decides whether to consume a product (Cordell, 1992).

Akaah and Yaprak (Akaah & Yaprak, 1993) have demonstrated that in the analysis of the country image a series of cultural factors, ethnic characteristics, degree of industrialization, and level of consumer culture, historical events, and traditional relations of a country with other countries. Martin and Eroglu (Martin & A. Eroglu, 1993) have shown that the perception of a country's image is closely linked to its degree of economic development.

In conclusion, the image of a country is based on products, places, events, and people specific to that country. Finally, Dinnie's opinion (Dinnie, 2008), can be recalled here since it considers the image of a country as being formed based only on people’s perceptions and experiences with products originating in that country is a simplistic assumption and not in conformity with reality.

Romania’s National Image versus Nation Branding

Romania’s reality is as follow, Romania first has to work on the domestic image and after that, on the international one. A group of
researchers led by Dr. Dorel Abraham, Sociolog CURS, interviewed 1039 people and asked them just one question: “what is the first word that comes to your mind when you hear “Romania today?” (Anon., 2009). The results show remarkable disappointment. The words given in replies have been divided into four categories: bad feelings (insecurity, poverty, and unemployment), good feelings (democracy), symbols (names of the ex-presidents), and less specific (related to economy). It is clear that the Romanian people have a bad image of their own country; it will be impossible to attain a successful national image if there is not a good image domestically to start with.

Since 1989, Romania’s image abroad has become one of the recurring and popular topics of the public, media and political agenda. “Nation Branding in Romania After 1989: A Cultural Semiotic Perspective”, written by Bianca-Florentina Cheregi discusses four nation-branding post-communist campaigns initiated by the Romanian Government, from a cultural semiotic perspective (Cheregi, 2017). It concludes that the symbols are not known beforehand, which suggests that the meanings should be constructed through commercials. In addition, the paper concludes that Romania’s nation brand can be investigated as a cultural space, considering that the campaigns mobilise cultural symbols as systems of signs.

In their paper “Branding Strategy for Romania as a Tourist Destination” (Cosma, et al., n.d.), the authors discuss Romania’s competitive advantages and the branding strategy it should have as a tourist destination. The paper concluded that Romania presents an uncertain strategy toward tourism and has no clear brand strategy. In addition, the authors conclude that Romania should capitalize on the fact that it is better to have low notoriety connected with a positive attitude than high notoriety and negative attitude.

The Presidency of the European Council

The Presidency of the European Council is accountable for the functioning of the Council of the European Union, where it rotates among the nations of the European Union every six months. The scarce literature on the Presidency covers only three parts: priorities, objectives, and the outcomes.

In the “Bulgarian Presidency of the Council of the European Union: Outcomes for the Western Balkans” research paper, Plamena Karaivanova focuses on the Western Balkan countries at the Presidency of the European Council (Karaivanova, 2019). The paper describes the Presidency of Bulgaria in 2018, saying that Bulgaria’s role was that of a
mediator, initiator and leader. Moreover this report lacks a methodology and a proper research question.

George Kyris focuses in his paper on the principles and objectives of the fifth Greek Presidency to the European Union Council (Kyris, 2015). In his paper “The Fifth Greek Presidency of the Council of the European Union: The Most Unlikely Captain?” he discusses the changes introduced by the Treaty of Lisbon and the way these changes were reflected in the Greek Presidency period. In addition, the author mentions vaguely the achievements of the Greek presidency, which describes the performance of Greece as “rather well”.

In the paper “The First Latvian Presidency of the Council of the European Union—Expectations and Deliverables”, Māris Andžāns describes the achievements and challenges presented by Latvia over six months the Presidency (Andžāns, 2015). The author concludes that Latvia made itself notable among the EU institutions attracted to public admiration. Nevertheless, the author mentions a possible national affirmation on the European Union stage; the author did not bring up evidence through a specific methodology or analysis in order to prove so.

Romania’s Presidency of the European Union Council

From January 2019 until June 2019, Romania worked toward another chapter because, for the first time since its entry into the European Union family, it was hosting the presidency of the European Council. While presidents chair the other EU institutions with multi-annual mandates, the Council of the European Union does not have a permanent, single-person president and its Presidency rotates every 6 months. Every EU Member State has the obligation to hold in turn the Council Presidency and chair the meetings at the ministerial, diplomatic and expert levels.

The focus of Romania for this presidency was everything under the umbrella of “cohesion”; in fact, the motto presented by Romania was “Cohesion, a common European value”. By exercising its role as an impartial mediator as well as that of a consensus facilitator, Romania shall seek to ensure the cohesion of the Member States facing the current challenges, as well as the need to re-define together the future of the European Union. Through this motto, “Cohesion, a common European value”, we wish to underline the importance of returning to the key objectives of the community project. Therefore, cohesion may be deemed an elemental common value for the European Union’s coherence and capacity to achieve its objectives, as stated in Article 3 of the Treaty on European Union, stipulating that one of the most
important common objectives is to promote economic, social and territorial cohesion among the Member States. Cohesion was introduced as a mechanism as early as 1957, as part of regional policies, and acquired its own dimension in 1988, when its objective was defined as a key instrument for achieving economic, social and territorial convergence within the European Union (Anon., 2019).

Logo

Another element that defined the presidency was the logo presented by Romania with the guidance of the presidency of the European Council. The logo points to an evolving, self-confident, dynamic European Union, that also remains attached to its core values. From the aesthetic perspective, the European Union was portrayed through the image of a wolf, an animal present in the mythology of most of the European cultures. Thus, Romania recalls that it is the country with the largest wolf population, being, consequently, an example of good practice regarding the protection of European biodiversity.

It can be said that until the present, there has not been any specialized literature that focuses on the image that a country brings and expose to the presidency of the European Council. Most of the literature presented on this topic is divided into three stages: “principles and objectives”, “overall presentation” and “achievements”.

Objectives of the research

1. To identify the public opinion regarding Romania’s image during six months of Presidency at the European Union Council;
2. To determine the impact of Romania’s Presidency at the European Council on the image of Romania as a country.

Hypothesis of the research

1. It is hypothesised that Romania’s Image during the six-month period is characterised by a positive picture
2. It is hypothesised that after six months of Presidency, Romania’s country image has improved at the European level

Research Questions

Based on the literature review and theoretical framework, the following three research questions are posed:

RQ1. What was Romania’s contribution to the success of the presidency of the Council of the European Union?

RQ2. How did the broad public (both national and European) see Romania’s performance in navigating this important challenge?
RQ3. How much did the new image appeal to them?

Methodology
A quantitative content analysis was performed to explore the research questions. Videos posted on YouTube on specific channels regarding the Romanian presidency of the European Union Council over a six-month period were selected as sample. The analysis, as well as the coding procedure, are based on the agenda of the posts, the number of likes, the number of dislikes, and comments, including the language such as English and Romanian.

The agenda is categorized as follows: informing the public on the upcoming event; initiation discourse, informing the public on the ongoing presidency; closure of the event; informing the public on the achievements. The two channels selected are “TVR” (Romanian National Television) with over 606,074 followers and Euronews (the English version) with 950,494 followers.

The values of the posts were identified according to the terms related to Romania’s Presidency to the Council of the European Union.

In order to answer the research question number 3, the author of this paper conducted 13 interviews, which included experts, scholars and journalists with a vast knowledge of the European Union Institution and its functions.

Results
After examining the research questions, the present research found significant results, which are discussed in three main sections: posts related to the image of Romania at the presidency of the European Council, posts related to the post-presidency, posts related to the ongoing presidency, and posts related to the end of the presidency.
In total, the comments of more than 70 posts were analysed for both channels. In addition, for the first category, “Romania’s Image”, the website WordItout\textsuperscript{50} was used to create a cloud.

**RQ 1 What was Romania’s contribution to the success of the presidency of the Council of the European Union?**

This research question was addressed in order to be able to examine the results of the Romania’s Presidency at the helm of the Council of the European Union. To answer this question, the author analyzed the two speeches held by the Romanian Prime Minister at the end of the Romanian mandate.

The two speeches were analyzed using “Wordit” which is a word cloud generator, which helped in seeing what are the most used words in the speech of the Romanian Prime Minister and determine possible key words that can be associated with the success or failure of the six months Presidency.

It is to be mentioned, that the motto of the Romanian Presidency was “COHESION, A COMMON EUROPEAN VALUE”. From the analysis made on the first speech\textsuperscript{51} of the Romanian Prime Minister in the European Union Parliament at the end of the Presidency, did not presented any of the three words mentioned in the motto. Most common words stated were “European”, “citizens”, “common”, “continue”.

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\textsuperscript{50} [https://worditout.com/word-cloud/create](https://worditout.com/word-cloud/create)

Figure 5 Romanian Prime Minister's speech analysis

From the second speech\(^2\), which was delivered together with and Romanian Minister Delegate for European Affairs, the words used were slightly different. “European” and “citizens” remain as central words, while words such as “member”, “strengthening”, “progress”, and “project” are mentioned.

Figure 6 Romanian Minister Delegate for European Affairs speech analysis

For the comments side, only TVR channel posted 4 videos with a total of 24 comments. From the comments section, the results showed as

follow: the comments were mainly positive and the key words were “extraordinary”, “thank you”, “hope”.

*Figure 7 Comments related to the end of Presidency analysis*

It can be concluded that the performance of Romania at the helm of the Presidency of the European Union Council was evaluated as a positive one. Given the national circumstances, with a tumultuous political situation, which influences directly the national image and people's opinion, the Presidency brought a fresh air on the European stage, with positive outcomes.

*RQ2. How did the broader public (both national and European) see Romania’s performance in navigating this important challenge?*

This research question examines the comments and the number of “unlike” received for the second and third stages of the research—“ongoing Presidency” and “post-Presidency” respectively. Therefore, a total of 55 posts for TVR were analyzed, and 6 posts were examined from Euronews.
Figure 7 indicates that TVR published more posts and has greater coverage (55 posts = 90.1%) than Euronews (6 posts = 9.8%). This is a large difference in news coverage for the specific topic. The results represented in the graphic show that at the beginning, the public voted their opinion with a larger amount of dislikes for the posts on the ongoing and post Presidency as well as a larger number of comments, which shows that the involvement of the public. On the general tone, it can be argued that the public answered positively (through likes) to all the posts presented on the TVR channel.

*Figure 8 TVR coverage on Facebook of the Romanian Presidency*

Based on a content analysis of the comments section, the reality is different. There were 287 comments analysed through a word cloud generator. From the figure above it can be seen that the comments are represented by a negative tone, where the main words are, “demisia = resignation”, “pleaca = go away”, “proasta = stupid”, “analfabeta = illiterate”.

*Figure 9 Facebook comments analysis for TVR (beginning of Presidency)*
In the other two figures, the predominant words are “impostoare = imposters”, “furat = stolen”, “strainii = foreigners”, “colonie = colonies”.

*Figure 10 Facebook comments analysis for TVR (on going Presidency)*

In addition, the 151 comments were dominated by the words “rezultate = results”, “nimic = nothing”, “soarta = the fate”, “straini = foreigners”, “promisiuni = promises”, “multumesc = thank you”.
The Euronews posts, are dominated by a positive tone, represented by a majority of likes than dislike, as well as a mix of feelings presented in the comments section (see Figure 11).
An analysis was performed by comparing two news channels on Facebook to see the nation-branding efforts of Romania during its six-month period at the Presidency of the European Council. The results reveal that even though the number of likes vastly outweighs the number of dislikes, the comments section shows a different reality. Romania’s performance at the Presidency of the Council was associated with negative words. In addition, it can be said that the national image played an important role, and in many comments, the people’s opinion was directly related to the impressions they were getting of Romania.

**RQ3. How well did the new image appeal to them?**

From the results of the interviews, a total of 13 interviews, it resulted that the overall evaluation of the first Romanian Presidency of the Council of the EU was a success. Moreover, the success of the Presidency was associated with the number of the agreements signed during six months.

*It was a success! Romanian public servants and experts had the opportunity to work closely with counterparts from all EU member states on numerous files. The promise was to close as many files as possible before the end of the six months. Subjects were stress-free but there was consensus in the end.*

For the question “What is the image that comes to your mind when you think about the Romanian Presidency?”, the majority of the respondents recalled the picture of *The Council Building and the Romanian flag*, or any other European Union institution with the Romanian flag. It is
interesting to mention that none of the respondents mentioned the logo presented by the Romania at the Presidency.

At the question, “In your opinion, did this Presidency help to improve Romania's image at the level of EU? Why/Why not?” the results showed that the interviewers showed concerned regarding the national image, but firmly believed that the chance to be for six months at the guide of the Presidency gave a chance to Romania to improve the image in Europe.

*Given the circumstances and the general situation at national level, the impression left after the presidency was very good. I think it has far exceeded the expectations and showed our partners another side of European culture.*

*A clear drawback that subsequently lowered the expectation threshold. Nevertheless, this translated into a feeling of pleasant surprise in the end.*

Regarding the visual image of Romania, the interviewers referred to the logo that Romania presented for the Presidency. All the 13 interviewers agreed on the fact that the logo was more representative at a national level and more close to the Romanian public than to the European public.

*...this choice (the logo) meant more to Romanians than anyone else.*

Interestingly, the Romanian logo for the Presidency meaning was divided. If for the Romanian public represented a close relation with the ancient inhabitants of Romania, for the Romanian government the intention was different and the meaning was to depict an “evolving, self-confident, dynamic European Union”[^53], where the wolf is most common in the European culture.

**Conclusion**

The main idea of the research was that Romania’s image during and after the Presidency of the European Union Council improved in the eyes of public opinion. The first hypothesis proposed refers to this aspect, and it can be said that the results of the content analysis confirmed the hypothesis only partially. Therefore, from the three posts on the Romanian image presentation, 224 likes, 15 dislikes, and 9 comments were collected that are characterized by positive words such as “democracy”, “extraordinary”, “beautiful”.

Another important aspect that this paper has focused on is Romania’s image after the Presidency. This point can be found in the third part of the content analysis. The interpretation of the posts regarding this point led to the conclusion that the public involved in the comments of each post (4 posts with a total of 24 comments) presented a negative position. None of the comments referred to a positive image of Romania hosting the Presidency of the European Council.

The analysis of Romania’s image during six months with the Presidency of the European Council discovered some important results, which can be taken into consideration for future research:

- During the Presidency, public opinion focused more on the political side and follows/comments on the proposals and decisions made during the Presidency. More than 90% of the comments for each post were related to political matters;
- The perception of a country guiding the Presidency is directly proportional to the national perception of that country in the world. From the content analysis of the posts made by Euronews, all the foreign comments (223 comments) that referred to Romania were correlated to the image of Romania as “buglers”, “gypsy”, and “poor country”.
- The country hosting the presidency of the European Council does not give enough importance to national image promotion or enough space during the Presidency to promote the country’s image in the European Union space. The results showed that Romania prepared only one promotional video in English for the Presidency.

It can be concluded that the countries from the European Union can take into consideration that the Presidency of the European Council is a chance to improve or change the national image and rebrand the country in a six-month period. This opportunity comes only when backed by the achievements made during the Presidency at a political level.

Considering the results, it can be stated that the National image is playing an important role for the countries members of the European Union, especially when they take the six months Rotating Presidency. Nevertheless, the results show that the Presidency can be a chance to improve in a faster way the national image on the European stage. In addition, the results showed that a universal logo and a larger number of videos on a country presentation would add to the improvement of the image in the eyes of the public.
In addition, this research has significantly proven that national image is even more important for countries, which are directly implied in international organizations and especially when these countries are at the helm of the organization.

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CULTURAL ENGAGEMENT OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN SMEs: CREATING BRANDS AND ENHANCING THE NATIONAL IMAGE OF CYPRUS AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

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Abstract

Tourism is an essential activity for many countries because of its social, economic and environmental impacts (WTO, 1995). Cyprus consist of an interesting case because as a microstate, relies heavily on tourism. More specifically, tourism contributes 12% on the island’s GDP with direct and indirect employment to account 20% of the total workforce (Statistical_Service_Cyprus, 2019). Among the unique characteristics of Cyprus as a tourism destination is culture that appears to be an important asset, since cultural tourism remains the paramount form of special interest tourism. This is a type of tourism activity in which the visitor’s essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products which, according to Jovicic (2016), enhance their experience on the destination in a sustainable way. Admittedly, sustainable tourism in every destination deals with a unique identity of the place which makes it authentic by combining a constant reinterpretation (to suit consumer taste) with an idealised evocation of the past. Thus, by promoting a destination’s cultural elements, place branding is enhanced. In particular, branding in tourism can be perceived as the identity of the place enriched with cultural elements (Lai, Khoo-Lattimore and Wang 2019, Rabbiosi 2019), such as gastronomy, handicrafts traditions, myths, embroideries among others (Liasidou 2018, 2018a, Marshall and De Villiers 2015, Borowiecki and Castiglione 2014). In tourism, women play a vital role especially in rural areas by owing small business that are associated with cultural elements such as food products, small wineries, hand-made art and crafts or selling other traditional/local products (Kimbu, Ngoasong, Adeola and Afenyo-Agbé, 2019). Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are often referred to as the backbone of the European economy, providing jobs and growth opportunities and accounting for two in three tourism jobs. Women-led SMEs make up roughly a third of the total market worldwide (Women’s_World_Banking, 2019). Small and medium sized enterprises
in Cyprus account for 99.3% of the total enterprises (Statistical_Service_Cyprus, 2019).

The aim of the study is twofold: first, to explore the way that women entrepreneurs in Cyprus contribute to the promotion of culture through various types of business activities and, second, to find out whether the revival of traditional products initiated by women’s entrepreneurial ventures can create a new brand for strengthening the national identity of Cyprus as a tourism destination. Towards this end, a qualitative research was conducted, through 30 semi-structured face-to-face interviews with key informants, allowing respondents to frame their answers according to their own perceptions. The sample was non-probability and in particular purposive that targeted people who have the knowledge and the information on the topic of discussion (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). Survey results and findings were subsequently coded, themed and reviewed within the framework of formulating detailed recommendations for tourism development plans and strategic options for the future branding of Cyprus. More specifically, the island can obtain a new identity and positioning as a more competitive destination within the aims of sustainability inspired by the local culture. At the same time new opportunities will be created for women by encouraging them to become entrepreneurs to sell and promote local products.

**Keywords:** cultural products, Cyprus, semi-structured interviews, tourism, women entrepreneurship
Mobility of capital and people has given rise to diverse modes of human sociality, including new forms of communal bonds that are not always spatially grounded (Amin and Thrift 2002). In the case of diasporic communities, “belonging and identification is anything but local” (Amin and Thrift 2000: 46). Yet, yearning for community (Amin and Thrift 2000) and personal connection with notions of ‘home’ (Basu 2004) is strong, evident in the proliferation of attractions and homecoming initiatives targeting diasporic communities across the globe (Morgan et al. 2003, O’Leary and Negra 2016). Museums of migration, heritage centres, statues and exhibitions have popped up internationally.

Building on ongoing research, the paper explores contemporary narratives of migration heritage in Ireland. Ireland has a rich history of emigration; it is estimated that since 1700, between 9 and 10 million Irish men, women, and children have migrated (Kenny 2003). This number is almost twice the current population on the island (6.6 million), and also exceeds the population at its historical peak on the eve of the great famine in the 1840s (8.5 million) (Kenny 2003).

The financial crisis of 2008 has triggered a return to high levels of Irish emigration (O’Leary and Negra 2016). Using a critical ethnographic approach, the paper aims to a) scrutinise the dominant narratives of belonging and dispossession and b) bring to surface emerging counter-hegemonic narratives of resistance. Data consists of observations and material collected from visits to migration museums, as well as published material and a group discussion with young activists. Data was thematically analysed using critical discourse analysis.

Three themes have emerged: romanticising, normalising, and resistance. Romanticising emigration involves a celebration of Irishness. The material conditions that lead to, and the hardships of emigration are distanced as a thing of the past. At the same time, the achievements of the emigrants are celebrated, and their significance is projected to the present. In tandem with this romanticisation is a normalising discourse, in which emigration is portrayed as unproblematic, seen as simply a part of being Irish. This normalisation facilitates the current generations’ emigration. Finally, activist movements such as ‘We’re not
Leaving’ offer a counter narrative, not only to the romanticisation and normalisation of Irish emigration but to the material conditions that historically cause it. Rather than romanticising the diaspora, it re-politicises migration, people and place.

Connecting people and places is explored in through narratives of belonging, dispossession and resistance. The “imperative concern is ... with forward-looking uses of the past, of the past as a set of resources for the future” (Pickering and Keightley 2006: 937). The counter narratives presented here open up opportunities for a critique of neoliberal globalisation and a critical re-engagement of people, heritage and place.

Keywords: migration heritage, narratives of migration, consumption of place
THE KNOWLEDGE GENERATION IN PLACE 
BRANDING: BASED ON CASE SELECTION IN 
LITERATURE FROM 2008 TO 2018

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Abstract

Recently, place branding is getting more and more attention in both academic and practices. However, the government branding strategies and other factor impact the knowledge generation mechanism in place branding literature is still lacking study. This research has contributed by investigating case selection pattern and its influencing factors based on articles about place branding from the Web of Science from 2008 to 2018. Firstly, we raised three hypotheses about case selection mechanism in place branding literature, including government branding strategies, urban attraction factors and knowledge resources. Secondly, we tested these hypotheses in aggregated individual cases and city pairs by linear regression and qualitative comparative analysis. As for case selection patterns, the coverage of cases has been expanded from Europe to other continents, especially Asia. As for influencing factors, this study demonstrated mega-event holding cities rather than the ones with official branding documents or organization tend to be selected as cases in place branding literature. It is possible that the better performed cities gain more attention from scholars, such as cities holding megacity event. The other influential factors include tourism visitor number and the number of scholars working on place branding. The administrative function and population of cities are not influential factors for individual case selection. The city pairs appear in the literature tend to base on their similarity rather than variety, such as similarity in location, tourism visitor number and scholar agglomeration intensity. However, scientific collaboration among scholars plays a limited role in multiple case selection. The collaboration between scholars in different countries or continents are still in a small proportion in recent place branding literature.

Keywords: place branding, case selection, thematic analysis
HOW DOES STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT FOR CITY BRANDING WORK IN AN AVERAGE MEDIUM SIZED CHINESE CITY?

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Abstract

In the last decade, city branding has been chosen by the local government to attract investors, companies, a talented labour force, and residents and to realize urban transformation. More and more is known on how advanced Chinese cities brand themselves, but few if any studies to date provide empirical evidence as to how ‘average’ medium-sized Chinese cities apply their city branding strategies. The city of Jingmen is selected as it represents a typical average Chinese industrial city with a fragmented industrial structure and located in an inland area. Recently, Jingmen actively explores new pathways to transform itself by city branding strategies because of the competition from neighbouring cities and the pressure resulting from environmental pollution. A stakeholder analysis maps the roles, resources and interactions within Jingmen’s stakeholders during the brand creation and implementation stages in two different city branding projects: China’s Agricultural Valley and General Aviation New Town respectively. This article summarizes the stakeholder involvement mechanism on city branding practices in average Chinese cities. Our analysis confirms that the city branding creation in China is done in a political way. The politicians or local governments can organize all of the public authorities to get involved. Chinese local public authorities and more specifically key departments, politicians and public enterprises are the core stakeholders in branding implementation processes. Furthermore, an average city in China such as Jingmen encounters numerous challenges in brand implementation compared with the megacities, such as lack of natural resource and support from the higher level government, insufficient linkage of
branding with other policy instruments, and limited stakeholder involvement.

**Keywords:** city branding, policy implementation, stakeholder involvement, urban transformation, Chinese cities, case study
BEING AN URBAN ALCHEMIST IN METAMODERN TIMES: A MANIFESTO FOR A POETIC CITY BRANDING BASED ON THE BACHELARDIAN IMAGINATION OF MATTER

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Abstract

Amid the reassuring echoes of positivist Sirens calling towards technological progress, factfulness (Rosling, 2018) and careful data analysis (Pinker, 2018) and the vigilant monitions of skeptical Cassandras about nuclear threats, climate change during the Anthropocene and the rise of unemployment due to Artificial Intelligence (Hamilton, 2017; Harari, 2018), the contemporary global – yet fragile – human condition is outlined. Any social, cultural, political or economic tactic has to walk the line between sustainable resilience and creative contestation, in order to be considered as valid. A vacillation between normative ingenuousness and uprising vigilance ideally summarises the dominant cultural logic of Western capitalist society during our ambiguous times, while denoting that the urgent oscillation can be achieved only through poetics. At the same paradoxical wavelength, cultural theorists Akker and Vermeulen (2010; 2018) named that ambivalent cultural contemporaneity as metamodern, whereas Dempsey (2015) stressed its poetic quality as a reaction to the insufficiency of pragmatic modernism and playfully superficial postmodernism. Hence, metamodern poetics attempts to re-construct the de-constructed by returning to the contrived depth of myth, by fusing eclectically premodern metaphysics, modern mythologies and postmodern pastiched tales beyond any supernatural divinity, mere secularism or melancholic shallowness. Thus, it is within that metamodern philosophical framework that city branders ought to poetically re-definethe socio-cultural beta version of city branding (Mommaas, 2002) by the alchemic mixing of premodern humanism, modern optimism to create new mythic systems and postmodern doubt and knowingness.

The first part of the paper attempts to articulate an analogy between the premodern alchemic thought and the metamodern place branding practices by highlighting the poetic inner driving force that both seem to have immanent within their scientific and economic approaches
respectively. A peculiar genealogy is traced that goes beyond and in more depth than the superficial eclectic kinship of alchemic hermeticism (symbolism) with contemporary graphic design practices (logo-ism). Just as the Premodern Alchemists were experimenting in their attics or basements during the Middle Ages of Turbulence for chrysopoeia and panaceas, the Metamodern City Branders are trying to invent mythopoeia and proper marketing mixes during the New Age of Disappointment. Science was the excuse of the former and Business Economics are just the alibi for the neo-romantic obsessions of the latter. In its second part the paper is inspired by the Bachelardian analysis concerning the imagination of matter and elaborates on the ‘psychochemical’ aspects of city branding as a poetical procedure that can be based on a four-stage reverie (fire stage: inspiration, water stage: vision, air stage: dynamics, earth stage: praxis). Through a phenomenological approach, the four stages of the poetic city branding depict the perpetual interplay between material and dynamic imagination that takes place in the head of a city brander. And that metamodern reverie might be the lapis philosophorum that keeps our cities ever young and beautiful, even during the Endarkenment.

**Keywords:** metamodernism, alchemy, imagination of matter, poetic city branding, Bachelard
URBAN PLANNING AND BRANDING: TWO INTERCONNECTED CONCEPTS IN TODAY’S CITIES?

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Abstract

Never in the history and development of cities, have been the concepts of economics and management as prevalent as they are nowadays. Concepts such as those of capital, foreign investment and competitiveness dominate the current urban trends challenging the predominant urban planning practices and pushing for new urban policies and therefore new urban planning tools. In this context, cities compete with each other for more people, resources, and business. Therefore, cities need to be more and more attractive and city branding has a role on that: the communication of the image of the city to a target market and this means developing and incorporating a set of activities which aim at turning a city from a “specific location” into a “promising destination”.

Urban planning is a technical and political process concerned with the development and planning of land use and the built environment as well as the physical layout of human settlements. Urban planning is also responsible for the planning and development of water use and resources, rural and agricultural land, parks and conserving areas of natural environmental significance. Urban planning is an interdisciplinary including different sub-fields such as land-use planning, zoning, economic development, environmental planning, and transportation planning.

However, urban planning as implemented in Greece is much more related to the city as “location” than the city as a “destination”. The paper focuses on that assumption and further elaborates on that, using the city of Larissa, as a case study. In that context, the paper is structured as follows: First part presents the theoretical framework of city branding as well as its relation (?) to urban planning. Second part describes the main aspects of urban planning in Greece, further elaborating the assumption of the city as “location” than “destination”. Third part focuses on Larissa as a case study: the paper presents the main principles of its urban plot as well as the political and technical philosophy of its revision and modification. Based on the fact that Larissa has also a city branding plan, the paper will try to test whether the existing urban plot can positively contribute to the current city branding plan and whether the latter can infuse urban planning.

Keywords: Larissa, place branding, urban planning
COMPETITIVE URBAN ENVIRONMENTS AND SYMBOLIC ECONOMY. THE DESIGN OF CULTURAL SPATIAL NARRATIVES

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Abstract

In the processes of city branding strategies, architectural objects as spatial symbols are often linked with the city they belong. Clearly their design process can be expected to be related on the way the building fabric is perceived and reproduce spatial relations and place identities. It seems that in the context of European integration creating competitive environments by means of architecture and urban design goes along with the symbolic economy production. On this ground, their relationship emerge as a central concern of both scholars and professionals. If it is supposed that architecture and urban design will be encouraging the production of symbolic economy in European Mediterranean cities as well as the transformation of their spatial narratives, then two issues are raised. First, which of the city’s assets are important for the production of a competitive urban environment? Secondly, how the design of a spatial narrative will be related with competitive urban morphologies.

The attempt to answer these research questions is based on the relationship between the urban nodes/clusters of the city, their cultural symbolic content and the regulatory fields of the place brand equity that the researcher has identified. The outcomes of the research confirm the conjecture that this relationship may lead to significant impacts on the production of the symbolic economy of a place and its competitive perceived image. The paper is presenting possible narratives of the most interesting cultural pathways in Larnaca city, according to the study of the researcher on the perceived image of residents and non-residents of Larnaca.

Keywords: city branding, competitive urban environments, architecture, symbolic economy, spatial narratives
HOW PRIVATE URBAN DEVELOPMENT CAN REVITALIZE A DYING PLACE BRAND: THE CASE OF ASBURY PARK

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Abstract

Over the years, towns like Asbury Park, New Jersey, USA have witnessed real estate developers reverse a downward spiral created by social unrest and lack of innovation, into periods of renaissance (Ammon, 2015; Sampson and Raudenbush, 2004). This fluctuation process can underlie lasting perceptions that inaccurately brand a place, create widespread negative perceptions and cause both negative and positive economic effects that directly affect the residents of the city (Leary, 1994). As a destination like Asbury Park repeatedly shifted between thriving and failing over a span of fifty years, it can be pondered what caused this span of inconsistency? What lasting branding effects arise from this inconsistency when a place finally starts to thrive again?

Our paper integrates developers’ actions with the process of fully revitalizing a place brand, both physically and culturally, to a point of economic prosperity and socio-cultural regeneration (Corasaniti, 2019; Lasky, 2019; Sackman, 2019). Over the past two decades, private-led urban development has created a revitalized Asbury Park that is experiencing the largest amount of economic prosperity to date. Nevertheless, the Asbury Park brand is a victim of its history and fluctuation of development over time. Our paper applies the four stages of the place branding process (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013) to trace Asbury Park’s dynamic identity over time.

Furthermore, this paper explores the relationship between private urban development and public perception of Asbury Park as a place brand. Through analysis of brand identity, press and media coverage, physical branding, and social media analytics, it can be drawn that developers’ impact on revitalizing a failing location can cause economic and social growth for a destination. Our analysis of Asbury Park’s intangible branding that business and individual consumers contribute through social media posts - and hashtags in particular – found key traits such as; art and décor, music (Bruce Springsteen is a native son), shore lifestyle, millennial age demographic, dogs/ pet ownership,
community engagement with businesses, mixed ethnicity and cultural demographics.

By studying stereotype perception contents (warmth & competence) of Asbury Park (Fiske et al. 2002) and dimensions of brand personality (Aaker, 1997) in social media content and engagement across various target audiences (i.e. full-year residents, summer residents, visitors, small business owners and investors), this paper explores how fluctuations in urban development can affect a place brand’s perceptions, offering recommendations on mitigating negative stereotypes (Chattalas and Priyanti, 2018) and sustaining place brand revitalization.

**Keywords:** place branding, urban development, stereotypes, social media
Towards a Research Agenda for Contemporary Place Branding: Developments, Challenges and Dynamics

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Abstract

This paper aims at suggesting a research agenda for contemporary place branding by presenting developments, challenges and dynamics of the field. It is high time place branding is identified as a significant tool for exercising contemporary public administration. In order to achieve this scope, it is mandatory to advance the theoretical understanding of the field by building on existing knowledge and models like Hankinson’s and by incorporating cross-disciplinary knowledge. Therefore, in this conceptual paper we attempt a critical review of the existing bibliography and professional reports in order to contribute to the creation of a regime of knowledge production, to group some key findings about selected gaps of the field and assess whether such analysis can reveal the need to identify new potential research paths.

A growing body of research demonstrates that destinations and especially islands are rather ill-prepared for coping with pressures that derive from tourism growth and climate change. Places have been affected by phenomena like overtourism, the rise of platforms like Airbnb, and the lack of proper planning to effectively manage crises caused by climate change. In this era of globalization and rapid technological developments, we need to reexamine the role of place branding as the proper framework for a more sustainable future for destinations. Finally, light needs to be shed on the role and interaction between the various place branding stakeholders like local entrepreneurs and citizens, tourists and local authorities.

Moreover, several recent reports call for more advanced systems to manage tourism growth. Especially, in countries where tourism is considered a fundamental development pillar, the debate needs to be addressed to the reinvention of destination management and place branding. What do all these factors and tendencies have in common? There are indications that they are re-shaping place branding and they are forcing it to evolve. Contemporary place branding that incorporates values like sustainable development and islandness could play an important role in this evolutionary process especially for countries with a lot coastal and island territories like Greece. Building on existing
cross-discipline theoretical foundations, the present paper aims at (a) highlighting the contemporary nature of place branding and (b) proposing new fruitful research paths by underlining the need to elaborate more on the relationships between concepts like tourism, place branding and islandness.

**Keywords:** place branding dynamics, tourism, sustainable development, islandness

### 1. Introduction

Globalization has changed the way we view locality leading to a new era for places, products and even experiences. In addition, the past decades several changes have occurred that impose to rethink tourism. Given this necessity, the real question is how prepared nations and smaller regions like islands for example are to tackle pressures towards local society and environment and to set an effective framework for tourism development. Literature on tourism pressures also identifies Greek insular regions to be following a rather uncontrolled tourism development pattern (Andriotis, 2004), fact that reinforces the need to reexamine how tourism development is designed and implemented. Tsartas (2003, p. 129) concludes that it is high time tourism policy now searched for softer and locally integrated models of tourism development. Given that, tourism is closely linked to the place marketing and branding process, because it is used from local and national authorities and governments as a positioning, development and regeneration tool (Hall, 1997), this concept paper aims to set a more updated research agenda for place branding so that academics, practitioners and local authorities.

The dynamic of the field of place branding has been quite notable the past twenty years without however having given answers to fundamental issues of its nature, major relevant concepts and theories. It's high time we discussed about place branding that goes beyond being a marketing tool. As Hanna and Rowley (2015) put it, place branding is a necessity because of the increasing power of international media, the falling cost of international travel, consumer spending power, the threat of place parity, the role of international investors, competition for skilled and professional immigrant’s and differentiated tourist behavior. Whether at the national, regional, city or town level, branding is as much a way of planning developmental policies as branding in the private sector is about business strategy (Hanna and Rowley, 2015, p. 63).
Places are simultaneously places of residence, work, visit, leisure, entrepreneurship, financial investment, social interaction, social activism, emotional attachment and many more (Kavaratzis, 2017, p. 98). The place (as a brand) comes closer to residents because it is not seen as imposed from above (the authorities) or from the outside (some highly paid consultant) but based on the reality of the place as this is lived by the place's residents and experienced by its visitors. Making locals and visitors own the place brand through their active participation in the place branding process on the basis of a shared vision of what constitutes a place’s potential for development is a rather critical issue (Kavaratzis, 2017).

Place branding is a procedure that brings together a variety of theoretic fields and special scientific knowledge, like brand management, corporate branding, general management, marketing, but also developmental policy, so as to create a new discipline which balances communication and visionary models and concepts but also has a practical implementation (Maheshwari et al., 2011). Rehan et al. (2019, pp. 159 - 160) present the five main steps in a place branding procedure are visualized (see image 1). Place image which lies in the heart of place branding has been widely examined in this context for more than a decade. Place image and place branding can have a significant impact on tourist behavior and tourist intention of visiting a specific place (Acharya and Rahman, 2016).

**Image 1**: The five (5) steps used to develop a place brand (adjusted from Rehan et al., 2019, pp. 159 -160)
Tourism pressures like the ones created because of overtourism, and climate change have a profound impact on various tourism aspects. First and foremost, this kind of pressures can alter a place at such an extent that it could no longer be a preferred destination or at some cases places even become unsuitable even for their own residents. So, they are very relevant to the essence of tourism.

Moreover, social media as a new way to communicate, to be informed and to design travels. Places need to rethink their images and go beyond traditional commercial campaigns because nowadays audiences are more vast and easier to be tracked down. Like marketing as field has evolved in a whole philosophy that goes beyond sales and publicity, place branding needs to make a leap and move forward and evolve in a field that goes beyond logos and slogans. The way to work against global trends in a utopian attempt to stop them may not be the proper solution. Maybe we need to find new ways to work with these trends and place branding could be one potential path to achieve this, especially if we examine a more participatory version (Kavaratzis, 2017).

Perhaps, the most challenging gap among stakeholders is the one between academics and practitioners because the field of place branding needs both the scientific point of view of academics and practitioners' insights that derive from practical implementation of place branding strategies. The combined knowledge from these two critical stakeholders can be very beneficial for local authorities to design and implement strategic place branding policies.

Today, places and especially cities are thought to become economic assets and fundamental pillars in the economic development of regions. Place marketing could be considered as a natural component of the economic development of a place (Deffner et al., 2013, p. 243). Every place needs to be managed according to a unique vision and customized solutions. Branding a place is a process that goes beyond a logo and promotion and takes into consideration the interests of all relevant stakeholders. Moreover, the cross-disciplinary view of place branding evolution will permit the creation of new models, new paradigms, new tools in existing frameworks and bridging the gap between theoretical and practical knowledge.

2. Main approach

We attempt to investigate selected literature reviews that have been published over the years. Vuignier (2016) has based his analysis from articles published from 1976 until 2016 in 98 different journals. Among his findings were the field’s lack of conceptual clarity, evidence and
explanatory articles. Moreover, the review underlines the literature’s lack of interest in the political and institutional frameworks that places need to also be examined, although this information is crucial in terms of public management.

Dinnie (2004) presented an overview of - what was then - an emerging literature that depicted the interest in place branding. He had then pinpointed that the field was indeed practitioner-led (Dinnie, 2004) and that Place Branding Journal was a very useful theoretical contribution. One of the simplest and yet descriptive models, is Hankinson's (2010). Given what earlier Dinnie (2004) had argued, there should be no surprise that Hankinson's model relies also on practitioners' point of view.

Briefly, Hankinson (2010) chose to illustrate the development of the field of place branding through three subsequent phases of concept and theory evolution. Even though, it is beyond the scope of this review paper to extensively analyze Hankinson’s work, it is of great importance to understand the rationale behind the three suggested phases of place branding evolution. Almost a decade after his work, we need to think if the field has evolved more so as to speak for a fourth phase or if there is a need to add more concepts and theories in the existing third phase.

Hankinson (2010) brings emphasis on the need to focus more on studying the contribution of more traditional concepts and models or various marketing sub-fields like corporate, product, non-profit, internal and services into the shaping or place branding. He also pinpoints that when it comes to place branding, the management of experience linked to a place, is a quite tricky, issue whereas a similar argument is made by Hanna and Rowley (2015).

Oguztimur and Akturan (2015) also attempt a quite extensive literature review by focusing on a synthesis of city branding literature between 1988 and 2014. They identify two different approaches on city branding concept: marketing oriented and planning oriented. And there is where lies one big confrontation between marketers on one hand who talk about selling points of a place and urban planners, sociologists and human geographers on the other hand who oppose to that logic. Most gaps pinpointed by Hankinson (2010) relate to conceptual weaknesses and model implementation problems. Researchers in order to build more a more solid place branding field need to seek concepts, theories and models outside the typical boundaries of the marketing science.
Acharya and Rahnman (2016, p. 289) attempt to record and review major research gaps based on 147 papers from three different databases from January to April 2014. Their research resulted in two main findings. Firstly, most articles were based on qualitative methods and secondly, place brand identity was present at all studies. Their research is one of the most completed in terms of successfully having attempted to summarize, synthesize and analyze previous work in the field. Demirbag, Kaplan et al. (2010) also attempted a quite extensive literature review in order to underline that the strategic power of brands has drifted evolution also in the more specific sub-fields like place management and place branding.

It is interesting that place branding can be practiced at different spatial scales from the neighborhood, through the city to the region, national state or continental scales (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2018, p. 425). So, various stakeholders are equally significant at all spatial levels. We should be especially careful not to exclude citizens from branding strategies because it takes place within governance networks of interdependent actors. (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2018, p. 431). We need to view place branding as a more participatory process (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015). Designing a better future for place branding involves two interconnected needs: (a) better understanding of branding as communication and (b) identify the number and types of stakeholders that participate in the branding process (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2018). This can be achieved by listening to the public and use place branding as a public administration tool more effectively.
However, it is not easy because relevant research shows that still local governments have not a solid view of what constitutes a place brand (Cleave at. al., 2016).

One of the most profound research gaps seems to be the differences in views between academics and practitioners as described by Kavaratzis (2015). In his paper entitled "Place branding scholars and practitioners: 'strangers in the night'" he used the phrase "parallel complaints" to describe the paradox of both sides (academics and practitioners) facing similar issues. On one hand, theoreticians had argued that practitioners are not very fond of using theories when they implement place branding strategies and at the same time practitioners were of the opinion that mere focus and pressure towards the implementation of theories that often have little to do with practice, was more than frustrating, given that in practice there are also the challenges of budgets and deadlines.

This type of gap ads to the fact that there is no consensus about concepts, terms, models and theories of place branding and make it even more difficult for the field to evolve. From 2010 and onwards, according to Kavaratzis (2015) certain researchers (e.g Stubbs and Warnaby, 2015) call for action to reinforce the constructive dialogue between academics and practitioners.

In the section that follows, we attempt to present briefly the major research gaps that derive from attempting to investigate the relationship between tourism and place branding. Contemporary place branding needs to build on existing knowledge by moving forward. In a sense, we might need to go back in order to push the field to move forwards, i.e. we need to look back to some very interesting findings that emerge from already published research.

3. Key arguments/findings

We provide the reader with five major findings based on the literature review that are believed to potentially lead to a more fruitful path of place branding theoretical and practical evolution by urging researchers to rethinking tourism and place branding together, to move towards more participatory paths and examine place branding theories not only in an urban context like cities but to places like islands due to their unique characteristics.

(a) The distance between academics and various stakeholders
One major argument that derives from literature review is that we need to listen both to academics and practitioners. After all, much of the development of place branding came as a result of the practice itself (Kavaratzis, 2017, p. 95). Practitioners seem not to be very much engaged with academic work, at least in the domain of place branding. And this needs to change for the sake of the field. An interesting argument, also deriving from Kavaratzis's report (2015) is about finding better ways to present relative academic work to place branding practitioners. At the same time, theoretical work needs to take a more strategic turn, so it can be implemented and therefore appealing to practitioners. But practitioners need to do some more work in order to ameliorate their cooperation with local authorities and better identify their needs.

Apart from the distance between academics and practitioners, more attention needs to be given to the distance between professionals like those two groups and other stakeholder types. Stakeholders including citizens, local government, local entrepreneurs and visitors, play a central role in the development of place branding and thus their point of view should be a more critical determinant of any place branding strategy. Contemporary place branding needs to bright more to the spotlight local citizens because places are arguably first and foremost about the people who live there, and the social relations that exist in those places (Stubbs and Warnaby, 2015). After many years of being the bone of contention public discussion, place branding has earned an ethical sanction: it now seems uncontroversial to state that making a place better for those who live there - or helping a place become the best it can be in this competitive world - is the true moral purpose behind place branding (Hildreth, 2010, p. 27).

(b) Place branding and islandness

Islands had long been considered and treated in terms of public policies as places in need of saving, as places that must be improved and brought to dominant continental standards. Baldacchino (2010b, p. 374) argues that "islands are now, unwittingly, the objects of what may be the most lavish, global and consistent branding exercise in human history. " But yet, even a decade after this statement, we still haven't reached a common agreement to an establishment of a specific term like "island branding". So, it's high time we study islands on their own terms and islands can learn from one another.

However unfamiliar someone might be with the term islandness in the framework of place branding, places as brands is a story that dates very back in time. "Islands can be considered as prototypes, targets for some
of the earliest systematic attempts at branding: advancing, and romancing, a meaningful and desirable difference in a world crowded by competitive categories (Martin, 1989, p. 201). Baldacchino and Khamis (2018, p. 371) argue that indeed "islands have been 'branded' long before the concept found its way into management schools and contemporary marketing discourse."

However, by looking closer into bibliography we cannot find any clear and unanimously accepted established term of island branding! Baldacchino (2010a) talks about island branding in an attempt to highlight that building an island brand is quite significant for local development and for the reinforcement of island living and local products as a strategic choice. Indeed, place branding plays an even more crucial role when it ends up to a strong and unique strategy, by contributing to strengthening their economic development and by reducing both ambiguity and confusion in the market (Baldacchino, 2010b).

(c) Hankinson's model: where is the domain heading?

Based on both Hankinson's model and a more holistic literature review two very significant arguments arise. Firstly, city branding has been a very preferable topic for research. However, not all places are cities and share various differentiated features, we need to reflect on testing and generalizing some arguments, theories and models on other cases like towns, villages, islands and various spatial territories.

Rehan et al. (2019) drawing on arguments based on "CEOs for cities" document pinpoint five reasons why place branding is a preferable framework to follow for the establishment of an urban strategy. These include (a) the need for transforming a bad image to a better one, (b) the need to have a vision for community development, (c) forming a strong representation for the city, (d) the promotion of local competitive advantages at all spatial levels and (e) re-examining and bringing the focus on the ideal capabilities of a place. But one question to raise is why limit these reasons to city branding and not discuss them on the scale of a small town, a village an even an island?

Secondly, place branding processes need to become more participatory, and this can be achieved if we incorporate more novel understanding about the formation of a place brand and how this might be influenced by destinations (Kavaratzis, 2017). We shall not ignore any longer the huge role residents play in place branding processes, a theme that it is quite often reportedly left underresearched (Braun et. al., 2013). Maybe it is high time we examined the implementation of a bottom-up procedure with more participatory elements because the focus should
now be on how to make locals and visitors own the place brand. And the way to achieve it is through their active participation in the place branding process on the basis of a shared vision of what constitutes a place's potential for development (Kavaratzis, 2017).

(d)New era for destination management, tourism growth, and places

Tourism is indeed one of the most important and rapidly developing economic activities the past decades especially for Greece's numerous small and medium-sized inhabited islands. For the majority, tourism has influenced their economic conditions but also had numerous social, demographic and environmental impacts (Spilanis and Vayanni, 2003) and is extremely important for local endogenous development that builds on competitiveness from local resources and local participation (Karampela et al., 2016). But local resources and local participation differ from place to place, thus creating destinations with distinct features and competitiveness ending up in totally different tourism growth at least at a local level.

Overtourism is one other phenomenon closely related to place management and it can be defined as "the impact of tourism on a destination, of parts thereof, that excessively influences perceived quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitors in a negative way" (UNWTO, 2018, p. 4). Overtourism brings to the top of the discussion the significance of local residents and the preservation of local culture and lifestyle because it actually poses a threat both for places and their residents in cases like Barcelona and Santorini. Freire (2005, p. 358) argues that tourism, if supported by branding, can actually be a helpful tool for people to be able to preserve local cultures but also to make use of all the positive amenities the modern world can provide, like healthcare, education, security and stability. Moreover, implementation of branding philosophy in places can lead to increased communities' self-esteem by creating the relevant awareness that their local environment is unique, precious and should be preserved.

Increasing research demonstrates that the rise of sharing economy and especially of platforms like Airbnb do pose great challenges for places especially when linked to phenomena like overtourism. According to Kavaratzis (2017) in cases certain places are considered also as destinations, such tendencies challenge established understandings of how destination brands form and might be influenced. A recent paper of Balampanidis et al. (2019, p. 2) argues that Airbnb constitutes a major transformative force, with an important impact on social and spatial relations in Athens. The informal practices related to Airbnb have social,
spatial and economic consequences and lead to ambiguous processes of urban regeneration and place making.

Therefore, today it goes without saying that nobody should speak about different development strategies without incorporating sustainability. Sustainability, is a concept that more or less, describes any attempt to balance and achieve environmental, social and economic objectives, but quite often during any relevant procedure this proves to be quite challenging or even not feasible because of the very diverging nature of its three pillars (Sarantakou and Terkenli, 2019). Given that sustainable development still remains under discussion as a concept and as a framework, we can underline three moral imperatives: satisfying human needs, ensuring social equality and respecting environmental limits (Holden et al., 2016).

Maheshwari et al. (2011) had identified that there was a significant gap regarding any exploration of a possible relation between place branding and sustainable development, apart from specific research project of Ashworth and Voogd (1988) and Walker's (2000). Baldacchino (2010a, p. 380) sets the questions straightforward by using islands as an example: "What does one do, however, if a particular island wants to be successful on both these fronts? Can one be both economically and ecologically successful, and be globally known for both?" A number of issues regarding sustainable development need to be addressed and place branding can aid towards that direction, such as the suitable geographical scale for action and the design and implementation of effective tools that will help achieve sustainability (Karampela et al., 2017). What if we attempt to generalize this question not only for islands but for other types of places?

According to Karatzoglou and Spilanis (2010, p. 27) tourism has sharply changed the land use patterns on the islands, damaged fragile coastal ecosystems and disturbed the littoral habitats. So, the political decisions about the development of local tourism can have a significant impact on the distribution of local resources. So, this increases the significance of the role and participation of local people when it comes to planning and financing tourism. Certain local institutions can have the power to influence decisions outside the community that can affect not only local development but their everyday lives. And this power is especially relevant, as Kotler et. al. (2002) argue for sustainable place development.

If there is a need to rethink tourism, then subsequently there is also the need to rethink place branding because it puts pressure on destinations globally and locally. Achieving sustainability has become more that a
buzz phrase; it has become a necessity which needs to be included as a pillar to every strategic procedure. According to Freire (2005, p. 350) tourism has indeed undergone deep transformations due to the new movements in society and this has also affected both tourism behavior and the way we view places we visit. Based on the argument that post-modern tourism engages with the concept of a semiotic society, Freire (2005, p. 355) concludes that tourism destinations help people to better express who they are. Therefore, tourism destinations are more than a place; they have a more advanced significance that urges us to think that they have more similarities with typical consumer products and that is why they need to be managed as brands.

4. Conclusions

It is not only possible to implement theories of traditional branding to places, but it should be desirable (Freire, 2005) as we move towards more challenging eras. We must not forget that one classical argument is that from a consumer’s perspective, a place will always have a meaning (however not the same for all), even if it is no managed with a strategy based on the concept of place branding ideas (Freire, 2005).

Has place branding gone "beyond logos and slogans"? Several scholars argue that the field remains stagnant and attached to that operation alone (see Munar, 2011; Oliveira and Panyik, 2015). We need to rethink place branding and all place audiences to go beyond "I love Amsterdam" place branding campaigns. What once seemed to be a success, does not mean that it still remains the proper path to be followed.

Research evidence needs to be collected internationally about place branding debates, theories, models and concepts involved and especially who it is implemented by professionals in various typologies of places and regions which range from the management of retail and business districts to smart city pilot zones, historic town centers, tourism destinations and so on (de Noronha et al., 2017).

We need to go beyond our comfort zones. Place branding has no horizontal solutions for all places. For example, islands need different place branding procedures and strategies than mainland regions and it is even harder to use best practices from one place to another. It is not yet universally accepted that islands need to be studied on their own terms and that this awareness will have an impact on place branding too. Given that islands do not behave as their continental proximate regions (Pons and Rullan, 2014) a major challenge emerges regarding
the integration of isolated island economies into more internationalized economic models (Baldacchino, 2004, pp. 272 - 273).

Contemporary place branding will bring again the citizen in the core of relevant strategies. As mentioned above, one of the most common misconceptions about place branding, is being treated merely as a promotion mechanism which uses logos and slogans that represent some extraordinary places. Contemporary place branding needs to challenge this misconception by proposing an alternative view that will capture the ways in which place brands operate. Researchers need to go beyond external meanings of the place brand and align these with internal meanings of the locality, especially as experienced and lived by the place's residents and other stakeholders.

What climate change, overtourism and other types of pressure have in common in relation to place branding? They all play a significant role in place management and therefore they cannot be ignored as frameworks that need to be taken into consideration when discussing contemporary place branding theory. It is rather alarming that according to Dr. Jack Spengler, Yakira Yamagucki, Professor of Environmental Health and Human Habitation at the Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health "Tourism management seems to be entirely focused on promoting businesses. It is so tied to commercial and tax interest that the focus is less on how to manage the destination and more on how to develop destinations for commercial interests. Government ministries lack the full set of professional tools they need to make use of measures that can equalize the playing field and protect vital resources and human health and well-being" (Epler Wood et al., 2019, p. 8). So, is it possible to use theories and tools of place branding to change this negative ascertainment? Therefore, managing places has become even more complex because they face contemporary economic, social and environmental issues that require stakeholders to rethink their current practices and look for innovative solutions (UNWTO, 2018).

The focus should not only limit on cities and urban environment. We need to explore more the link between Nissology and place branding. Global tourism growth and islands being on the spotlight as destinations, highlights the need to set the public discussion on a different basis more oriented to sustainable development. In fact, "islands and archipelagos pose unique challenges for tourism policy. While tourism development in islands is well studied, little attention has been given to archipelagos and their special challenges" (Bardolet and Sheldon, 2008, p. 900). Islands are a certain type of geographies with distinct features and circumstances and need to be analyzed on their own terms. Tourism planners need to have a better understanding of
their particularities before deciding on which strategy mix, they will follow (Zhang, 2010).

The present paper can serve as a basis and a tool for future research because it urges researchers on reflecting on research gaps concerning place branding like (a) the reasons why more research and specification is needed concerning the field, (b) the adoption of cross-sectoral approaches, (c) how place branding can operate in other frameworks like sustainable development and islandness and (d) ways to close the distance between various stakeholders

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to research the transformations in the perception of the identity of the concept of topos through the prism of landscape. This is proposed through the re-evaluation and study of the way that landscape is designed and appreciated from ancient times to nowadays.

Historically the reception of topos is constituted around formations that are either geological or constructed. From the conception of the landscape as a pagan field to the landscape as leisure its identity is informed by the design of space and the control of the way we sensorially identify space subjectively. This perception is related to the use of artifacts that mediate the lived experience and augment design by animating it.

Fundamentally the way that we move in space predetermines our reception both of the notion of topos and that of the physical landscape. Myths as narratives discipline the way we view the role of nature and our standpoint against what is a natural setting or a landscape. This construct with the advancement of commerce and mobility created the need for arranged spaces with scenic natural qualities combined with myths that imitated the wild landscapes. The transition from gardens to parks emerged with the insertion of decorated constructions that materialized the philosophical and political ideas about the role of the landscape that aestheticized the scenic as picturesque around the 19th century. Modernism finally instrumentalized and mechanized both the understanding and the representation of the landscape by reinserting the means of production in the reign of the city.

Nowadays with the advent of personalized digital technologies of navigation and connection between users the reception of the landscape and the notion of topos is informed constantly in multiple ways. The identity of topos is created through series of events that embed the landscape in a real time logic. Our point is that this new identity of top(i)o (landscape plus topos) that emerges is open to an organizational narrative that reinserts elements of communal mythmaking in the instrumentalization of landscape that survives modernism.
This new condition at first seems to be bottom-up and collective even though it seems to be streamed through specific popular internet based diodes (youtube, facebook and twitter mostly). Following this stream of thought the design of top(i)o should be able to activate those elements / qualities of the landscape that are site specific and that could be enhanced with these new data that refer to;

- The way that the identity of topos is re-territorialized through the use of technology (the example of trending places). Examples of situated events will be presented.

- New design typologies that mediate the experience of the landscape both in a personalized and a collective level (hypotheses of new functionalistic landscape hybrids). Contemporary international examples of this logic will be analyzed and categorized along with two top(i)a case studies that aether:arch proposed for the Diachronic museum of Larissa and the Katrana site at the municipality of Farsala.

**Keywords:** landscape design, myth, place branding, cultural heritage, city branding
ANALYZING THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL HERITAGE ON THE PLACE BRAND IDENTITY: THE CASE OF BUDAPEST

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Abstract

According to the recent research directions in place branding and marketing, the sense of place and people of the place should be recognized as the central elements in branding activities (Campelo et al., 2014). It should be mentioned that recent research in the field have not covered social practices and rituals in urban environments. Moreover, as the area of Budapest is renowned for its traditional spa and bath culture from the ancient Roman times it would be reasonable to investigate how this wellness related traditional practice forms the current identity and how it is reflected in the city brand. According to Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) it is important that stakeholders collectively create and negotiate a place brand. They also suggest revisiting and redefining a brand vision as a stimulus for a place brand construction dialogue. Similarly, according to Braun et al. (2018) there is a need for a better identity-image match which indicates that the place brand is more realistic for internal and external stakeholders. To fulfil this research gap, current study attempts to define the negotiated identity of Budapest. The study particularly examines the perspectives of Budapest’s three stakeholder groups, namely wellness tourism business, locals, and foreigners. The main research questions are: What is the common vision of different wellness tourism stakeholders concerning the current place brand identity of Budapest? How is the current identity of Budapest represented in branding activities by public authorities and business? As the main objective was understanding a certain phenomenon, author chose an inductive approach. The case study elaborates on the perspectives of Budapest’s locals particularly analysing data gathered from opinion leaders – urban bloggers, bottom-up urban sustainability initiators, as well as wellness business representatives through interviews, and analysing of the online content generated on TripAdvisor by foreigners. This will contribute to triangulation and as a result, will increase validity. Author argues that understanding the experiences of mentioned stakeholders from wellness point of view will clarify the role of place culture in the city brand, which eventually will inform possible developments for the formation of a sustainable Budapest brand.

Key words: city branding, well-being, place identity, sustainable tourism, Budapest
LEARNING FROM PREVEZA: SUSTAINABLE STRATEGIES REDESIGNING A COMMUNITY’S HERITAGE

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“Nowadays people know the price of everything and the value of nothing.”

Oscar Wilde, The Picture of Dorian Gray

Cultural Heritage is a complex concept, constantly evolving through time, and combining historical, cultural, aesthetic, symbolic, spiritual, but also economic, social and political dimensions. It is both tangible and intangible. It is much more than preserving, excavating, displaying, or restoring a collection of old things. Furthermore, cultural heritage is today considered an activity with far-reaching economic and social impact. Whilst it is a part of the historical past, it is an element of the living present, as well as a constituent of the future to be created. It should be the subject of public reflection and debate on what is worth saving, what priorities should be put on preservation and what the economic effects of heritage activities are. Cultural heritage can operate as a platform for local recognition, as a medium for intercultural dialogue, as a means of aesthetic reflection, and as a generator of sustainable development; it is a component of urban and regional planning, a factor of economic development at regional and local level, a generator of identity and branding for places and a viable basis for a new generation of tourism investments.

Aiming at testing new design pedagogies that could answer to the priorities and challenges presented by the above, 3rd year Urban Design students at the Department of Architecture of the University of Ioannina participated in a six months research lab aiming at providing with documented as well as innovative strategies for San Andrea Venetian Fortress of the historic city of Preveza, in Epirus, Greece. The main difficulty faced was how to train young designers to define the "why?" together with the "how?" and the "what?"; in short, to use their design thinking as an innovative strategic tool. The paper intends to contribute to the much needed discussion regarding the reorientation of heritage.
and cultural studies in general, in the light of the new strategic objectives looking at sustainable development and cultural heritage as assets for place branding. Based on the interdisciplinary nature of the topic, the authors will emphasize the application of SWOT analysis in architectural and urban design and show how this sort of ‘evaluation’ thinking operated in the black box epistemological environment of design pedagogies. Defining the value of heritage, both the one at hand and the future one, may be the most critical procedure entailed in branding and developing sustainably a culture, a society and a place.

**Keywords:** strategic design, cultural heritage, sustainability, design pedagogies
AUDIOVISUAL REPRESENTATIONS OF THE CITY:
SPACE CONCEPTION MODELS AND PLACE NARRATION
STRATEGIES

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Abstract

This text presents the basic concept, the aims and the outcomes of the elective course ‘Audiovisual representations of the city’ as part of the undergraduate program of the Department of Architecture, University of Thessaly, in Volos, Greece. In the period 2003-2018, a data base of about 150 short films, documenting different aspects of Volos urban life, has been created. The course is inscribed in the overall aim of the Department’s program to enlarge the field of architecture and design as well as to explore their relationship to theory, art, technology of representations and construction through interdisciplinary perspectives.

The course’s fundamental methodology focuses on understanding the interconnection and interpenetration of spatial audiovisual syntax with spatial perception models. From Renaissance to the digital era, basic space conception models could be defined as follows: a) The frontal contemplation of the Renaissance observer, b) The city perspective view (veduta), c) Aerial views and maps, d), the Section e) The panoramic view of the 19th century Panorama buildings, f) Isometric representation, g) Collage, as the abolition of the privileged observation point, and h) Walking as a fragmented space experience by a mobile viewer. On the other hand, cinematic syntax is based on the plan, sequence and scene construction while audiovisual language diegetic codification has been standardised with cut, fade and dissolve effects.

The course elaborates the architect’s engagement with audiovisual language in narrative as well as in aesthetic level. It advances the theoretical understanding of the cinematic narration incorporating cross-disciplinary knowledge. We believe that one can find a dialectic relation between space conception models and the moving image (television, cinema, animation, digital image) codification. Students are encouraged to investigate all types of audiovisual genres (documentary, essays, experimental film, video art, etc.) in a personal approach of the city of Volos identity, history and heritage. Place-narrating becomes place-making, a vehicle of mapping the self in the urban text and texture. The short films produced in the course’s framework constitute cartographies “from below” that invite us to know the urban space as a multi-layered, multi-voiced and multi-authored inhabited nexus of changing landscapes. They are presented in the data base by key words.
related to the creator, the genre and the place. The filmed material has been developed and elaborated with the support of Lecad Laboratory (http://lecad.arch.uth.gr/en).

**Keywords:** audiovisual language, space conception, space narration, place narration, urban identity
European Capital of Culture (ECoC) 2020 - 2033:
Improving Concepts, Methods and Guidelines
for the ECoC - Candidacy Preparation and Ex-ante & Ex-post Evaluation

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Abstract

European Capital of Culture (ECoC) institution is entering its new cycle 2020 – 2033 under the Decision No 445/2014/EU, which is used as a basis for the EU cities preparation and evaluation. Although the spatial dimension is all the more necessary, in order candidate cities to face a series of difficult contemporary problems, directly or indirectly related to the ECoC institution, the Decision almost eliminates this crucial component from its criteria for successful candidatures and the ECoC application. The paper aspires to bring the spatial component of the ECoC program back and centre-stage, a) by describing a series of general principles / guidelines regarding some crucial aspects of spatial development and b) by founding epistemologically the spatial, qualitative attributes of ‘urban spatial identity’ and ‘eurocal spatial identity’, two concepts relating culture and the city, as well as EU and local cultural - and – spatial development. All three urban scales are employed (town planning, urban design and architecture) and articulated to the aggregate and new urban and specific cultural infrastructure, in order to creatively achieve the best out of the city’s spatial structure, cultural infrastructure and potential for spatio-cultural development. An exhausted series of recommendations in each unit - spatial scale is proposed as a step-by-step method for the candidate ECoC preparation and its ‘ex ante’ and ‘ex post’ evaluation. Thessaloniki – ECoC 1997 is employed as a case study.

Keywords: European Capital of Culture (ECoC), urban spatial identity, ECoC evaluation

A. Introduction

European Capital of Culture (ECoC) has grown in scope and size to become one of the most prestigious and high-profile cultural actions in Europe and the most popular institution in the field of culture in the European Union. Over the years, the initiative has had a great impact on the cities’ long-term cultural, social, economic and environmental development. As a consequence, ECoCs are recognized all the more as laboratories of long-term strategic development in the regional and local
scale, entering as candidate cities in a fierce competition in each EU country.

Admittedly, ECoC planning is a complex process [Evans in J. Monclús and M. Guàrdia (eds), 2006:197-214], where there are employed strategies and methods close to city branding, since EU Decisions for the ECoC institution are promoting all the more the non-spatial dimension, at the expense of the spatial one. On the other hand, spatial structure is one, perhaps the most powerful, aspect of place identity. According the Karavatzis & Hatch, ‘better understanding of the relationship between place identity and place brands advances the theory of place branding’ (Karavatzis & Hatch, 2013: 69-86). The role of the spatial structure of the cities and their potential through their (re-) design, in order to fulfill the initial goal of the ECoC, that of revealing both the European and local cultural identity, could be an essential prerequisite for the success of the Action, since ‘conciliating good design with place branding might be the key for heading towards more attractive, livable and fulfilling places (Aboulkheir, 2019). Also, according to Martinez, ‘in the era of advertisement saturation, culture, as a result of complex legacies and relationships, is more credible as depository of the values of authenticity, creativity, tolerance and the arts. The city’s identity has to be explored and history, beliefs, values and culture have to be recognized’ (Martinez, 2011).

The author’s argument is that, in order the ECoCs to fulfill their initial scope that is to contribute through culture to the EU countries’ integration, there is a need to creatively interweave the non-spatial with the spatial component of their ECoC planning, as well their ex-ante and ex-post evaluation. The paper attempts to clarify the relationship between the ECoC’s spatial structure and its most complex, qualitative attribute of ‘urban spatial identity’ on the one hand, and on the other to relate it to the ECoC spatial planning, as well as its ex-ante and ex-post evaluation, according to a set of criteria, proposed for the whole spectrum of spatial scales (city-wide, urban, architectural). This process also agrees with The Place Brand Observer, which proposes five principles for successful brand development and management: (1) distinctiveness (identity or sense of place), (2) authenticity, (3) memorable, (4) co-creation and (5) place-making (especially with principles 1 and 5, Place Brand Observer, 2015). Furthermore, I argue that urban spatial identity has to be the outcome of the city’s ‘deep spatial structure’ objective knowledge and not merely an aggregate of cultural events, cultural heritage promotion or emblematic buildings erection (Riza, Doratli and Fasli, 2011).
B. The ECoC institution: EU Decisions, Evolution and Prospects

The criteria / objectives of the EU Action, with respect to the ECoC institution, are issued periodically and modified, in order to adapt in both, the evolution of the EU general and cultural policies as well as the experience gained from the ECoC application.

The general criteria / objectives of the Action for the period 2007 – 2019 were divided into two areas, ‘the European dimension’ and ‘City and citizens’ (Decision No 1622/2006/EC):

«1. As regards ‘the European Dimension’, the ECoC project should:
(a) foster cooperation between cultural operators, artists and cities from the relevant Member States and other Member States in any cultural sector;
(b) highlight the richness of cultural diversity in Europe;
(c) bring the common aspects of European cultures to the fore.
»2. As regards ‘City and Citizens’, the project should:
(a) foster the participation of the citizens living in the city and its surroundings and raise their interest as well as the interest of citizens from abroad;
(b) be sustainable and be an integral part of the long-term cultural and social development of the city».

Regarding the spatial component, it is indirectly referred only in the article (4), 2. b: ‘Be sustainable and be an integral part of the long-term cultural and social development of the city’.

For the period 2020 – 2033 (Decision No 445/2014/EU, ‘The Decision’), the general objectives are:

1. (a) to safeguard and promote the diversity of cultures in Europe and to highlight the common features they share as well as to increase citizens’ sense of belonging to a common cultural area;
   (b) to foster the contribution of culture to the long-term development of cities in accordance with their respective strategies and priorities.

2. The specific objectives of the Action are:
   (a) to enhance the range, diversity and European dimension of the cultural offering in cities, including transnational cooperation;
   (b) to widen access to and participation in culture;
(c) to strengthen the capacity of the cultural sector and its links with other sectors;

(d) to raise the international profile of the cities through culture.

Regarding the spatial development of the city, there is a reference in article 5, 4b, where it is stated that ‘the candidate city has or will have an adequate and viable infrastructure to hold the title’, also stated as one of the operational objectives, referred as ‘improve cultural infrastructure’. Thus, the Decision has diminished the contribution of urban design and architecture to the ECoC planning and evaluation, as compared to the Decision No 1419/1999/EC, where it was asked from candidate cities ‘to exploit the historic heritage, urban architecture and quality of life in the city’ [article (3), last paragraph]. This criterion had given the opportunity to the candidate cities to review their existing urban development plans, even prepare new ones, as well as elaborate new spatial projects in both urban and architectural scales, in order to adequately host the event, through the rehabilitation of existing buildings or the erection of new ones, the upgrading of their public space etc.

This diminished goal set by the EU, regarding the contribution of the spatial dimension of development in the preparation and evaluation of the ECoC accolade, is reflected in its guidelines for the cities’ own evaluations of the ECoC results.54 As part of this new obligation, cities bidding for the title have to indicate in their application the plans for monitoring and evaluating the impact of the title on themselves, as well as for disseminating the results of the evaluation.

More precisely, Article 16 of the Decision defines the cities’ and the Commission’s responsibilities and obligations as follows:

«1. – Each city concerned shall be responsible for the evaluation of the results of its year as European Capital of Culture. – The Commission shall establish common guidelines and indicators for the cities concerned based on the objectives and the criteria [of the ECOC action] in order to ensure a coherent approach to the evaluation procedure.

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»2. In addition to the cities’ evaluations, the Commission shall ensure that external and independent evaluations of the results of the action are produced on a regular basis. ...... Those evaluations shall include an assessment of the action as a whole, including the efficiency of the

54 EU European Capitals of Culture (ECoC), (2020 – 2033). Guidelines for the cities’ own evaluations of the results of each ECoC [online], available at https://www.kul.ee/sites/kulminn/files/european_commission.pdf [accessed 04/06/2019].
processes involved in running it, its impact and how it could be improved.

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»The benefit of such a decision lies in the setting of some structured common indicators to use, as well as common guidelines in the form of a list of questions cities should ask themselves when deciding to bid as an ECoC and planning their evaluation procedures. These indicators correspond to the general and specific objectives of the ECoC action as laid down in the Decision and they are also based on the criteria laid down in the Decision for the assessment of the applications of the cities bidding for the ECoC title».

As stated in the Decision, cities are invited to define any additional indicators informed by their own context, priorities and activities for the ECoC year and reflecting their own performance targets. All indicators have to be consistent with SMART principles (i.e., be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and timed).

In the table (2) of the Decision, an overview of the ECoC objectives and criteria with corresponding indicative common indicators and possible sources of data collection are unfolded. The spatial dimension is referred as a sub-category in the Specific objective (3), ‘to strengthen the capacity of the cultural sector and its links with other sectors’ and as an indicative indicator ‘€ value of investment in cultural infrastructure and facilities’. But even this limited reference to the spatial dimension of the ECoC does not refer to any qualitative attribute of the city’s spatial structure. This indicator is recognized as one of long-term sustainability, while admitting that it is difficult to distinguish the ECoC budget from the city’s general one. In a few words, the city’s spatial structure / cultural infrastructure is limited to an economic indicator of spending for the ECoC infrastructure.

C. Spatial key – Policies: the Missing Component

C.1. General Guidelines

The contribution of spatial policies in the success of ECoC preparation is proposed to be set within the broader post-modern paradigm for the mode of European cities development in the era of globalization. This paradigm focuses on the prevailing relationship between culture and the city (‘soft’ and ‘hard’ infrastructure correspondingly), that is introduction of urban planning and design in cultural planning processes and vice versa.
According to the author’s PhD research (Paparis, 2011), the relationship between culture and the city, as a spatial entity, has to be enriched by new themes, especially regarding urban public space: a) inter-culturalism, b) regeneration and re-vitalization, c) alternative forms of communication and social contact in a dynamic relationship with more conventional urban spatial typologies, d) spatial syntactic identity, coming out of the proposed extension of Space Syntax Analysis and e) spatial implementation of the proposed concept of ‘euro-local’ spatial
identity. All these themes presuppose the open public space as the prevailing binding element of the ECoC program and the city as a spatial entity. There are proposed some of its qualitative attributes:

1. Designing of urban public space in order to host a variety of uses, including the unpredictable ones: the city is conceived as the locus classicus of non-conventional realities, as the par excellence urban space for the implementation and promotion of essential human rights and inter-culturalism;

2. Re-vitalization of urban public space and its formation as a place for free expression and creativity, social participation and contact, a meeting point of social and cultural activities and events, but also of collective and democratic - traditional and contemporary – processes;

3. Reviewing of the role of public space, so that to synthesize creatively both, the ‘ante-electronic’ attributes of urbanity and intelligibility with the development of electronic ‘nodes’ between the global / European and the local scales (spatial and non-spatial);

4. Through the extension of Space Syntax theory, Urban Spatial Identity, as the most complex and precious qualitative attribute, is proposed to come out of the spatial coincidences of two (spatial) networks - cores: the Urbanity / Movement Interface core (MI) and the Intelligibility core (I). Urbanity / Movement Interface core is proposed to come out of the spatial coincidences of the General Integration (Rn) and Local Integration cores (R3), while the Intelligibility core is proposed to come out of the spatial coincidences of the General Integration (Rn) and Connectivity (Con). Movement Interface and Intelligibility are two syntactic concepts clarified by the author through Space Syntax theory, developed in the Advanced Architectural Studies (AAS) of University College London (UCL), whereas Urban Spatial Identity is proposed by the author as a new analyzable concept, able to epistemologically approach the qualitative spatial attributes of the urban public space (Fig. 1).

55 In Europe there are referred significant examples, such as the Festival of Lyon (le Défilé) and Brussels, (Zinneke Parade), the celebrations for the Chinese New Year, the Network Artfactories etc. UNESCO, Division of Cultural Policies and Intercultural Dialogue & Institute for Culture, (2006). Local Policies for Cultural Diversity, Barcelona: Barcelona City Council, pp. 23-24.

56 Urban Spatial Identity, as proposed by the author in the context of Space Syntax theory extension, has to be distinguished from ‘place’ identity within the context of place branding theory. Urban spatial identity, as an objective concept based on the city’s physical structure differs from ‘place identity’, since the latter is described as ‘the desired, ideal image of the brand, representing the most favorable image for the owners or managers of the brand. Best Place – European Place Marketing Institute, ‘Place Branding’ [online], available at http://www.bestplaceinstytut.org/en/tozsamosc-marki [accessed 02/10/2019].
5. Urban Spatial Identity of the European city – ECoC has to be multiple, as it is the political identity of the European citizens (Grossberg, 1996: 87-107). The term ‘Eurocal spatial identity’ is proposed in order to express spatially the central prerequisite / criterion for the ECoCs success, which is the synthesis of the European with the local (spatial) culture. This proposal aspires also to face the increasing trend of weakening, according to some researchers, of the national / regional identity against the European one (King, 1993, Castells, 1993, Hall 1995, Graham 1998).

The following guidelines are proposed for the preparation, ex-ante and ex-post evaluation of the ECoCs, regarding their spatial dimension:

C.2. ECoC and the City

* Exploiting of EU policies, such as the ‘compact city’ [Jenks, Burton and Williams: 2002 and EU 2007 / 2190 (INI) A6-0028/2008], concepts to be engaged by priority (i.e., democracy, sustainability, resilience etc. Parkinson: 2006), as well as relevant institutions [i.e., ECTP: 1998, Bussadori (ed): 2003];


* Articulating of the specific ECoC spatial program to the city’s development plans, down to the local ones, including all the spectrum of urban design concepts, methods and techniques (i.e., pedestrian routes, bicycle routes, cultural itineraries etc.);

* Adopting of a poly-centric spatial model of urban organization, de-congesting the metropolitan centre and emphasizing the decentralization of cultural infrastructure in the suburban districts and neighborhoods, the degraded and ‘no go’ areas; developing urban regeneration projects [Broomfield and Bianchini in Stevenson (ed.), 2001:99-124];

* Initiating a holistic planning and design approach for the historic center(s) and neighborhoods; prioritizing cultural spatial heritage preservation and integration in the overall city’s spatial development;

* Exploiting the introduced concepts of ‘urban spatial identity’ and ‘eurocal spatial identity’ in metropolitan and urban scales, a concept achievable through spatial syntactic analysis and synthesis with development and local plans (Paparis, 2011).

C.3. ECoC and Urban Design

* Critically engaging and elaborating new concepts, emerging in the post-modern era, such as ‘heterotopia’ [Dehaene and Canter, de (eds), 2008], ‘commercialization of public space’ (Krupa, 1993), inflation in creating ‘transitional’ or ‘liminal’ spaces (Zukin, 1993: 25-54), ‘collective culture’ (Amin, 2008:6–24, Sepe, 2009), ‘cultural planning’ (Landry, 2003);


* Integrating official texts of EU and the Council of Europe, relating cultural planning and urban design (EU Working Group, 2004); relating planning of new urban interventions with pre-existing urban morphology;

* Mapping out of the available cultural urban and architectural infrastructure and setting up a program of their upgrading, starting from the city’s needs for open-air and closed cultural infrastructure, social services and green areas. Evidence – based researches and inspired design projects in all spatial scales, constituting a credible guide for relevant decision-making processes (Briata, 2007);

* Functional, structural and morphological integration of the proposed New Urban and Architectural Interventions [N (U + A) I] to the broader urban context;58

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* Developing synergies with other institutions of the city, aiming at the formation of an integrated plan of urban upgrading i.e., of the city – centre [Bianchini and Giraldi in Bell and Jayne (eds), 2004: 238-248, Landry and Matarasso, 1996, Bengs, 2004]. Special care during the creation of ‘cultural quarters’ promising cultural decentralization, but not risking to be transformed to ‘cultural zoning’;\(^{59}\)

* Softening of the negative impact of modern and post-modern urban design in areas of ‘cultural zoning’ [Zukin in M. Carmona and St. Tiesdell, (eds), 2007: 130 – 137];

* Exploiting urban public spaces as a ‘vehicle’ for greater democratization of the ECoC institution [Francis in Vernez-Moudon (ed.), 1987:23-39], where ‘public participation is immediate and spontaneous’ (Zukin, 2002:325-334), creating thus state-of-the-art public spaces with attributes of collective memory, co-presence and urbanity in a (possible) context of inter-culturalism. The network of open public spaces, the closed cultural spaces, the spaces of social services and every-day contact (spaces of ‘conviviality’) are the spaces with the largest numbers of intercultural contacts (Landry, Wood and Broomfield, 2006);

* Adaptation to the changes of public-space typologies, including the homeless and marginalized people (Brill, 1989:24-31);

* Spatial syntactic analysis of the whole urban structure on the basis of Space Syntax Theory and its proposed extension (Paparis, 2011);


* Multi-facetted inclusivity (economic, social, cultural and environmental, Akkar, 2004) and extended public consultation;\(^{60}\)

* Critical interweaving of the network of open public spaces and the new urban and architectural interventions, providing, thus, the whole urban structure with a noticeable added value. Special care has to be taken for the creation of spatial relationships among the syntactic properties, i.e., urban spatial identity and cultural infrastructure and itineraries;

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\(^{59}\) For an analogous, holistic review of the relationship between culture and urban regeneration, see also Department of Culture, Media and Sport (2004). *Culture at the Heart of Regeneration*, London: DCMS.

\(^{60}\) i.e., the technique ‘placecheck’, referring to an integrated questionnaire, [www.placecheck.info](http://www.placecheck.info).
* Revealing of the ECoC accolade as a role-model for the creation of urban and architectural projects; the ECoC as a centre of discussion by the international community of intellectuals, architects, town and cultural planners and urban designers. Urban-design competitions are of a crucial importance for the success of the ECoC institution;

* Critical adoption of additional methods for the ex-ante and ex-post evaluation of the whole ECoC process (Wood and Landry, 2008: 294-313), enriching them with the proposed new concepts and methods, as well as the city’s specificities;

C.4. ECoC and Urban Spatial Identity

* Relating ECoC planning program with the current local and subject plans of the candidate city.

* Syntactic analysis of the whole network of public spaces on the basis of Urban Morphology, as defined in the context of Space Syntax methodology, as well as the interrelated concepts, clarified by the author (movement interface / urbanity, intelligibility, syntactic identity, Paparis, 2011:77-97, Maps 1, 2 & 3);

* Articulating of the European with national / local spatial identity, in full compliance with the expressed general goal of the ECoC institution of synthesizing the European with the local identity;

* Articulating of the Urban and Architectural (U + A) Interventions Program with the results of the Syntactic Analysis, especially with the Spatial Identity and reversely, exploiting of syntactic-analysis findings for the programming and allocation of the New (U + A) Interventions;

Map 1: Global Integration map of Thessaloniki - ECoC1997

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61 This approach can be compared to the city branding of Thessaloniki – ECoC 1997, where three criteria were proposed to be taken into account: ‘centre of cultures’, ‘quality of life’ and ‘location’ The city’s spatial component was exhausted in punctual references, such as the White Tower, the OTE tower etc. Νικοπούλου – Προέδρου, Ε. and Χέλμης, Χρ. (2002). Branding Destinations: Η σημασία της Ενιαίας Ταυτότητας Επικοινωνίας και η Μεθοδολογία για την Οικοδόμησή της [online], available at https://www.citybranding.gr/2012/04/branding-destinations-h.html [accessed 02.09.2019].
* Special emphasis on the Identity core and its articulation with the (U + A) Interventions, especially of the proposed new cultural installations and itineraries, preferably in the form of spatial continuities, with the aim of integrating some of the most culturally and spatially representative spaces of the city;

* Re-design and upgrading, wherever possible, of the points of highest Syntactic Identity values, equivalent to the upgrading of the city’s most representative public spaces; probable connection of them with the physical and artificial ‘landmarks’; avoiding the creation of new ‘images of power’, but instead, creating a complex and multivalent urban space, reflecting the local / national and European values;

* Investing in the major finding of the syntactic analysis, that ‘Cultural – and – Spatial Syntactic Identity’ is related more to the urban, than to the regional or / and architectural scale (s), prioritizing, thus, the urban-scale interventions;

* Optimizing of the ‘general cultural genotype’ or ‘cultural spatial pattern’, ensuing from the overall relational syntactic analysis with the Aggregate (U + A) Interventions, referring to the most significant urban and architectural attributes of the city, emphasizing, thus, their relationship to the city’s Syntactic Identity;

* Preserving and revealing of urban idiosyncrasies, in the form of a differentiated ‘phenotype’ of the EU urban spatial identity, able to support the argument for the great urban diversity in EU cities;

* Improving of the ‘new cultural genotype’ or ‘new cultural pattern’, ensuing from the spatial relationship between Aggregate Syntactic
Analysis with the New (U + A) Interventions, through its best articulation with the functional and structural attributes of the city and aiming at the ‘democratization’ of the institution;\textsuperscript{62}

\textit{Map 2: Spatial Syntactic Identity core (SI\textit{den}) of Thessaloniki - EC\textit{CoC}1997}

\textsuperscript{62}This may include the strengthening of the relationship with the statutory development and local plans, the decentralization of cultural activities and infrastructure toward the periphery, counterbalancing of the cultural infrastructure of ‘spiritual / academic’ character with those of ‘popular / participatory’ one in the centre and the periphery.
Map 3: The New Cultural Infrastructure of Thessaloniki - ECoC 1997

* Relating the Syntactic Identity core to other attributes of the public space (historicity, architectural morphology etc.) and the mode of public spaces usage (functional, ceremonial), in order to better approach the 3-dimensional ‘Spatial Cultural Identity’ and its integration to the city’s ECoC spatial program.

C.5. ECoC and Architecture

* Conducting an evidence-based research for the needs of the candidate city in architectural infrastructure, aiming at their sustainability after the ECoC Year; avoiding of extravagance and inflation in their numbers, size and budget;

* Exploiting the research findings and articulating them to the city’s specificities – creation of a strategic and unique spatial program covering simultaneously an accepted level of typological specialization; emphasis be laid on the relationship between cultural infrastructure and itineraries [C (I + I)] on the one hand and the findings of the syntactic analysis on the other;

* Systematic research of the relationship between the institution and the new architectural typologies in tourism, recreation etc., along with new socio-economic phenomena (cultural industries, knowledge industries etc.) and their sophisticated integration to the ECoC spatial program;

* Striking the balance between the two groups of cultural infrastructure, those from the ‘above’ and the others from the ‘bottom’ (culture with ‘C’
and ‘c’). Special emphasis on the cultural infrastructure from the ‘bottom’, enhancing, thus, the democratization of the institution;

* Exploiting of the syntactic properties of the candidate city and their relationship with C (I + I), in order to reflect ‘Eurocal spatial identity’; systematic interweaving of them in both architectural and urban scale(s);

* Exploiting of all cultural values of historic buildings or building complexes, aiming at their recuperation, revealing and integration to contemporary life; special emphasis be laid on the integration of the ‘new’ to the already existing cultural infrastructure and itineraries C (I + I), as well as their interrelationship through Space Syntax analysis findings;

* Exploiting of the possibility for the allocation in the peripheral municipalities of popular C (I + I), providing, thus, the possibility for their interconnectedness; Connecting C (I + I) with the Urbanity / Spatial Identity cores;

* Documented allocation of New Architectural Infrastructure, since it is known that major infrastructure of an architectural scale may prove beneficiary on the development of its broader catchment area, even on the city as a whole;64

* Creating preconditions, so that the most significant Cultural Infrastructure, existing and new, functions as a ‘landmark’ of the area and the city itself; avoiding the creation of ‘icon buildings’ of a doubtful utility after the ECoC Year or superficial landmarks (Evans, 2003: 425, Garcia, 2004: 321);65

* Equipping the city with educational buildings for culture (conference centers, libraries etc.), as well as installations facilitating the gathering, processing, storing, evaluating and transmitting of knowledge, circulating in local, European and world level (archives, innovation centers etc.); integrating techniques for ‘smart cities’;

63 Cultural infrastructure ‘from the above’: installations for spectacle / hearing, viewing and educational infrastructure for culture; cultural infrastructure ‘from the bottom’: installations or open public spaces for visiting, participation and social work.


65 Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, Spain, is utilized as a classical case of positive impact in the development of its broader urban area.
* Revealing architecture in general and the architecture of the new cultural buildings in particular, as a top-issue and innovation criterion of the ECoC implementation. Conducting international urban/architectural competitions according to the European procurement law, promoting, thus, international discourse on the European architecture and the city;

* Exploiting the existing athletic installations and creating new ones, since athletics – especially the massive participation ones – are an important expression of culture and contribute positively to the confrontation of catastrophic habits of the youth (criminality, drugs etc.).

**D. Conclusions and Recommendations**

ECoCs are entering their new circle 2020 - 2033 with insufficient armament regarding the necessary concepts, methods and guidelines for their preparation and their ex-ante and ex-post evaluation. The spatial component is very weak in the Decision No 445/2014/EU guiding the cities’ preparation and evaluation. ECoC branding has to be accompanied by the spatial component of the ECoC planning, in order to achieve better the EU goals. In a very versatile era, as it is our own, the ECoC institution has to critically incorporate the contemporary discourse for the holistic development of the European city. Candidate cities have to conceptualize the ECoC institution as the ‘once in a lifetime’ opportunity and possibility to enter the post-industrial era and exploit all its problematic, new concepts, methods, benefits and potentialities.

Within this context, there is a need to strike the balance between the non-spatial and the spatial component of the ECoC planning and evaluation. The proposed method of Space Syntax Analysis and its extension, unlocked the possibility of epistemologically analyzing and synthesizing the qualitative attributes of urban public space – the tool for the urban spatial identity - and relating them to the ECoC spatial program. It was proved that an emphasis has to be laid on the concepts of ‘public space’ and ‘urban spatial identity’, as the best bridge between culture and urban spatial development. Furthermore, a new concept, that of ‘eurocal spatial identity’ was introduced, relating European culture with the urban spatial structure of the city-ECoC, fulfilling, thus, one of the major goals of the institution, that of «to enhance the range, diversity and European dimension of the culture in cities» [Decision No 445/2014/EU, specific objective 2 (a)].
The methodology to be employed, within Space Syntax theory and its extension, is proposed to embrace all three spatial scales – town planning, urban design and architecture – by creatively interweaving them in a whole, in order to best apprehend and exploit the ECoC’s ‘deep’ physical structure and relate it to its cultural potential. It is highly recommended that a) EU integrates the spatial component and hence the proposed recommendations into their future official policies for the best interest of the institution and b) candidate cities integrate these recommendations into their overall cultural – and – spatial program for the success of their candidature, ex-ante and ex-post evaluation, as well as their long-term cultural, social and spatial development. They are free to adopt such an initiative, as stated by the very same Decision (No 445/2014/EU, p. 5).

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PLACE BRANDING: THE MISSING TEMPORAL DIMENSION

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Abstract

Aims

The main aim of this paper is to examine place branding as a dynamic concept investigating the temporal dimension of place brands and incorporating the influence of time within place branding, something largely missing from the literature.

Key Argument

A range of theories rationalize the idea of place brands and place branding in a multidisciplinary approach. A place brand is often defined as a network of associations (e.g. Zenker and Braun, 2017) and various models attempt to describe place brand management based on this definition (e.g. Hanna and Rowley, 2011). Amongst others, Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015) introduced a framework of place brand formation based on four sources of associations: associations with materiality, associations with practices, associations with representations, associations with institutions. We argue in this paper that this model, although it represents all of the aspects of place, is static and does not take into consideration time as a dimension in place branding. It is mentioned that “place associations are interactive and they constantly change as the place brand is experienced” (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015, p. 1375). This constant change appears, apparently, with time, but this is not incorporated in the model, neither in other similar models.

Main Approach

Time has been a matter of interest for researchers in different fields since the ancient periods. The concept of time and various approaches to understanding and explaining its nature have been scrutinised in philosophy, physics, literature, arts, urban studies, management, economics and other fields. Nowadays, the world is changing rapidly and time should be taken into account in planning and managing business processes, including brands (Mark, 2018). However, there is a paucity of research in the place branding literature regarding time-
related issues of place brands, resulting in a theoretical gap. This paper will, first, demonstrate this identified research gap. Then it will describe the research undertaken to reveal how place brand stakeholders perceive temporality in connection to the brand. At the first stage of the research temporal aspects of a place brand are revealed by interviews with experts in place branding practices. This will form the basis for data collection in the field. Further interviews and observations will be undertaken in the small town of Uryupinsk in Russia, investigating the influence of time on the four sources of associations mentioned by Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015). The research will contribute both to place branding theory, particularly adding a dynamic understanding, as well as practice, providing insights on how to accommodate the influence of time within more refined place branding strategies.

**Keywords:** place brands, time, temporal aspects, place branding, place brand associations

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Abstract

At historic cities, heritage becomes a central component of city branding policies and strategies.

There are cases, however, that the heritage of the past becomes a constraint for the branding of the present, in terms of heritage authorities/experts’ prioritising the heritage of a specific period of the past, which is considered more glorious, pristine – hence ‘authentic’ –, over present cultural expressions of the local communities. This phenomenon has been discussed in national contexts, for example in connection to the attachment to Classical antiquities in modern and contemporary Greece.

This presentation discusses the aforementioned phenomenon in local contexts, examining the tensions between diverse heritage expressions of the past and of the present, as well as the tensions between heritage authorities/experts and local communities.

The old prison of the city of Trikala in Greece is used as a case study. The prison is associated to diverse heritage expressions such as: (i) the prison building; (ii) memories of the Civil War; (iii) the rebetiko music; and (iv) the Ottoman bath. The dramatically evolving connections of differing community/stakeholder groups to these heritage expressions are analysed, along with their conflicting roles in the process of the branding of the city. Unfortunately, yet rather unavoidably, the very fate of the heritage expressions is linked to these evolving connections and conflicts.

The ultimate aim of the paper is to challenge the importance of the ‘authenticity’ of the past (see Lowenthal 1992; Meskell 2010), and at the same time promote means of community empowerment (see Poulios 2014; 2018), in connection to city branding.

Key words: city branding, local communities, living heritage, authenticity
Abstract

The term neolocalism is increasingly used to describe the attempt of small local businesses to cultivate a new sense of place for their cities, engaging selected (and usually historical) characteristics of them, through the branding techniques they use for their products. This process leads to a direct interaction between local products and place branding for cities, with whatever this entails for the latter's recognition and local development.

The small businesses that have almost exclusively been examined as carriers of neolocalism for the American cities are undoubtedly the microbreweries (e.g. Flack, 1997; Schnell & Freeze, 2003; Eberts, 2014; Holtkamp et al, 2016), mainly due to the boom of the sector that happened in the first half of the 90s, with the rising trend continuing to this day.

Considering the microbreweries to be the best source of data for assessing the degree of neolocalism of cities, Holtkamp et al propose an assessing methodology based on three distinct elements: (a) the use of local symbols and place brands on labels and product branding campaigns, (b) the pursuit of environmental sustainability, and (c) the interaction of businesses with the local communities through social actions. Given the mobility that characterizes the sector of brewery in Greece after 2010, with about 50 microbreweries having been established within five years and in the time of economic crisis, it is of particular interest to examine the phenomenon in the Greek cities as well.

In the present article, after the necessary adaptation to the Greek reality, the methodology of Holkamp et al is applied to a research held in the Greek microbreweries, in order to evaluate both the phenomenon of neolocalism that emerges through their business activity in the host cities, and also their interaction with the place branding of the latter. The data was gathered through primary content research, including sites, product labels, advertising campaigns, and questionnaires distributed in most of the Greek microbreweries.
The interpretation of the results is oriented towards highlighting the contribution of local products to the sense of place and expands to discovering the role of local producing activities as drivers of a new type of local urban economies, with a deeper impact on the shaping of the urban space.

**Keywords:** place branding, neolocalism, sense of place, Greek cities, microbreweries
FESTIVALS AS TOOLS OF CITY BRANDING. THE CASE OF PINEIOS FESTIVAL IN LARISSA

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Abstract

Festivals and special events are continuously becoming significant components of the cities’ branding strategies. More and more cities are using special events as a means to enhance their image, while developing a festival ‘portfolio’ as a planned strategy for attracting visitors is increasingly gaining ground among place marketing policies.

In this context, exploring the conditions that turn a festival to a successful factor for a city's brand is of particular interest, because the goal is not to temporarily attract visitors to attend a single special event, but to use the latter in order to constantly highlight the city’s identity.

This article aims to develop a framework for conceptualizing the relation between special events and place branding. More specifically, the conditions under which a festival can be considered a success not only as a special event, but also as part of the strategic branding of the host city, are being considered. By examining, under this lens, the parameters launched in the literature as evidence of success for festivals and special events, a set of factors that connect together festivals and branding policies of cities is proposed. Then, the city of Larissa in Greece with the Pineios festival are examined as a case study, applying the proposed set of factors.

Larissa is an interesting case study, because is one of the very few Greek cities that already have an approved Strategic Marketing Plan, while in the latter both Pineios (the river that crosses the city) and the organizing of special events are identified as significant local brands.

The article's methodology is developed on two levels: the examination of the factors that join together festivals and place branding is mainly based on the relevant literature review, including the review of previous studies and researches; the case study, applies the methodology that emerges from the previous part and is based on structured interviews with the organizers and the personal experience of the researchers. Finally, the findings highlight the contribution of the Pineios Festival to the branding of Larissa and suggest ways to enhance it.

Keywords: place branding, special events, festivals, Larissa, Pineios festival
THE APPROPRIATION OF MAORI IDENTITIES IN THE
NATION BRANDING AND PUBLIC DIPLOMACY OF
AOTEAROA NEW ZEALAND

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Abstract

This interdisciplinary research investigated the construction of cultural identities in the Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy in Aotearoa New Zealand. On the example of New Zealand’s indigenous population the Māori, this study examined convergences and divergences of the self-image, which describes the construction of cultural identity from Māori perspectives with the planned image and the projected image in selected Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy channels.

Ethnographic methods like participant observation and informal interviews with members of the Ngāti Awa tribe (Te Puni Kokiri, n.d.) were conducted based on Kaupapa Māori theory, which is a theoretical framework developed by Māori (Pihama, 2015; Smith and Reid, 2000). This data was contrasted by expert interviews with representatives from governmental institutions, diplomatic representations, cultural tourism operators and cultural- or art institutions.

Results of this research show that the images of Māori identities in selected Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy channels and the self-image of members of Ngati Awa coincide to some extent. In Nation Branding information about Māori is often simplified and Māori are presented as one single entity. Contrary, the information about Māori offered by Public Diplomacy is more profound and approaches by Māori shaping their representation could frequently be observed. Increased efforts to shape the representation of Māori in Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy by Māori could be detected. This thesis demonstrates various examples such as touristic- and cultural experiences offered by the Māori community or the self-promotion of Māori tribes to foreign publics in diplomatic functions.

This “bottom-up” construction of cultural identities enables Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy to create a unique differentiation to other nations directly constructed from the community (Hakala and Lemmetyinen, 2011). It provides a stronger identification for the
members of a nation with Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy and produces a more authentic and credible image of the nation to foreign audiences (Anholt, 2007; Quelch and Jocz, 2005).

**Keywords:** cultural identities, nation branding, public diplomacy, New Zealand, Maori
ORGANIZATIONAL OR CULTURAL FACTORS ARE THE BARRIERS FOR A STRATEGIC CITY MARKETING PLAN IMPLEMENTATION? EVIDENCE FROM LARISSA, GREECE

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Abstract

This paper aims to examine a Strategic City Marketing Plan (SCMP) from a project management point of view. Various weaknesses are observed which relate to issues like the strategy of the Municipality, the roles and the responsibilities during the project, the expectations of stakeholders etc. The paper attempts to investigate the factors that function as barriers in the implementation of such a SCMP. Four years have passed from the approval of the plan by the Municipality of Larissa, Greece. The extroversion of Larissa seems to be continuously rising, even if this plan has not yet been implemented. In order to identify the cause of this delay the paper aims to answer the following research questions: (1) why, and under what conditions, does a plan not proceed? (2) how could the stakeholders be actively engaged during both elaboration and implementation of the plan? (3) do stakeholders’ participation fit in a clear strategy? (4) how does the organization of the project affect its completion?

An explanatory sequential research was designed for the investigation of the questions in two phases. The first phase contains 24 in depth semi-structured interviews with representatives of the main stakeholder groups. These were divided in two parts, the first half had participated in the consultation of the plan while the other half did not participate actively. Based on the results of the first phase, the second one consists of a web-based questionnaire that evaluates the different stakeholders’ aspects. This survey is addressed to all the stakeholders as individuals. The qualitative and quantitative phases function as transformative-advocacy lens of the potentially positive and negative elements of the overall strategy in the elaboration of the SCMP.

From the completed interviews of the qualitative phase some indicative arguments came out. First of all, and independent of the group they belong, the respondents recognized a significant lack in the project organization. This lack is pinpointed in the role of the Project Manager from part of the Municipality (owner of the project). This resulted in the
lack of transition activities that would communicate better the basic ideas of the SCMP. On the other hand, an interesting dispersion in the point of view of the respondents is observed. Some of them seem to have a willingness for branding to be concentrated to the place, since there are respondents who prefer that the strategy is more focused on organizational and institutional branding of Larissa.

**Keywords:** Strategic City Marketing Plan, failure factors, project implementation, stakeholder management, Larissa-Greece
AN EXAMINATION OF PLACE BRAND CO-CREATION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH PLACE REPUTATION: THE ROLE OF RESIDENTS

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Abstract

Study Background and Main Arguments

Over the past two decades, and marking an evolution in the branding literature, the meanings associated with brands and their perceived values have been linked to brand co-creation activities. Referred to as ‘a new conceptual logic’, brands are viewed as an outcome of a collective and collaborative co-creation process that involves all stakeholders (Merz and Vargo, 2009), who oftentimes participate in the brand co-creation and communication process fostering relationships and generating brand value (Payne et al., 2009).

Place brands are no different; the meanings contributing to a place involve multiple stakeholders such as residents, workers, investors, businesses and government who shape the place brand; yet create, in many instances, diverse and sometimes conflicting place brand images. For instance, while the local authorities of the city of Hamburg promoted the place in their marketing campaigns as “city of the waterfront” with many cultural offerings, residents did not identify with the message, and consolidated in ‘Not in Our Name’ protest campaign against the public authorities (Zenker and Bekmann, 2013). Over time, negative place reputation can be an outcome of this discrepancy between place narratives or a mismatch between the promoted identity and perceived image of place (Braun et al, 2018).

Nevertheless, while control over the place brand is shared amongst its stakeholders (Hatch and Schultz, 2010), the involvement of internal stakeholders, such as place residents, in its co-creation presents a shift of power in the branding process. This group is formed by the ‘locals’ who are ‘living the brand’ and thus become the primary place-making source (Kavaratzis, 2004; Freire, 2009; Braun et al, 2018; Uchinaka, Yoganathan and Osburg, 2019).

Residents’ involvement with places has been examined in the place branding and tourism literatures in the context of: place making
(Cassio, Vigolo and Ugolini, 2018); the promotion of places as destinations (Uchinaka, Yoganathan and Osburg, 2019) and general place branding strategies (Vallaster, Wallpach and Zenker, 2018). Although several attempts have been made to explain residents’ involvement with their place brands, a collective approach of promoting places and their contribution to co-creation of place brands was only discussed by few researchers (Vallaster, Wallpach and Zenker, 2018).

Main Approach and Study Aim

This study provides a systematic review of research on co-creation, residents’ involvement with place, and place reputation, specifically, examining the contribution of residents in the co-creation process of places and the effects on place reputation.

Findings, Contribution, and Conclusion

Findings suggest that there is a shift in power in place representation; residents are becoming more influential in creating and communicating place brand messages than local authorities and their marketing efforts. The study also emphasizes the role of residents in co-creating place brands, on the one hand, and their ‘co-creation’ on the other. While residents’ creation of positive value can diminish the gap between the identity and image of place, and positively influence place reputation, equally their negative collective actions can challenge the meanings associated with their place brand, create conflict, and threaten the reputation of place. Overall, this paper strengthens the role of participatory place branding, residents’ involvement in place brand co-creation process, and the effects on both positive and negative place reputation.

**Keywords:** residents, co-creation, place brand, place reputation, systematic search, place branding
ANALYSING TRIPADVISOR’S REVIEWS OF TOURIST
ATTRACTIONS IN PHUKET, THAILAND

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Abstract
In recent decades, many platforms for online reviews in the tourism sector, such as TripAdvisor, Lonely Planet, and Google Maps, have become more prevalent in research and practice, leading to the proliferation of studies on online reviews and highlighting the use of new analytical technologies (Cheng, Fu, Sun, Bilgihan, & Okumus, 2019; Chuang et al., 2017). The main limitations of these advanced data mining and analysis methods are the practical interpretation, application, and implementation of the analysis. Therefore, the objective of the current research is to develop a methodology that can analyse online reviews using machine learning techniques in such a way that practitioners in the fields of tourism and destination management can easily understand and apply the technique to improve their attractions.

This research studies the online reviews of tourist attractions in Phuket, Thailand on TripAdvisor. The authors analysed 20 famous beaches (25,458 reviews in total), 12 island locations (12,584 reviews), 12 markets (3,514 reviews), 2 Buddhist temples (10,519 reviews), and a walking street (13,004 reviews) in Phuket. In total, 65,079 online reviews were analysed using two machine learning techniques: Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) and Naïve Bayes Modelling.

This study introduces a new method to extract comprehensive and comprehensible dimensions of attractions in Phuket, Thailand using machine learning techniques. Compared with hotels and lodgings, which have relatively clear attributes including room quality, services, location, cleanliness, and value for money, attractions are more complex and contextual. However, a thorough and in-depth understanding of attractions are important for DMOs to plan for destination management and promotion. Using LDA, this study specified four dimensions for beaches and islands; three dimensions for a walking street and temples whereas two dimensions were identified for markets.

Using the two machine learning techniques, this research also developed two practical tools: Dimensional Salience-Valence Analysis (DSVA) and Lexical Salience-Valence Analysis (LSVA). These analyses help DMOs and researchers evaluate underlying dimensions and terms.
The results show that dimensions and terms have differing valences which require different strategies and actions. Figure 1 and 2 demonstrate DSVA and LSVA of beaches in Phuket.

From the findings, this study suggests many practical actions for Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) in Phuket including (1) re-prioritisation of destination management for beaches, (2) promotion of alternative attractions for islands, (3) promotion of positive and immersive experience for temples and a walking street, and (4) advancement of high quality and fair food experience for markets. On a national level, TAT published a summary of tourism promotion action plans 2019. The core of the tourism promotion action plan is to steer Thailand to be a preferred sustainable destination, which aims to offer tourists “value for experience” and “unique local Thai experience”. As such, the results of this research can help TAT understand the issues in attractions which enhances and decreases the tourist experiences and sentiments.

**Keywords:** destination marketing, online reviews, TripAdvisor, machine learning, Phuket

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Abstract
This study aims to clarify the place branding that occurred in Kikonai, Hokkaido, following the opening of the Hokkaido Shinkansen (Bullet Train).

Hokkaido is recognised as a famous tourist destination both in Japan and abroad. For example, Tomamu, which is famous for its ski resorts, attracts not only Japanese tourists but also those from around the world. Furthermore, a large number of tourists from Asian countries visit historical places such as Sapporo, Otaru, and Hakodate. The opening of the Hokkaido Shinkansen in 2016, which improved access from Tokyo to Hokkaido, caused an increase in tourist numbers. For example, in the southern Hokkaido region, where Hakodate is located, there was a 117.4% increase in the number of tourists after the opening (Hokkaido Ministry of Economic Affairs, 2018). However, tourists who visit Hokkaido often visit only the aforementioned specific areas and rarely visit other areas. Therefore, it is important to determine how to encourage such tourists to visit other areas in Hokkaido. Regarding this issue, the local government deliberated on ‘building the place branding’ for each region of Hokkaido. Kikonai, which is the focus of this study, is located about 40km from Hakodate, and has developed as an important traffic hub. However, with the opening of the tunnel connecting Hokkaido and Honshu in 1988, which was the world’s longest tunnel at the time, and the population of Kikonai decreased, and the elderly population will reach 46.7% in the next 20 years. Therefore, in Kikonai, they retrospectively considered the past failure of ‘doing nothing’ and began to work on a plan to build the place brand. This study will focus on (a) cooperation with neighbouring local governments, (b) recruitment of people from outside Kikonai with experience of place branding, and (c) promotional activities.

Keywords: Hokkaido Shinkansen (Bullet Train), Hokkaido-Japan, construction and failure of place branding
THE ROLE OF CULTURE IN BRAND IDENTITY FORMATION: THE CASE OF DANANG CITY, VIETNAM

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Abstract
Hosting many international events that the recent one is APEC 2017, Danang – a Vietnam pioneer in city branding – positions itself as a destination for tourism, living, and investment. However, the city appears to be unfocused because it is challenging to satisfy different stakeholders at the same time. To define which group should be the starting point of city branding, Danang needs to know what can differentiate itself from the others. A city with its own culture is more comfortable to memorize and no needs to reproduce any culture. Therefore, this study explores the role of culture in the identity formation of Danang. A comparative analysis is conducted using a qualitative method to explore the brand identity of Danang from both primary and secondary data. After analyzing the contents of books about the city, the study conducts in-depth interviews with 21 opinion leaders. Additionally, the lyrics of 118 songs composed for Danang promotion are retrieved to evaluate whether the city identity is communicated appropriately or not. The findings show the vision of Danang as a livable city with the mission of environmental orientation and IT application. Besides the notable attributes (i.e., Natural endowment, Infrastructure, People, Culture, Education, Values, Relics and landscapes) of a growing urban, some negative aspects also appear (Privatization, Material culture, Labour force). The study offers a different view of human personality formation under the influence of nature and gives some implications to enhance branding Danang based on cultural identity. Therefore, it contributes not only to the theoretical background but also to the practical case of city branding.

Keywords: City Branding, Culture, Brand Identity, Danang city, Vietnam

Introduction
According to Muñiz-Martínez and Cervantes-Blanco (2009), cities form an identity for themselves as a function in a network society. Cities choose some attributes to differentiate themselves to others. Most cities rely on culture-based characteristics such as music (Verona, Italy; New Orleans, USA; Berlin, Germany; Vienna, Austria), theatre (Edinburgh, UK; Barcelona, Spain; Milan, Italy), cinema (Los Angeles, USA; Cannes,
France), museums (Bilbao, Spain; Paris, France; Saint Petersburg, Russia), university cities (Oxford, Cambridge, UK; Heidelberg, Germany; Bolonia, Italy; Princeton, USA), parties and popular celebrations (Venice, Italy; Valencia, Spain). They can select the image of economic centers (New York, USA; Tokyo, Japan; Shanghai, China; Dubai, United Arab Emirates; Rotterdam, The Netherlands), industrial cities (Manchester, UK; Detroit, USA), research centers (San Jose, Boston, USA; Dublin, Ireland), vanguard cities (Vancouver, Canada; Amsterdam, The Netherlands), natural beauty (Miami, USA; Cape Town, South Africa), touristic cities (Rimini, Italy; Acapulco, Mexico; Nice, France; Budapest, Hungary; Rome, Italy). No matter being megacities, city-states, cities that host big companies/events, or towns with a religious significance, these features can be capitalized as cities’ competitive advantage. The more capacity cities have on capitalization, the more probability they attain international fame to attract their potential stakeholders. The authors mention influential public works such as airports in Hong Kong, ports in Yokohama, museums in Bilbao, artistic/sports facilities can contribute to the city profile. They suppose that cities should be considered the system of exchanges among citizens, institutions, investors, tourists. Thus, cities need to conduct an internal analysis to understand their identity. In other words, cities need to know what they really are to choose the proper way of communication toward different segments.

Danang, a coastal city in Central Vietnam hosting APEC 2017 is considered a “young” city. In fact, the face of Danang nowadays is formed through the long historical development with political incidents. As can be seen, there is a gap between reality and perception of a city. Being a pioneer in city branding, Danang has been pursuing the image of a livable, fantastic city which is a center for start-ups. It is not easy to conduct this aim without understanding the place identity to explore what are the strengths and weaknesses of Danang to enhance or overcome. Given there is a lack of studies regarding Danang identity, this paper aims to offer a holistic approach to the city identity. Besides, the study considers the contribution of culture on differentiating Danang to similar cities.

1. **Danang – Vision of an ecological, smart urban, an innovative entrepreneurial center, a livable coastal city**

Recently, Political Bureau has established a runway for Danang city with the new resolution (Resolution No. 43-NQ/TW, 2019) to build Danang as a “nuclear” city of Central Vietnam. Danang receives the attention of the government with its geopolitical position, urban spaces, hosting critical events and potentials to become one of the big socio-economic centers of Vietnam and South East Asia. With the ambition of becoming a big ecological, smart urban, an innovative entrepreneurial center, a livable
coastal city in Asia, the urban area including Chan May (Lang Co) – Danang – Dien Ban – Hoi An – South Hoi An is planned to form. Besides, the planning of Danang is also reviewed to promote its strategic role, bring a high quality of life, friendliness, happiness to inhabitants. Fifteen years earlier, Danang is appreciated by its middle position, an essential position in socio-economic, national defense, and important transport hub for road, rail, sea and air, the main gateway to the East Sea of the Central, Central Highlands and Mekong sub-region countries (Resolution No. 33-NQ/TW, 2003). To reach the vision, missions of Danang emphasize image of a city of events, an international meeting center with five principal sectors (travel and high quality services associated with resort real estate; seaports and airports; high-tech industry associated with creative urban construction and start-ups; information technology, electronics and telecommunications related to the digital economy; and high-tech agriculture and fisheries). In terms of socio-culture development, the resolution focuses on cultural identity, humanity, urban civilization, social security, human resources. The identity must be formed consistent with traditional values, the culture of local people.

To (2018c) questionings about the spiritual life of urban residents, community values reflected through public spaces, and what the urban criterion of Danang are. In his later discussion, To (2018b) emphasizes that the modern city definition cannot repeat the image of another urban without selection. The urban identity must represent the similarity between the future city and the past, the present. More details, To (2018a) reviews the identity of Danang with natural endowments, culture interference (Eastern-Western, Vietnamese-Champa, folk-modern, village-urban, material-immaterial). Along with high speed of Danang urbanization, the author proposes some culture-based solutions to harmonize between the past and present, artificial and natural, traditional and modern, individual and community, economic growth and cultural preservation.

To define the city identity, Danang needs to review the culture reflected through Danang history. On the official webpage of Danang tourism (Danang FantastiCity, 2018), the city experiences different stages. Exceeding from a small port for goods in transit and ship repair in the 16th century, Danang became a commercial port in the early 18th century (1835). In 1889, the French colonists renamed Danang as Tourane that followed a European model in the early 20th century. Later, the city was authorized by the Bao Dai government (1950), was a prominent American military complex after 1965, a centrally governed city in 1967, belonged to Quang Nam – Da Nang province in 1975, renovated in 1986, separated from Quang Nam in 1996. Characterized by a big river as the Champa language meaning, Danang identity represents the culture of a waterfront urban. In recent years, the Danang government have been trying to use
culture (events, music) to build images of Danang. Unfortunately, the international firework festival mainly attracts domestic visitors, and Danang songs have not been memorized appropriately by even locals. Hence, it is necessary to consider the role of culture in forming Danang identity to have an objective view of branding Danang.

2. Literature review

The identity of a place is the extent to which an individual can recognize it among the others (Lynch, 1960). In other words, identity is the first obvious distinction of a place people have in their mind. The city identity contains a set of images and memories that are unique and cannot be copied. Aaker (1996) supposes that the brand identity includes two components: the core identity (timeless essence of the brand), and the extended identity (more details to complete the picture). The core identity contains unique and valuable elements related to the brand that is difficult for a sole slogan to capture. As the most straightforward way, Konecnik Ruzzier (2013) agrees with Kapferer (1998) that the brand identity is viewed at the supply-side perspective in which we must know who we are before knowing how we are perceived. Kapferer (2008) states that the brand identity of a product can ensure for purchase as compared to similar ones. This assurance can also be true to place identity. Among places with same features, an authentic brand can create a form of protection.

But are the identity and the image in the same category? Actually, they are two sides of one issue that should be placed in interrelation. Muñiz-Martínez and Cervantes-Blanco (2009) make an effort to analyze the concepts of city identity and city image. The identity can be understood as visible/invisible traits that form the essence of the city (personality) while the city brand image is the set of emotional/cognitive mental representations of the city brand that individuals associated with (perception of the personality). The identity reflects the objective positioning of the city that can be able to extend over time. Reversely, the perceived image is related to subjective positioning. The city identity can include the characteristics that cannot be adjusted such as geography, locations, climate, history, socio-cultural values. Besides, the dynamic elements such as infrastructures, installations, monuments, and people can contribute to city identity. The intangible cultural elements like cinema and television, sports, artists, popular celebrations, literature, gastronomy drinks, music can contribute to the international reputation of a city. The authors suggest that every city should start by managing its identity to meet the requirements of various stakeholders. A city identity depends on what politicians/municipal managers decide, physical and emotional space, residents and firms behaviour, what visitors/non-visitors said about it. Basing on what the city has/does/represents, city is
considered an open project of public administrations, the private sector, and civil society (Ibid, cited from de Aguilera Moyano (1994)).

Anholt (2007) uses the metaphor of judging a book through its cover when mentioning the way people do with places. It can be said that a place identity is defined by the impressions we have on it no matter fair or unfair. That is the reason why each responsible governments of a place need to understand its identity and the world’s perception of their locality to build a good reputation as well as a consistent picture. For commercial products and services, it is easy to distinguish a brand through its brand identity (logo, slogan, packaging, the design). For places, it is not simple like that, especially on brand communication aspect. The hexagon of competitive identity (tourism, brands, policy, investment, culture, people) (Anholt, 2005) can also be adapted to a city. Anholt emphasizes that if the stakeholders do not help each other, they will be like the crabs in baskets that never move forwards even it is so easy.

The local identity is appreciated by Phillipps (2008) when he puts city identity in relevance with regional imperialism in the case of Japan. This approach reflects the relationship between urban development and historical consciousness. Similarly, Govers and Go (2009) agree that historical, political, religious, cultural discourses, local knowledge can construct place identities. Additionally, fluctuations in power occurred at a place (such as government apparatus changes) also affect its identity. Besides, Riza et al. (2012) emphasize the role of iconic architecture in city identity formation (i.e., Dancing House, Louvre Pyramid, the Guggenheim Museum, Swiss Re Office). The authors recognize iconic buildings construction as the third approach for promoting cities (the two first ones are related to cultural events and heritage). Reviewing the nature of city branding, they conclude that a city image is an intersection between it and city identity.

Zenker (2011) points out the limit of approaches based on secondary data and reality measurement because there is a gap between facts and recognition. The author states that the place identity is obviously the critical driver of place perception. It includes place communication, place physics, place word-of-mouth comprised of visual, verbal and behavioral expressions that affect place brand. The study also proposes six place categories should be measured including characteristics, inhabitants, business, quality, familiarity, history. Later, Konecnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony (2013) propose a model of brand identity applying marketing, tourism, and sociological theory within the supply side of place branding. The core of the model includes the experiential promise, emotional value, functional value covered by mission, vision, values, personality, distinguishing preferences, benefits.

Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) on the other hand combine the literature of place identity and organizational identity to offer a more dynamic view.
This approach supposes that identity is a constant dialogue between the internal and the external. Given branding and identity are interwoven, the authors consider place identity as a process-based view. The authors do not put identity as the immobile input of the process of site branding. Although admitting the contribution of communication-based approach, the authors appreciate the complexity and mobility of place identity and the influences of branding on them. The authors state that it is necessary to have an explanation of place brand co-creation, especially during the identity formation process. Adapting the organizational identity dynamics model of Hatch and Schultz (2002), the study agrees that identity is an expression of cultural understandings and reflections of the images (the site of external definitions of identity) of others. In return, identity reflects in culture (the context of internal definitions of identity) and leaves impressions on others. Here, place culture is the core of the brand and can be understood as a way of life that is related to people who live there (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). Furthermore, Syssner (2009) emphasizes the ways of conceptualizing regional culture and regional identity and their role in an ongoing building of regional spaces. Culture here is not only merely the cultural sector in business line or way of living but is a factor in regional economic growth also. It means that culture is constant created and recreated (cited from Keating (1998), Ibid). The cultural element is emphasized in a study of Thomas (1996) about place, memory, identity in the Vietnamese diaspora. The identity in the lives of Vietnamese-Australians is exceeded from their memories, fantasies, narratives, myths in specific historical and political contexts related to the homeland. The identity here is not visible. It can be infused with new meanings along with the cultural changes that occurred in people lives. Hence, identity can be reconstructed through culture.

Briefly, the city identity includes what preferences city has to distinguish itself (i.e., geography, climate, history, infrastructures, monuments, tourism, policy, culture, people, religion, business, architecture), what city does and benefits brought to stakeholders through government apparatus change, what city represents. Besides, a city with mission and vision own values and personality can be easier to memorize.

3. Methodology

This study applies a qualitative method with unstructured technique to analyze the brand identity of Danang, following these hereafter steps:

**Step 1.** The study defines Danang identity through secondary data. The data are exceeded from eight books about Danang history, culture, folklore, relics, landscapes, construction and development within 20 years (Huynh et al., 2016, Bui, 2015, Danang People's Committee, 2017, Danang Museum, 2009, Huynh et al., 2012, Huynh and Truong, 2014,
Danang Newspaper, 2017, Huynh, 2015). They are limited editions published by Danang Publishing House and circulated mainly in Danang, represent efforts of local government in exploring the place identity.

**Step 2.** Primary data are collected through in-depth interviews with twenty-one opinion leaders in March 2019 by snowball sampling. They are not only Danang citizens for years, understand its history and culture, but also contribute to the city development with different positions. First, the interviewer must contact them by cellphone to clarify the research purpose and request appointments. Three among them (B, E, G) only could reply by emails and ready for further questions by telephone (Table 1). The remaining agreed with face-to-face (average time for an interview is around 75 minutes). In respondents, only four interviewees are females (19.05%). This rate is properly because the male leaders are the dominant force in Vietnam politics. There are two young leaders (under 40), thirteen leaders in the middle-age (seven people are under 50, six people are under 60), and six experienced leaders (from 60 and above). Some respondents have experienced many positions or taking over several tasks at the same time. For example, participant C is also the member of the Writers Association, the Folklore Association, and the Former Head of Personnel Party Committee in Danang. Similarly, respondent D used to be a party committee member whose current position as Chairman of the Association that sponsors poor and unfortunate women and children. Likewise, the interviewee P used to be Director of Danang TV and the member of the Film Association.

Table 1. Respondents’ Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Fine Arts Museum</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Danang Culture and Sports Department</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Historical Science Association</td>
<td>Chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Education and Training Department</td>
<td>Former Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Danang Tourism Department</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Markets and Fair Exhibition Management Company</td>
<td>Former Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Party Committee</td>
<td>Party Committee Member</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Danang Foreign Affairs Department</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Literary and Artistic Associations Union</td>
<td>Chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Party Committee Office</td>
<td>General Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Foreign Affairs Department</td>
<td>Former Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Museum</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Construction Department</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

392
393

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>51</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Danang Science and Technology Department</th>
<th>Vice Director</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Danang Foreign Affairs Department</td>
<td>Vice Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Culture and Sports Department</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang IT &amp; Communication Department</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Travel Association</td>
<td>Chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Cham Sculpture Museum</td>
<td>Former Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Institute of socio-economic research</td>
<td>Deputy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Danang Party Committee Office</td>
<td>Former Secretary of a city leader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step 3.** The study uses another data source – the lyrics of songs composed to depict Danang picture among Vietnamese. Based on the songs list declared by Danang Music Association (amNhacDanang.com.vn), searching tools (Google, YouTube) are used to explore 118 related songs about the city. Among them, eight songs that belong to the period right after 1975 are famous with heroic melody. Besides, 18 songs have been already popular with locals, and 12 songs (memorable melody) have potentials to spread out more.

Frequency of mentions is used as criteria to define whether an attribute should be included in the findings or not. Finally, the comparative analysis is conducted between results to figure out which ones are the city identity of Danang, especially the role of culture in identity formation.

4. **Result**

The secondary data offers the basis of Danang identity shown in Table 2. As can be seen, Danang distinguishes itself as a growing urban, livable tourism city with diverse nature, history role, infrastructure, bridges, villages, people, immaterial culture, relics and landscapes. The place is also a dynamic, peaceful city with humanity, study promotion, and innovation.

**Table 2. Danang Identity according to Danang documents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imprint</th>
<th>Tourism, Event, Heritage gateway, Socioeconomic center, <strong>Growing urban</strong>, IT, <strong>Livable city</strong>, Policy (“5 khong 3 co 4 an”)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diverse nature</td>
<td><strong>Sea, Han river, mountains</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td><strong>Tourane concession, Trading port (foreign trade), Political (military) cultural centre, Hoang Sa island</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td><strong>Danang international airport, transportation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridges</td>
<td><strong>Han river bridge, Dragon bridge</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>Friendly/hospitable, <strong>Compliance</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cultural exchange, Open and tolerance, Eating habit (local markets, fish, fish sauce, green chilli, bread, fruitfulness)

Dynamic, Safety, Peaceful, Humanity, Environmental consciousness, Study promotion, Innovation

Marble mountain, Son Tra (monkey) mountain, Ba Na mountain, The Hai Van pass, Dien Hai citadel, Revolutionary bases, Cemeteries and tombs, Cham sculpture museum, Religious works (Pagoda)

Non Nuoc (Quan Khai) village, Nam O village, Village communal houses, Co Tu community

Traditional festival (Whale festival, Muc Dong (herd-boys) parade festival, Quin Yin ceremony, Praying-for-rain festival, folklore (Tuong – traditionally performed in Vietnamese theatre, Nguyen Hien Dinh – Tuong (former Hoa Binh) theatre, Bai Choi)

Notes: Bold Italic attributes are mentioned with the high agreement.
Source: Aggregated from secondary data

Regarding primary data, the results show that almost respondents mention the mission and vision of Danang in Resolution No. 43 and Resolution No.33 issued by Vietnam Political Bureau. Danang as stated by opinion leaders has a vision of a livable city with environmental orientation, IT (information technology) application. At the current time, Danang is a safety, friendly urban of which strengths are natural endowment, tourism, infrastructure, people, event, and complete educational system. These all attributes are mentioned by at least 52.38% (except 47.62% belongs to IT).

Table 3. Opinion leaders’ perception of Danang identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vision</th>
<th>Livable city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>Environmental orientation, IT application, Logistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imprint</td>
<td>Natural endowment, Tourism, Event, Service, Heritage gateway, Infrastructure, Potential, Socioeconomic centre, Leadership, Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Growing urban, Urban architecture, Orderly development (based on Urban planning), (-) Privatization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>Trading port, Geopolitical position, Early religious appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Traffic, Bridges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Comprehensive educational system, Higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>Friendly, Compliance, (-) Unskill labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Quang culture, Cultural investment, Cultural interference, Marine-oriented culture, Cultural transformation, (-) Material culture, Open and tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Dynamic, Safety, Peaceful, Harmony, Humanity, Environmental consciousness, Innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relics and landscapes</td>
<td>Relics, Cham museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immaterial culture</td>
<td>Traditional festival (Whale festival, Quin Yin...), Folklore (Tuong, Bai Choi), Village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Besides similarities between the above results, the opinion leaders add some negative attributes such as Privatization, Unskill labour, Material culture. These show the disadvantages of Danang in satisfying different stakeholders. Firstly, privatization is related to group benefits issue and the tradeoff of Danang. It means that during the self-development, Danang must privatize the public land fund to enhance the development speed. It leads to a lack of public spaces for the community. Also, despite developing based on urban planning, some projects have not been used as expected because of private intervention. As a result, the benefits of urban transformation belong to a group of wealthy people much more than most citizens. Locals can benefit from urbanization in the short-term, but they have been starting consideration for long-term. Another negative influence of privatization is transforming the traditional value of festivals. Interview C and interview P, two cultural experts agreed that the celebration of the God of Wealth created by the private sector is not appropriate with the beliefs of the locals. The traditional festivals of Danang are attached to hard-working and praying for peacefulness, not for wealth without efforts.

Next, when mentioning the labour force, it is necessary to pay attention to two aspects, including quantity and quality. As stated by interviewee N, given Danang locates at the "waist" of Vietnam, the city cannot supply the labour force as much as the investors expect. He even visualized the lack of quantity by describing a rotating compass within Danang territory. Interview H confirms this fact. She added that almost unskill labour which used to work in Danang almost come from the other localities. After the Tet holidays or other vacations, many among them chose to stay at the hometown instead of returning to Danang to continue their work. This instability is the reason why the human resource is always the concern of investors.

Lastly, material culture is the minus point of Danang. The city has lost many cultural heritages because of war and political issues. Although the town is known under the name Tourane – a French concession, French architecture remained in Danang is very limited, especially as compared to Hanoi capital town and Ho Chi Minh city. Even Ba Na mountain, known initially as a luxury resort of French in the colonial, has been concreting nowadays. Ba Na now is famous with European architecture, the cable length, and recently the Golden bridge. It is also evidence of privatization. Interviewee I worries about this situation when recalling the time that every habitat can come to Ba Na without using the cable. Today, it is no longer can be conducted, similar to the fact that private projects block the ways to the sea.
Fortunately, Danang aims to the image of a livable city with the mission of environmental orientation, and IT application. Information technology is initially the strength of Danang, exceptionally skilled workers in this industry from the University of Technology – The University of Danang. As stated by interviewee Q, IT has been being applied to many aspects of living in Danang, from checking information to ensure safe transactions to e-government enforcement. The mission is wonderfully fit to the vision of a livable city. Nevertheless, given that any city owns culture-based identity would be a tourist destination, tourism is not the focus of Danang in long-term (as admitted by interviewee H and interviewee U). Recently, Danang has been being well-known with the role of hosting international events, and even mentioned as the city of events. However, it is the challenge for urban planners in terms of estimating the capacity to meet the requirement of visitors.

As perceived by most respondents, Danang is a growing urban that is not easy to define the identity according to interviewee U. He stated that there are so many dynamic factors can affect identity formation. Besides, he appreciates the consciousness that can be considered value of Danang. It means that local people have the characteristic of citizens from developed countries that being afraid to disturb others. This value is really a point that differentiate Danang people from the others in the context of a developing country like Vietnam. The community consciousness reflects through environmental consciousness that makes the city not too difficult to conduct the mission of an environmental city as long as attaining the value of safety.

With the historical role as a trading port owns geopolitical position, Danang culture cannot be seperated from Quang culture, but characterized by cultural interference. It is the interference of Western and Eastern, Cham culture and Dai Viet culture during the realm expansion process. It explains why Danang has an ability to transform other cultures into their own ones, reflected by open and tolerance, ready to reconcile the differences. The culture represents most clearly through friendly, compliant people. The compliance is an advantage for the city leadership, also for labour usage. On the other side, it is said that the union of Danang people is weaker than people from other localities (Interview M).

In terms of education, the value of study promotion explored from secondary data is reflected in the complete educational system of Danang today. Interview U, a leader is initially attracted by talent policy of Danang, appreciates this comprehensive system that receives the high agreement of almost respondents. He said that immigrants not only bring their family members but also want to pull their countrymen to build their community. Hence, they need a suitable environment for their children from kindergarten to higher levels. Higher education institutions have branded themselves as the prestigious choice for higher
education destination, such as The University of Danang as a regional research-oriented university with strong linkage to industries.

The remaining data source – song lyrics – represents the desires of Danang in using music to depict the city identity (Table 3).

Table 3. The City Identity depicted via Music

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imprint</th>
<th>Natural endowment (sea, mountain, river)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Growing urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>Port (Tien Sa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Traffic, Bridges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>Heroic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Humanity, Memorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relics and landscapes</td>
<td>Marble mountain, Ba Na mountain, Son Tra mountain, Hai Van pass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, Danang appears as a growing urban with the natural endowment, Tien Sa port, landscapes, bridges across the Han river, humanity-oriented, and memorable place. The other attributes are Dreaming (22.88%), Livable (19.49%), Folklore (19.49%), Urban architecture (16.95%), Non Nuoc village (15.25%), Tourism (14.41%), Friendly (13.56%), Event (DIFF) (11.02%), Eating habit (10.17%). Despite efforts in using art to promote cultural identity, cultural imprints seem to be blurred. Only two songs mention the Cham museum. Concerning Folklore, except ‘Ho’ (Quang chanty), the other kinds are not shown. This absence partly explains why Danang songs nowadays have not lived in locals’ hearts yet. If focusing on 18 popular songs, the characteristics including Livable, Peaceful, Friendly, Dreaming are sharpened (41.18%, 35.29%, 29.41%, 29.41%, respectively).

5. Implication

Given that losing the material culture, there is no way for Danang to recover it. Instead, Danang can rely on the position of a heritage fork and show the power of a gateway in terms of service and logistics. As interview S proposed, the identity can be inherited via generations, but we can also create our identity such as the DIFF (Danang International Firework Festival). With the current advantages, Danang should take the role of a logistics centre that not only boosting economics development but also boosting tourism. Tourists visit Hue ancient capital, Hoi An ancient town, My Son sanctuary, then later stay in Danang for leisure time, shopping, banking transaction. This proposition is ensured by the study of Truong (2018). No matter the criteria of keywords, average search volume or search trend, Danang still own advantages when positioning itself along with neighborhood in a cooperative relationship (see more in Figure 1).
Hence, the city can boost its strengths, such as natural endowment, traditional festivals, folklore.

Additionally, although Danang cuisine is not mentioned as cultural identity, it is appreciated by cultural tourists. The locals are not confident with their cooking except several traditional ones of Quang culture and the freshness of food, while visitors seem to satisfy with local food that typically are street food, seafood. Therefore, the diversity of cuisine should be considered an identity. Instead of promoting diverse cuisine merely, the city marketers can integrate it into the nature of cultural interference in Danang. It can be said that Danang cuisine is evidence.

Reversely, the weakness of Danang represents through art. No music, fine arts are mentioned except folklore (Tuong, Bai Choi) of Quang culture. Besides, this kind of traditional culture that appeared in Danang music is only ‘Hò’ (Quang chanty), showing the gap between place identity and projected image. Despite photography, contemporary arts have become popular in recent years; it is necessary to receive more attention from the city government. Photography is not only a useful communicational tool but also can attract creative class to the city. Toward a growing urban that lost material culture like Danang, developing contemporary arts can be the solution. The role of the Fine Arts museum, Trung Vuong Theatre, should be enhanced.

*Figure 1. Search pattern comparison in cultural tourism*

Another salient trait of the city identity is People that is firmly attached to Natural endowment. Friendly, compliant people represent the sincerity – the personality of Danang, which is consistent with the previous studies (Pham and Nguyen, 2014, Truong and Nguyen, 2018). Nevertheless, this personality has not been exploited in branding Danang properly yet. The city promoters should take advantages of this identity aspect. Moreover, the contribution of Natural endowment to forming the cultural identity of local people is notable. To preserve this identity during the cultural transformation, especially the increase of immigrants,
natural conservation must be the top concern of Danang. It is also appropriate with the environmental orientation in Danang mission.

Besides, the city governors need to consider the privatization has been occurring in Danang, which could affect the execution of urban planning. Privatization is usually called under cover of socialization, but only attains high performance in specific limitation. It is necessary to have strict punishment or regulations toward the businesses that put their interests above community benefits, contrary to the local customs. Given that the community consciousness can be enhanced through enthusiastic youngsters, higher education should be boosted its role in spreading it, that the dominant ones are environmental consciousness and cultural values preservation.

Overall, the cultural identity of Danang represents people-oriented value to create an ideal living environment of the livable city. Instead of paying attention too much on short-term goals, Danang should invest more in long-term, starting with education. Education can change the mindset of generations, create ethical citizens, and attract authentic stakeholders as a result.

Further research can use quantitative method to confirm which identity attributes of Danang are stable. The researchers can compare the city identity to the perceived image of other external groups. The more consistency between them is, the more successful Danang is in promoting its cultural identity. The role of education, especially higher education institutions, should also be considered in branding Danang. To create the literary community, students – the influential audiences who can stay longer than ordinary cultural tourists – should be a notable stakeholder.

6. Conclusion

This study is the first study about the brand identity of Danang; therefore, contributes not only to the practice of branding Danang but also to place branding in Vietnam. Although Danang is known as a Vietnam pioneer in city branding, the city has been struggling in defining its cultural identity, which helps Danang to differentiate itself from localities with similar characteristics. There are some studies about Danang as a tourist destination, but they focus on the floating part of the brand iceberg. This study considers the root of place branding in Danang by figuring out which cultural traits that form the brand identity.

The findings show the suitable mission of Danang for the vision of a livable city. Besides the fact that history can form the culture (especially Quang culture, Cultural interference, Open and tolerance), the natural endowment is proved its contribution to Danang culture of which the representative is People. This influence has not been mentioned in any
study. The paper also gives some implications in branding Danang and further research related to the role of higher education in city branding. If the city can create a place connection through culture and education, Danang can reach its vision as a livable city more closely.

Acknowledgement

I want to show my gratitude to Ph.D. Huynh Van Hoa – Former Director of the Danang Education and Training Department for his precious collection about Danang's planning, history, and culture. His knowledge of Danang people is a valuable source for any scholar who interested in Vietnam culture. I also appreciate Mr. Bui Van Tieng – Chairman of the Danang Historical Science Association for his experience sharing and Danang culture explanation. Thank all the opinion leaders for their insightful time on in-depth interviews. Thank Professor Takeshi Arthur Thornton, who inspired and gave me the opportunity to continue my higher education.

References


A COMPARISON OF THE AFRO-PESSIMISTIC DISCOURSE AND PERCEPTIONS OF ‘BRAND AFRICA’

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Abstract

For over a century, Africa has been depicted by the West as the dark continent, resulting in a place brand image that impedes tourism, trade and investment. This one-sided discourse, shaped by Western charities, celebrities, movies, and the media, has led to Afro-pessimism; the conviction that the continent isn’t capable of social, economic or political progress.

The literature on Afro-pessimism highlights the prevalent connotations from the discourse, such as poverty, famine, conflict and corruption, but does not indicate if they correspond with current perceptions of Africa. This study aims to assess the similarities and differences between the Afro-Pessimistic discourse and the place brand image of Africa in terms of its core geographical space, associations, functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits. For this purpose, the Brand Concept Maps method of John et al (2016) is adapted allowing for free association (instead of selecting prompted associations) and broadened to analyse functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits. Data is gathered through a structured online survey in the United Kindom and the United States. The research contributes to the literature on Afro-Pessimism and place branding, as it examines if the negative, external discourse has effectively become the brand image and how that affects the attitude towards the supra-national place brand ‘Africa’.

Keywords: afro-pessimism, Brand Africa, supra-national place branding, brand benefits, the dark continent
WHAT IS ACTUALLY “THE LANGUAGE OF TOURISM”? 
SOCIO LingUISTICS AND SOCIOSEMIOTICS IN 
EVERYDAY PRACTICE: THE CASE OF #VISITGREECE

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Abstract

In late spring 2010 Greece shifted from the offline to the online world in an attempt to reposition itself in the new digital landscape. Tourism posters and traditional tourism campaigns had paved the way for the online advertising of Greece. The Greek National Tourism Organisation (henceforth: GNTO) launched the www.visitgreece.gr website, various social media platforms, and started creating novel branded content on the Internet (that is, e-branded content) (Politis and Vazou 2012; Vazou 2014).

This is a case study that helps the audience discover how the theories of sociolinguistics, social semiotics and destination branding (Dann 2001; Anholt 2007; Morgan et al. 2010) are adopted in creating multimodal | multisigned messages (Kress 2010; Bateman 2015) that address audiences throughout the world irrespectively of their culture, ideological beliefs, language, or everyday preferences (Thurlow and Jaworski 2010). Using in everyday practice the tools of tourism, multimodal and digital discourse the GNTO creates the emotional imagery of Greece in accordance with the restrictions imposed by each medium (or cybergene). In this study we witness the process by which the content is being created by the GNTO copywriters resulting in a multimodal ensemble designed to lure potential visitors through the www.visitgreece.gr portal and onto its social media platforms (Buhalis et al. 2011). Throughout this process, semiotic, cultural and natural resources work together to showcase the destination’s “goods”, and add value to visitors’ feelings.

The overall aim is to show how through tourism people escape to new storylands, realities are symbolized in words and visual images, destinations assume narrative styles, even monuments constitute a form of speech. Eventually, we wish to help all those engaged in the tourism industry see that linguistics, semiotics and tourism can and really do work together, and they are not different scientific disciplines as many of us may have considered.

Keywords: VisitGreece, sociolinguistics, sociosemiotics, tourism, destination branding
WHO IS LISTENING TO DESTINATIONS? TOURISTS’ USE AND TRUST OF OFFICIAL COMMUNICATION SOURCES

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Abstract

Tourists show complex patterns of information consumption behavior. Today’s information search and behavior are the result of an active process of using diverse sources to gather different types and amounts of information that contribute to their traveling experience (Gursoy, 2019). Understanding tourists’ information needs and behaviors are at the core of destinations’ strategic efforts. Tourism-centricity and customization are critical components of communication with potential tourists (Navío-Marco, Ruiz-Gómez, & Sevilla-Sevilla, 2018).

Since some decades ago destinations have invested vast endeavors in matching tourists’ information needs: official websites became one of the main contact points with potential tourists, and other more traditional formats, such as “electronic brochures”, have evolved to complex interactive media also supporting online reservations, virtual tours, contact with other tourists, etc. (Xiang, Magnini, & Fesermaier, 2015; Zach, Gretzel, & Xiang, 2010).

However, decades after this transformation started, the fierce competition of information sources online has made it arduous for destinations to position their official sources in this highly competitive context, and some researchers point the loss of relevance of official channels in the current moment (Fernández-Cavia, Marchiori, Haven-Tang, & Cantoni, 2017). This investigation delves into tourists’ informational habits to identify the role of official sources in their behavior. For this purpose, an internet-based survey was distributed in November 2017 to tourists from France, Germany, Italy, and the UK, who visited Spain in the three years prior to the questionnaire distribution. A total of 1,621 tourists participated in the survey.

Results show that 28% of the tourists use at least one official source to inform and communicate with the destination. However, matching previous research on information habits (Korneliussen & Greenacree, 2018), there are differences according to the tourist’s nationalities.
Tourists from the UK and Italy appear to be more inclined to use official sources than French and German tourists. Also, Italian tourists stand out for contacting the tourist office online; 19% of the Italian tourists declare to have reached the tourism office at some point of their stay. Differences were also identified between different group ages. The use of official sources by tourists above 55-year-old is significantly higher than the use made by tourists below 24 years-old, 25%, and 16% respectively. However, between 25 and 54 years old, the use of official sources remains rather stable, around 20% of tourists these ages check official sources. Finally, among the variety of official sources used by the tourists, official websites and APPs are perceived as the most useful, however, social media are the channels that tourists trust the most.

**Keywords:** informational habits, destinations, communication, online, trust
SUBNATIONAL BRANDING IN THAILAND: A STRATEGY TO PROMOTE SECONDARY TOURISM AND TO REDUCE REGIONAL DISPARITIES

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Abstract

Aim

The German geographer, Wolf Donner, describes Thailand as having five regional faces, namely, the North, the Northeast, the South, the Central region, and Bangkok (Donner, 1978). Each region has its own distinctive identity. The purpose of this paper is to examine how these five basic regions of Thailand are being branded. This study builds upon previous limited subnational branding research (Andersson and Tendensor, 2012; Nimijean, 2018). An important goal will be to see how subnational branding reflects or differs from national branding. This topic is extremely important and current as regional disparities are a major policy issue in Thailand (Arayah, 2017; Fry, et al., 2018a, b). One strategy the Thai government is actively using to address this policy issue is to promote secondary tourism to the regions of Thailand less well known both by local Thai nationals and certainly those from outside Thailand.

Main Approach: Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The Australian economist, Peter Warr (Warr & Ng, 1996), argues that the region as an important unit of analysis is too often ignored and, therefore, he calls for meso-analysis. Also the influential political science, Ross Harrison (2013) has introduced 3-D analysis which emphasizes the inclusion of regional analysis. Giraudy, et al. (2019) have just published a new volume providing insight into subnational research.
Method

This study will employ a mixed research methods design as advocated by Creswell & Creswell (2018). The three primary methods to be used are namely, 1) a content analysis (Gough, et al., 2017; Neuendorf, 2016) of key documents about the five regions, 2) four quantitative surveys of Thai university students in different geographic places and cultural contexts to ascertain how they perceive these five regions, and 3) finally in-depth interviews of well-known scholars with noted regional expertise. Among documents to be analyzed are special recent volumes recently published on each of the five major regions of Thailand by the Tourist Authority of Thailand (TAT, 2018). This tourist destination branding is just one of numerous perspectives examined. The four quantitative surveys will be of students at four quite different universities, administered by each of the collaborating four authors of the paper. Students will be asked to reflect on what their image of the identity of each region is. Finally, there will be in-depth interviews of the following scholars noted for their expertise on a specific region of Thailand. These scholars are both Thai and international. The individuals to be interviewed are Charles F. Keyes (2014) (leading scholar of Isan, the Northeast), Wajuppa Tossa (1990) (a leading scholar also of Isan), Michael Monsanto (a leading scholar of the deep Muslim South), Rung Kaewdang (scholar of the South), Chayan Vaddanaphuti (scholar of the North); and Supang Chantavanich (noted ethnographer of the South and Bangkok).

Findings

Our basic hypothesis is that each of the five regions will have its distinctive branding. From the analyses of these three quite different sources of data we will then present the major identity of each region and how it is being branded.

Conclusion

The value of this type of subnational branding research will be critically assessed as to its policy relevance and significance and its implications beyond Thailand.

**Keywords:** subnational branding, subnational research, the five regions of Thailand, secondary tourism in Thailand, regional disparities in Thailand
GREECE’S NATION BRAND AND ITS KEY ASSETS IN
GLOBAL PUBLIC OPINION

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Abstract

In this paper, we discuss brand assets of Greece, measured systematically for over a decade by the Anholt-Ipsos Nation Brands Index (NBI) program. NBI’s measurement instrument is a global tracking survey, conducted annually since 2008, with more than 250,000 completed interviews with adults in its database for benchmarking and tracking nations’ reputations. NBI measures the appeal of each country’s “brand image” by examining six dimensions of national competence: Exports, Governance, Culture, People, Tourism, and Immigration/Investment. In the findings, we see a clear evidence that Greece’s reputation is strongly anchored by how its Culture is perceived and by appeal of its Tourism assets. Among the six index categories, Culture and Tourism are the most stable and highly ranked for Greece, as opposed to its Governance, Exports, or Investment. Greece’s Culture in NBI is typically associated with heritage-related categories, as opposed to modern cultural phenomena. Positive views on Greek heritage are important drivers of the nation’s reputational position overall and its elite NBI rank on Tourism. Importantly, the country’s financial woes had only marginal impact on global perceptions of Greece’s Culture as seen in NBI’s tracking data since 2012. This specific strength of Greece’s nation brand alleviates reputational weakness in other categories and helps withstand reputational crises in turbulent times. Opportunities to better leverage Greece’s brand asset include a greater focus on markets where Greece’s cultural image can be improved, raising awareness of Greece’s cultural assets, as those with knowledge about Greece are significantly more likely to rank its culture the highest and have a stronger desire to visit Greece. Another opportunity is outreach to younger generations who, based on the NBI data, are less appreciative of Greece’s Culture, compared to the older age groups.

Keywords: Nation Brand, Image, Greece, Culture, Tourism, NBI
Chapter 1: Background

In today’s world, we see that countries and cities are becoming increasingly accessible, with abundance of choices on where to do business, work, and spend leisure time. Digital technologies and modern consumer goods and services can be found practically everywhere, regardless of nations’ cultures, religion, and level of development. The gap in hospitality offerings and business environments across the world is disappearing, and public desire to learn about and experience other cultures and peoples transcends barriers (Volos, 2018).

As a result, competition among nations and cities for business investments and tourism revenues is heating up, and this is a trend for years to come (Anholt, 2005). In this context, reputation of a destination, and specifically its brand identity, that is, a unique combination of perceived qualities ascribed to a nation, region, or city by the outside world, has turned into a key differentiator for places seeking to attract masses, talent, and investments, as opposed to a place’s functional characteristics (Govers, 2018). Image of a place is actionable, it drives supportive behavior in public diplomacy and investment preferences, especially for nations lacking economic or military might (Potter, 2003). The main purpose for Anholt-Ipsos Nation Brands Index and City Brand Index (NBI and CBI, for short) is in this space: based on an annual survey among more than 20,000 citizens globally, we provide reputation benchmarks to governments, inform policy makers and brand champions, and measure progress in building stronger reputations for nations and cities. This paper is based on the quantitative survey data from NBI over the past eleven years.

Pioneered by Simon Anholt, the Nation Brands Index measures the power and appeal of each country’s “brand image” by examining six dimensions of national competence: Exports, Governance, Culture, People, Tourism, and Immigration and Investment. Anholt and Ipsos, a global market and public opinion research firm headquartered in Paris, entered in a partnership to offer the Nation Brands Index to governments and their agencies as a resource to understand how the world perceives their nations as attractive destinations for trade, investment and tourism. NBI shows how their image and reputation differ from other nations and advises on what is misunderstood, exaggerated, or not known at all about them on global scene. Analysis is global in reach, and unique for each country.
In this paper, we present findings on Greece’s image and reputation, based on multiple annual waves of NBI data collection, a total of over 160,000 quantitative interviews among adults worldwide, conducted in 2012-2019 in which Greece was measured among other fifty nations annually. We will focus on dimensions of Culture and Tourism and their dynamics related to other reputational pillars in the six-dimensional reputational model, and on Greece’s nation brand as a whole as seen by other nations and socio-demographic groups.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, the study methodology is described in detail. Key findings from the survey data analysis are presented in Chapter 3. The report concludes with a study summary and final discussion in Chapter 4.

**Chapter 2: Methodology and Analytical Roadmap**

**Methodology**

The NBI survey is conducted in 20 major developed and developing countries that play important and diverse roles in international relations, trade and the flow of business, cultural and tourism activities, and represent the lion share of the world’s population and GDP. Given the increasing global role played by developing countries, the survey strives to represent regional balance as well as balance between high-income and middle-income countries. The core 20 panel countries are:

- **Western Europe/North America:** the U.S., Canada, the UK, Germany, France, Italy, Sweden
- **Central and Eastern Europe:** Russia, Poland, Turkey
- **Asia-Pacific:** Japan, China, India, South Korea, Australia
- **Latin America:** Argentina, Brazil, Mexico
- **Middle East/Africa:** Egypt, South Africa

In all, over 20,000 interviews are conducted annually with at least 1,000 interviews per country, comprising a total database of more than 231,000 surveys over eleven years of uninterrupted data collection from 2008 through 2019 (Greece was included in NBI measurements from 2012). Adults age 18 or over who are online are interviewed in each country. In each panel country the list of 50 nations is randomly assigned to respondents, each of whom rates 25 nations, resulting in each nation getting approximately 500 ratings per panel country, a total of about 10,000 ratings globally in one annual survey.
The list of 50 nations is based on the political and economic importance of the nations in global geopolitics and the flow of trade, businesses, people, and tourism activities. Regional representation and the diversity of political and economic systems are taken into consideration to make the study truly global. The list of 50 nations (2019) is as follows, by region:

North America: Canada, the U.S.; Western Europe: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Holland, Ireland, Italy, Northern Ireland, Norway, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the UK; Central/Eastern Europe: Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Turkey, Ukraine; Asia-Pacific: Australia, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, New Zealand, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, Thailand; Latin America: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru; Middle East/Africa: Botswana, Egypt, Kenya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, United Arab Emirates

The questionnaire for all survey countries contains the following questions:

• Awareness of nations: very familiar, familiar, some knowledge, know name only, haven’t heard of
• Favorability toward nations: (7-point scale: 7 = Extremely favorable, 4 = Neither favorable nor unfavorable, 1 = Extremely unfavorable)
• Experience with and attitudes regarding nations: visited for vacation, for business, purchased products or services from country; visited websites from country; regional favorability; personal values
• Nation Brands hexagon questions which are ratings scale questions, and word association questions in each of the six Nation Brands areas. For the ratings questions, seven-point scales anchored by strongly agree and strongly disagree, and middle point anchored by neither agree nor disagree (or other appropriate anchor words) are used:

Exports:

• feel better/worse about buying products from the country;
• makes major contribution to innovation in science and technology;
• is a creative place with cutting-edge ideas and new ways of thinking;
• product/service categories most associated with each country

Governance:
is competently and honestly governed;
respects rights of its citizens and treats them with fairness;
behaves responsibly in international peace and security;
behaves responsibly to protect the environment;
behaves responsibly to help reduce world poverty;
adjectives most accurately describe the government

Culture:
excels at sports;
has rich cultural heritage;
is an interesting/exciting place for contemporary culture such as music, films, art and literature;
cultural activities/products most expected to see produced

People:
would like a person from country as close friend;
the people would make me feel very welcome;
willingness to hire well-qualified people from country;
adjectives most accurately describe people

Tourism:
strongly like/not like to visit if money is no object;
rich in natural beauty;
rich in historic buildings and monuments;
has a vibrant city life and urban attractions;
words most accurately describe experience of visit

Immigration and Investment:
willingness to live and work for substantial period;
place with a high quality of life;
good place to study for educational qualifications;
has businesses I'd like to invest in;
country cares about equality in society;
word most accurately describes current economic and business

Standard demographic questions, including age, gender, type of area lived in, education, employment status, profession, use of social media, income, plus where applicable, geographical region and race/ethnicity.

NBI measures and ranks country reputations on six dimensions of national competence (Exports, Governance, Culture, People, Tourism, and Investment and Immigration), all of which are weighted equally (see Figure 1). Greece’s NBI score, as well as that of other nations, is presented as a score out of 100, calculated as an average of the scores given for the six underlying dimensions, each also with a score out of 100. On the respondent level, the responses to each index question are converted from its original 5 or 7-point scale to a 100 scale. That is done by creating a new score for each question. Each of the six indices is created, for each country, by calculating a respondent’s mean of the newly transformed scores of the questions that make up that index.

Pre-recruited online panels are utilized for the study. Large regularly updated panels are selected for each country where quality control procedures such as frequent respondent identity verification are practiced. In each surveyed country, we used “blended panels”, i.e., more than one online panel to achieve the total sample. This practice mitigates unknown biases that may be attributable to one single panel. Each year we are using a blended sample that is consistent with previous years, with 90% of the overall blended sample was comprised of past years’ panel sources, and the remaining 10% from new sources. The same blending methodology has been used in all 20 panel countries. As NBI is a trending survey, we keep online sampling consistent across the survey waves.

Based on online population statistics in each country, the outgoing sample in each country is stratified by four sample cells: males 18-34 and 35+, and females 18-34 and 35+. For each cell, random sample replicates are drawn and invitations are sent out to respondents to participate in the survey.

Survey data validation and cleaning is part of NBI’s quality control procedures. Unlike telephone or face-to-face surveys which are administered by trained interviewers, online surveys are self-administered and are at a higher risk of respondent error or falsification. Our treatments include removing “speeders” (respondents who complete the survey in an unreasonably fast time), a patterned response analysis that looks at straight-lining (clicking through a survey giving the same answers for each item); “extremism” (exclusive use of only extreme response options); and zig-zagging (moving diagonally
across response items in a grid). Additionally, we use a proprietary
deduplicating system, to prevent a respondent from entering and
completing the survey more than once.

Respondents are incentivized to complete the survey by donations to
charity on behalf of panelists, sweepstakes, points, gift cards, prizes,
music downloads and cash payments.

Sample deployment: multiple outgoing replicates are spaced across the
two-week field period so that the achieved total sample in each country
includes early and late responders, as well as weekday and weekend
responders. This procedure ensures sufficient fielding periods for each
launched replicate to ensure responses from people who have different
time availability (reflecting age, lifestyle and working status differences)
and to minimize early responder biases.

Weighting: to correct for biases known to occur due to survey
differential nonresponse, the achieved sample in each country is
weighted post-survey to reflect key demographic characteristics such as
age, gender and education of the online population in that country.
Additionally, in the United States, the United Kingdom, South Africa,
India and Brazil, race/ethnicity has been used for sample balancing.
Deming’s iterative proportional fitting algorithm (also known as "rim-
weighting") is used to weight the sample to be representative of the
online population. As the achieved sample sizes may vary slightly across
survey countries, when computing the aggregated 20-country average,
“one-country-one-vote” weighting is applied so each survey country is
treated equally in the global average.

Analytical Roadmap

The following analyses are used in this paper:

Core Analysis – Scorecards of core NBI measures showing Greece’s total
index score and category index scores such as Culture and Tourism,
using aggregated respondent-level converted scores from responses on a
7-point scale on each of the attributes that constitute six index
dimensions. All scorecard data are normalized to a scale of 0 to 100,
where 100 = best total NBI score, or best NBI score on six index
dimensions. Nations are ranked from 1 to 50, based on their scores.

Word Associations – Scorecards showing Greece’s percentage on each of
the word association questions, broken into three categories in the
analysis:
“Products” refers to associations with the products & services of a country and the cultural activities or products most expected to be seen when visiting.

“Momentum” refers to associations with the government and also the current economic and business conditions of a country.

“Feel” refers to associations with the people of a country and experiences from a visit.

**Drivers Analysis** – Bar graph showing the importance of each attribute in driving desire to visit Greece. The “importance” percentages of all attributes add to 100% of the total impact on Greece’s appeal explained by the 23 attributes. Note that this does not mean that Greece scores well on these attributes, only that they are important in driving desire to visit Greece. The weight of each key driver is estimated by Shapley regression and is transformed so they add to 100% to make the results easier to interpret. Rounding may make the sum slightly greater or less than 100%. This procedure estimates the importance of each attribute in its contribution to the total R-squared. Shapley value regression is similar to standard linear regression in that the independent relationship between each potential driver and the dependent variable is calculated while holding the other potential key drivers constant, controlling for multicollinearity.

**Chapter 3: Key Findings**

What makes a robust nation’s reputation and how this reputation changes in the global context and under impact of events? How it is related to Greece’s “nation brand”? We observed the following based on the NBI survey data over the past decade.

Firstly, countries with strong reputations are those that excel in multiple indices, denoting a well-rounded and robust image. For example, Germany and the United Kingdom both enjoy the strongest reputation levels, not only because they rank 1st and 3rd in overall NBI respectively (2018), but because they consistently make appearances in the top-5 lists across the board (see Figure 2). Further on the Germany example, this nation ranked #1 out of 50 nations in multiple years of measurement. Germany’s leading advantage lies in its consistent strengths across multiple dimensions: this nation is ranked among the top four in four reputational categories, with its key strengths lying consistently in Exports (the global public view “Made in Germany” products as the best to buy) and Immigration-Investment, but also importantly in Culture & Heritage sub-categories. It’s also well-
perceived in many countries, for instance Chinese rank Germany’s Exports, Governance, People, and Immigration/Investments in first place. We observed the same pattern of a “proportional” reputational strength in NBI analyses of Canada, France, Japan, Switzerland, and a few others. Such nations are virtually insular in reputational terms in the long run, with negative events or short-term trends barely leaving a dent on their overall reputations (Volos, 2017). Greece does not belong to this class as it does not perform strongly on all or most of nation-brand assets.

Secondly, there is a tier of countries with a weakness in one or several dimensions which makes their reputation less stable. Yet these nations also have key strengths that allow them resist drastic falls in reputation scores and ranks. These are “anchoring” qualities that keep such nations generally on the positive ground in turbulent times and help their reputations bounce back. A good example of this pattern is the U.S. with its “chronic” weakness in Governance as it is perceived by the global public. The nation has never done particularly well in this category, regardless of who is in the White House. In 2015, the U.S. ranked 18th on Governance, yet overall they led all nations in the NBI combined score, capitalizing on top strengths in Exports, and Immigration/Investment. The U.S. brand tanked after Trump was elected president in 2016, with the Governance dimension hit the hardest. However, its anchoring reputation assets kept it from falling further in the ranks, keeping the U.S. among the NBI top ten nations. Greece shares some similarities with the US image configuration, with Governance also being perceived among its weaknesses by the global public surveyed in NBI.

Thirdly, there is underlying stability in how nation images and reputations are configured, both in nations with proportional performance across reputational dimensions and in nations whose reputations are anchored by one or two key strengths. National reputations in general tend to revert back after the impact of dramatic events faded, and they keep their specific national identities, as seen in varying performance on attributes and dimensions (Fleury, Volos, Carlson 2018). For example, Culture & Exports are top drivers of Russia’s reputation through the years. Russia’s Culture always ranks in top 10, and Exports in top 20. Governance is the biggest detractor, ranked in bottom decile in 2014-2015, and in fourth decile in 2013, 2016-17. Russia’s lowest overall score occurred on the heels of events in Ukraine in 2014, suffering notable drops on all NBI Index dimensions that year, but it was still in the “normal” range of variation over previous years. As the Ukraine crisis faded from the spotlight in 2015-2018, Russia’s reputation rebounded and even inched up to its highest point
in the measured period (see Figure 3). Greece is among such nations, having a strong reputational anchor that alleviates long-term impact of “bad news.”

Ranking #21 overall in 2012 when we first measured Greece, and retaining the same position in 2018, this nation has a fairly stable nation brand with the total NBI score just above the global average, with strengths and weaknesses being uneven across the hexagon dimensions and attributes. In overall NBI’s ranks, Greece is above all nations in Eastern Europe, Latin America, Middle East, Asia-Pacific (with exception of Japan, Australia and New Zealand), and BRIC countries. It trails Western European nations, the U.S., and Canada (see Figure 4).

Consistently, Tourism proved to be Greece’s strongest asset, ranked the 6th worldwide (2018), followed closely by its Culture (#11). Greece’s Exports and Governance proved to be its weakest dimensions through the years, ranked # 29 and # 23 (2018), respectively. Overall configuration of the NBI reputational hexagon for Greece remained remarkably stable through 2012-2018, regardless of short-term negative conjectures and media coverage (see Figure 4).

As Greece has been dealing with tumultuous financial times in recent years, its overall reputational score and rank have remained relatively stable, anchored by the nation’s world-class assets of Tourism and Culture (see Figure 4a). Governance, Immigration & Investment were more susceptible to fluctuations at peaks of the financial crisis, but bounced back in the aftermath (Fleury & Volos, 2018). Trend-wise, global opinion of the Greek Exports, Governance, and Tourism have improved over the past six years. In relatively “calm” times, one of its weakest assets, Governance, appears to benefit from a halo effect generated by its strongest assets, Culture and Tourism.

We found that in the long run, the public’s desire to travel to Greece and other countries and experience their culture is remarkably resilient to effects of disturbing events, media campaigns around them, and adversarial rhetoric coming from political leaders and their advisors (Volos, 2018).

Let’s look closer at Culture. In the NBI study, cultural aspects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural “vibes” accrued from music, films, art, and literature, as well as its perceived excellence in sports. Respondents’ perceptions of the various cultural activities helped form a global image of any given country’s cultural “product.” Opinion of Greek culture has grown over the past six years by 0.82 of a point, and fluctuated minimally, staying above 62 points in the past three years. Interestingly,
during the “debt crisis” Greece’s Culture index did not register its lowest point, helping the overall nation’s reputation weather the storm (see Figure 5).

Sculptures and museums are seen as signature cultural assets of Greece, with modern cultural experiences, not related to heritage, associated with the nation less frequently (see Figure 6). Attributes related to Tourism dimension tell the same story: Greece’s richness in historic buildings and monuments scores high 78 points out of 100 maximally possible, unchanged since 2012 and among the top in the world (ranked 3rd in 2018).

On the other hand, “vibrant city life” is about 12 points behind the historic cultural attribute, albeit making good progress since 2012, rising by 3 points and ranked 13th in the world (see Figure 7). The latter is an important sign for Greece avoiding its image from becoming an “aging brand” and garnering appreciation not only for its classic culture, but also bringing attention to the country’s forward momentum in modernity. Yet, as of now this reputation area remains an opportunity.

A unique feature of the Greek reputation as a destination is a combination of its cultural appeal with the perceived natural beauty of the country. That’s what makes Greece’s “reputational anchor” special.

Among all attributes that make up the six dimensions and overall NBI score, one attribute for Greece stands out as the most impactful on desire to visit the country: it is “rich in natural beauty” (part of Tourism dimension).

Based on analysis of several inbound tourist markets important for Greece (2014 NBI data) and using Shapley value regression, we estimated all hexagon attributes for their importance in contribution to the total R-squared in the dependent variable, desire to visit Greece. The “importance” percentages of all attributes add to 100% of the total impact on Greece’s appeal explained by the attributes. Note that this does not mean that Greece scores well on these attributes, only that they are important in driving desire to visit Greece. The weight of each key driver is estimated by Shapley regression and is transformed so they add to 100% to make the results easier to interpret (see Figure 8). Rounding may make the sum slightly greater or less than 100%. In the U.S., “rich in natural beauty” is the top driver with Shapley coefficient 13.2. In Australia, it is the second important driver, with value 17.1. In Brazil, it is #1, with value 18.1. In India, it is also #1, at 16.2, as well as in China (16.3).
Importantly, the Digital Generation, executives, travelers, and social media users all rate Greece more highly than global citizens as a whole. The difference from total perceptions is smallest for the Digital Generation. While still not seen as strengths, the Digital Generation is more aware of Greece’s creativity and investment opportunities – but less praising of its history, heritage, or natural beauty than global citizens as a whole – suggesting an important venue for digital marketing.

Social media users are most praising of Greece, rating Greece on average more than 10 points higher than the total rating. The bump among social media users is particularly pronounced for Greece’s vibrant cities and their desire visit Greece or live in Greece long term. While social media users’ perceptions of Greece are anchored in its history and heritage, their views are more similar to overall perceptions on these areas. Social media users’ views are also in-line with the total view on some of Greece’s weaker areas: its contributions to science and actions to reduce poverty.

International travelers are also notably more praising of Greece – towards its welcoming people in particular. Greece’s advantage among international travelers is more modest for the excitement of its contemporary culture, as well as its care for social equality and actions to reduce world poverty, and appeal as a place to study abroad.

To a lesser degree, executives are also consistently more praising of Greece than global citizens as a whole. The difference is largest for Greece’s appeal as a place to visit and cultural heritage – along with its people’s welcoming and friendly nature. However, executive views are more on-par with average for many of Greece’s weaker areas, including its creativity, tech contributions, and business opportunities.

Across prominent markets, Greece’s brand image shows remarkable consistency along with important variation that provides clues on priorities in outreach for the country’s brand champions and promoters. Here is how the nation is seen in two important inbound markets for Greek tourism, the United States and China.

**US:** Americans praise Greece most for its historic buildings and monuments, rich heritage, and its natural beauty. Combined, these strengths create a strong desire among Americans to visit Greece if money were no object. In line with its rich history, Americans see trips to Greece as “educational.” Enhancing Greece’s appeal is its vibrant cities and exciting contemporary culture – as well as its warm and welcoming people who are “fun” and “tolerant.” Americans also see
Greece’s people as strong employees who are “hard-working” and “skillful.”

In contrast, Americans are less praising of Greece when it comes to measures of economic strength, seeing its investment opportunities, product quality, and technological contributions as among its weakest deficits – as well as its behavior to reduce poverty around the world – with Americans seeing Greece’s Momentum above all else as “declining” and “unstable.”

While Americans are not enthusiastic towards the Greek government’s competency, protection of its citizens rights, or care of social equality, these areas, as well as its economic prosperity, have little direct impact on overall desire to visit Greece. Instead, it is Greece’s beautiful scenery, history, vibrant cities, and warm and friendly people driving its appeal as a tourist destination.

**China:** As seen in other countries, the Chinese rate Greece most highly for its history, heritage, and natural beauty. This combination of historical appeal and natural beauty leads to a strong desire among the Chinese to visit Greece if money were no object, anticipating visits to Greece to be “fascinating,” and also “relaxing” and “romantic.”

While the Chinese are praising of Greece’s vibrant cities, they are relatively less enamored with its contemporary culture – and both are secondary to its heritage, associating the nation more with “sculpture” and “museums” rather than lively cultural assets such as “films” and “music.”

Greece’s modernity also suffers in terms of its creativity and contributions to technology – the latter among Greece’s weakest areas.

The Chinese show desire to live in Greece long-term, showing some appreciation of Greece’s care for social equality and fair treatment of its citizens, but do not see Greece’s government as particularly competent or honest.

The economic giant has modest views of Greece’s export power, not offering strong product quality or business opportunities.

Most prominently, the Chinese desire to visit Greece is driven by its natural beauty and rich history; secondary drivers are its heritage, welcoming and friendly people, and overall appeal as a place to live – all relative strengths.

Greece’s deficits – business investments, tech contributions, creativity, and product quality – have minimal impact on the Chinese desire to visit.
Chapter 4: Implications and Conclusion

One of the striking findings on worldwide perception on Greece’s culture in the NBI data is its strong correlation with familiarity about Greece and experience of past visits. Those with knowledge about Greece are significantly more likely to rank its culture the highest, compared to those who have little knowledge about Greece. (see Figure 10). Therefore, raising awareness and knowledge through external communications is important for how a nation is perceived even on those reputational assets that seem to be fully “owned” by this nation for the time being. In turn, greater familiarity breeds desire to visit, and we see in the NBI data, travelers to Greece become the most enthusiastic supporters of its “nation brand.”

Greece’s nation brand strategy, its cultural marketing in particular, should take into account varying recognition of its positive image and reputational assets by global citizens.

Variation in appeal of Greece’s Culture and Tourism assets gives clues to how these can be leveraged. We have mentioned one opportunity: promoting Greece’s modern culture and vibe that is behind in its perceived appeal globally and consistently, as seen in the past seven years of annual measurement.

Variation across demographics is another feature to leverage. When it comes to perceived appeal of Greece’s cultural heritage, there is a significant difference across four age groupings: the score for Cultural Heritage for Greece is 70.8 among 18-29-year-olds, 74.67 among 30-44-year-olds, 77.73 among 45-59-year-olds, and it is the highest among global public age 60 and over (see Figure 9). This finding points out to importance of promoting cultural tourism and educating the young about Greece’s cultural assets, which should not be taken for granted.

Geographic variation (see Figure 10) in appreciation of Greece’s cultural heritage is another opportunity for brand Greece. Markets with relatively lower appreciation for Greece’s cultural heritage, for example, the U.S., the U.K., and India need to be prioritized in promotion events and campaigns. In Germany, by contract, appreciation of Greece’s Culture is the highest. One can argue that this finding gives an idea of how efforts to attract global public to and raise knowledge of Greece’s most valuable reputation assets should be distributed and differentiated across inbound tourist markets.

Another important area to analyze in this regard is a direction of the nation’s market trend, whether appreciation of Greece’s image on culture on the global scene remains stable, or trends up or down. Trends
are especially critical to watch in the most important inbound tourism markets, such as benchmarking and tracking Greece’s standing on cultural appeal in its largest market, China. Based on the NBI data in 2012-2018, appeal of Greece’s cultural heritage in China shows a generally unchanged trend in the past seven years with Greece ranked highly year to year by the Chinese, currently at # 2. At the same time, NBI findings also show a certain slippage in the cultural heritage score for Greece among the Chinese (see Figure 11), undoubtedly, a sign worth watching and identifying a source of this slippage, for instance by demographics subgroups in China, travelers, executives and social media users.

To conclude, stability of reputational patterns and specific configurations of image and identity among nations are evident in the NBI data. For Greece, its NBI hexagon (image configuration and key strengths) and its performance on reputation attributes comprising it indicate critical “anchoring” importance of what the world perceives as Greece’s top-class assets in Culture and Tourism. This specific strength of Greece’s nation brand alleviates reputational weakness in other categories and helps withstand reputational crises in turbulent times.

At the same time, these findings do not imply that Greece, just like other nations, is locked in its reputational “cage” and can take its image assets for granted. Communications remain critical as they help improve awareness and spread a good word about Greece’s assets. What is the current state of these assets, how these are preserved and developed, how these are presented to the public: all these questions are critical for maintaining the nation’s image in good shape. Communications on cultural assets require proper planning and well-informed marketing, even in places with abundance of heritage sites, such as Greece, and its main cities (Deffner, Labrianidis 2005).

To make the world appreciate cultural assets of a nation, region, or city, and convert good feelings into action (purchasing products “made in here,” visiting, advocating in social media, etc), quite simply, the public needs to be kept up to date on good things happening in that place. Most importantly, the public and its key “stakeholders” such as opinion influencers, travelers, business community, and prospective students should hear a credible evidence that a nation, region, or city itself appreciates and takes good care of these assets.

As presented in this paper with a case of Greece, monitoring and trending public perceptions on place image and “brand” through global opinion surveys, such as NBI, functions as a quantitative feedback tool, allowing to discover main current barriers to development of a stronger,
more attractive nation or city brand as well as its unique differentiations, and identify priorities and themes to address in communications to key stakeholders and gaps in knowledge and understanding of brand promise and identity – globally, and by market and key audience.

References


Appendix

Figure 1. Anholt NBI Hexagon and its Components

Dimensions of Nation Brands Index
We measure knowledge and perceptions of nations across six comprehensive dimensions.

- **Immigration/Investment**
  - Desire to live there
  - High quality of life
  - Good place to get education
  - Good increase to innovation
  - Equality in society

- **Tourism**
  - Unique terrain
  - Natural beauty
  - Natural landmarks
  - Vibrant city life

- **People**
  - Welcoming people
  - Appeal as friends
  - Employability of people

- **Exports**
  - Science and technology
  - Product goodwill
  - Creative place

- **Governance**
  - Competent and honest governance
  - Citizens’ rights
  - Global security
  - Environmental record
  - Reducing world poverty

- **Culture**
  - Sports excellence
  - Cultural heritage
  - Contemporary culture

Word associations:
- NBI: Forward thinking, Modern, Declining, Backward, etc.
- Environment: Romantic, Fancy, Spiritual, Relaxing, Stunning, etc.
- People: Hardworking, Skillful, Fun, Rich, Aggressive, etc.
- Exports: Banking, Crafts, Fashion, Food, Film and television, High technology, etc.
- Governance: Predictable, Corrupt, Transparent, Trustworthy, Dangerous, etc.
- Culture: Museums, Sports, Modern design, Music, Street carnival, etc.

Figure 2. NBI Hexagon Top Performers (2018)
**Figure 3: Rebounding Reputation: NBI Case of Russia**

Russia’s Governance score showed the strongest drop during the 2014 dip in the country’s overall reputation.

But Russia’s appeal as a tourist destination and perceptions of its cultural attractions also suffered in the 2014 wave.

Yet, all 3 index dimensions bounced back practically in unison after the 2014 crisis.

**Figure 4: Greece in NBI**

**Greece’s Brand Trajectory 2012 v. 2018**

- Overall NBI, People, and Tourism rank consistently since Greece was first measured in 2012.

- Opinion of Greek Exports, Governance, and Tourism have improved over the past six years.
Figure 4a: Time-line of Key Reputation Indicators for Greece and “Anchoring Effect”

Debt Crisis Had Minor Impact on Greece’s Culture and Tourism that “Anchored” Greek Reputation

As Greece has been dealing with tumultuous financial times, a number of key reputational indices has been impacted more than the others.

Culture and Tourism remained fairly stable, and “anchored” the overall reputation from precipitous fall.

Governance, Immigration & Investment were more susceptible to fluctuations at peaks of the financial crisis, but bounced back in the aftermath.

Figure 5: Greek Culture in NBI

Greece’s Brand Trajectory
Culture: 2012-2018

- Opinion of Greek culture has grown over the past six years by 0.82 of a point.
- Opinion of Greek culture reached its peak in 2017 when the score climbed to 63.22 points.

Culture aspects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural “vibe” accrued from music, film, art, and literature, as well as its perceived excellence in sports. Respondents’ perceptions of the various cultural activities help form a global image of any given country’s cultural “product.”

Greece’s Culture Score (max. possible score is 100)
**Figure 6: Word Associations Related to Greece’s Culture**

Perception of Greece’s Culture: History over Modernity

- Museums and Sculptures are the top two words associated with Greek culture.
- Few associate with modern, not related to heritage, cultural experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>2015 Score</th>
<th>2016 Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sculpture</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Carnival</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opera</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern Design</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circus</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Figure 7: Perception of Legacy and Modernity as Tourism Attractions**

Opinion of Greek Tourism Offerings

Views of Greek Tourism are high and stable

- Would Visit if Money Was No Object (Score): 69.15 in 2015, 71.46 in 2016
- Rich in Historic Buildings and Monuments (Score): 78.22 in 2015, 78.22 in 2016
- Has Vibrant City Life and Urban Attractions (Score): 63.37 in 2015, 66.34 in 2016

---

**Culture**
Cultural aspects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural ‘brand’ arrived from music, films, art, and literature, as well as its perceived excellence in sports. Independent perceptions of the various cultural activities help form a global image of any given country’s cultural ‘product’.

---

**Tourism**
Respondents rate a country’s tourism appeal in three major areas: natural beauty, historic buildings and monuments, and vibrancy of urban life and attractions. Tourism potential is also rated: how likely a respondent would be to visit a country if money were not an object, and whether the likely experience would be represented by objectives such as romantic, stressful or spiritual.
Figure 8: Top Drivers for Desire to Visit Greece in Select Markets (Shapley Coefficients, NBI 2014)

Figure 9: Effect of Familiarity on Opinion of Greece’s Culture

Opinion of Greek Culture Among Those Familiar with Greece

Those with exposure to Greece have higher opinion of its Culture

Cultural aspects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural “sales” accrued from music, films, art, and literature, as well as its perceived excellence in sports. Respondents’ perceptions of the various cultural activities helped form a global image of any given country’s cultural “product.”
**Figure 10: Gender and Age Variation in Perception on Greece’s Cultural Heritage**

### Opinion of Greek Culture by Demographics

Those who are older rank Greece’s cultural heritage higher than those who are younger.

---

**Figure 11: Variation in Perception of Greece’s Cultural Heritage by Country**

### Perception of Greece’s Cultural Heritage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Greek’s Cultural Heritage Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>9th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>9th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>8th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*Culture*  
Cultural aspects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural “vibe” across music, film, art, and literature, as well as its perceived excellence in sports. Respondents’ perceptions of the various cultural activities helped form a global image of any given country’s cultural “product.”
Figure 12: China’s Trend in Perception of Greece’s Culture, Score and Rank

Perception of Greece’s Cultural Heritage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>76.90</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>75.25</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Culture**

Cultural objects are measured by gathering perceptions of a country’s heritage and its contemporary cultural ‘products’ accrued from music, films, art, and literature, as well as perceived excellence in sports. Respondents’ perceptions of these cultural activities helped form a global image of any given country’s culture’s ‘product.’
**DIMENSIONS AND FORMATION PATHS OF NATIONAL IMAGES. A TWO-WAY EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OF NATIONAL IMAGES ON CHINESE AND KOREAN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS**

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**Abstract**

As Chinese economic strength improves, there is a longing to enhance our influence within international affairs and to obtain higher international prestige at both a national and local citizen level. It had been extensively shown that national image plays a positive role in expanding exports, stimulating investment, attracting talent and promoting tourism. However, the enhancement of a country’s economic strength has no direct relation to the improvement of a nation’s prestige and influence in international affairs.

In reviewing the state of current research in China, most scholars have been exploring China’s national image and its strategy construction from the perspectives of media representation and agenda setting. In addition, the perspective of most current research on image issues in a certain country or region is a response to China’s requirements for external public relations and image development. Until now, this has been, necessarily, a “self-centered perspective”.

However, national image is not simply a reflection of what is portrayed as an image in the media, domestic or international. National image is a multi-dimensional blend of people’s beliefs, emotions and attitudes relating to a country and not just influenced by local media representation. Image is significantly influenced by interrelated factors such as product experience, direct experience, political and diplomatic relations, non-governmental contact, history and culture, knowledge of social institutions, etc. Image is also, from the perspective of those we wish to influence, a comprehensive association about a place formed in the receiver’s mind. The research on images must not simply focus on “attitudes” and “viewpoints” without considering wider influencing behavior. We should also consider the role of time on image formation,
as impressions formed over a series of interactions or influences and not just a singular channel of communication or a small slice of time. A country’s image in a certain region was gradually formed during its long-term interactive communication with such region and this was an ongoing, multi event, dynamic process.

“China and Korea” were therefore chosen as a pair of subject and object countries, for research that was conducted through questionnaire surveys on national images. Chinese and Korean undergraduate students were the sample base for research conducted from October, 2017 to March, 2018 and we collected a total number of 709 valid results. Through data processing and analysis, this study adopted the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) method to extract the factors that impacted national images, such as national power, social institution awareness, evaluation of relationships, product experience and non-governmental contact, and from this we constructed and examined the relation model of national image formation paths. One finding, as part of an interrelated and comprehensive conceptual system, was that national image was indeed also influenced by other important factors. This paper mainly focuses on awareness, emotion and behavior with an aim being to reveal the structure and path relations among the main factors that influence national image.

Keywords: national image, structural equation modeling, product awareness, public attitudes
BRANDING OF CITIES AND MUNICIPALITIES: A SYSTEMS THEORETICAL EXPLORATION

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Abstract

The concept of branding of cities and municipalities has gained attention over the past years. Municipality branding can best be seen as a strategy that functions within the larger entity of the city. Little research – however – has been done on the branding of cities and municipalities. This paper is a theoretical exploration of the concepts relating to cities, municipalities and their stakeholders as actors in a branding system. The result is a model which can be used to research the interaction between cities, municipalities and their target groups in a branding system, functioning within the larger branding system of a city.

Drawing on the systems theory, developed by the sociologist Niklas Luhmann in the 1960’s, this branding system is set up following the systems theoretical concept of the autopoietic system. It explains the brand regulation, the use of the brand and the interaction between it. Branding must be regulated to connect the operations of the brand owner (e.g. a marketing bureau, municipality or tourism agency) with the actions and expectations of the brand user (inhabitants, visitors, organisations) to become successful and well rooted. The brand attracts and bonds relevant target groups and stakeholders around the recognisable values and symbols that differentiate the brand and gives it clarity.

Adding an interplay with its roots in the systems theory which stands in the functionalist tradition in sociology and concepts from the interpretative tradition, it becomes possible to come to consider the role of culture in the branding system.

Compared to city, place and municipality branding, the brand identity of commercial brands is relatively simple, because it is mainly aimed at economic gain and often selling one set of products. Brand systems of cities and municipalities are more complex because these brands tend to have conflicting values, as an expression of their role in society (e.g. city to visit, city to live in, city of commerce). This may lead to a versatile brand. When recognised, this can lead to ‘a unique assemblage of characteristics that can be used in the branding process.’ (Waeraas, 2008, p217) The findings of the theoretical exploration of the branding
system are relevant for the research of branding of destinations, municipal organisations or local organisations in relation to their larger brand environment (cities, regions, countries).

A theoretical foundation for branding of cities and municipalities is defined using the systems theory which stands in the functionalist tradition, with an interplay with the interpretative tradition. This branding system is worked out with the concepts of identity, culture and image. This leads to a brand system of cities and public organisations within these cities which can be used as a theoretical basis for the research of these entities.

**Keywords:** City branding, Municipal branding, Public branding, Systems theory

**Introduction**

Branding municipalities has gained popularity over the past ten years (Waeraas et al, 2015). Municipality branding functions within the larger entity of the city. In practice it is often unclear what is perceived as being communicated or owned by a municipality or merely belongs to a city and its stakeholders. Therefore municipality branding can best be studied in relation to the larger construct of a city.

City and place branding have been studied widely (Kavaratzis and Dennis 2018). Municipality branding – being both related to city branding and to public branding – has not received wide attention. (Leijerholt et al, 2018)

This paper aims to form a theoretical foundation for a study of branding in cities and public organisations within cities with the central question ‘How can the process of branding of public organisations within cities with the aim of establishing meaningful relations be understood in the interplay between stakeholders and brand regulators?’

This is a relevant question as municipalities and other governmental institutions are functioning as brands and can be studied from a branding perspective. Further: ‘clear tendencies of corporate branding are observable across different levels and types of public institutions.’ (Waeraas, 2008, p205).

Within the academic field of public branding most attention has been paid to the branding of public health institutions and higher education institutions. Studies of municipality and government branding are scarce.
For a theoretical foundation most studies have turned to the theoretical foundations of corporate branding as they have been established over the past twenty years.

Kavaratzis (2009) defines the similarities and differences between corporate brands and city brands. Because of a diversity of stakeholders, the number of organisations steering the brand, there is limited control over the brand. ‘So, city branding and corporate branding are similar in that they are dissimilar to product branding, but does this mean that city brands should be treated and managed as corporate brands?’ (Kavaratzis, 2009, p29) The same might go for municipality branding as part of public branding. There are multiple stakeholders influencing the brand. The organisation has multiple goals (organising democracy, building houses, social care, maintaining public order etc) and as there is no board with the sole purpose of optimising shareholder’s value, there are multiple brand regulators and stakeholders.

Addressing the diversity of stakeholders, the multiplicity of goals and the conflicting values in a public brand, a different approach is necessary to study the brand. For example in the city of Eindhoven (The Netherlands), the municipality has the goal of branding the city as an attractive place to invest, to study in and to visit, while the city is also part of the larger Brainport Eindhoven (‘Europe’s leading innovative top technology region’). To reach an optimal brand proposition for Eindhoven itself and to cooperate in Brainport Eindhoven, the municipality - being the brand regulator of the city brand and the co-regulator of the region brand - has to deal with multiple branding goals, a diversity of stakeholders and possibly conflicting values.

In his 2004 dissertation Roland Van der Vorst defines a theoretical model for commercial brands, using the systems theory of Niklas Luhmann. Elaborating this model and making it applicable for public branding this model has been set up in an interplay of theoretical paradigms.

**Theoretical embedding**

The theoretical framework aims to define the relations between brander (municipal organisation) and brand users (target groups of the municipality), within the brand environment of a city, using concepts from both the systems theory and the interpretative theory.
Luhmann’s theory on social systems describes the reproduction and development of systems by communicative actions (‘communications’) which are related (Van der Vorst, 2004, p24). This reproduction works with the mechanism of autopoiesis.

**Autopoietic systems**

The unity of autopoietic systems requires a synthesis of information, utterance and understanding. These are co-created within the process of communication. The synthesis is ‘produced by a network of communication, not by some kind of inherent power of consciousness, or by the inherent quality of the information.’ (Luhmann, 1986, p174)

The self-reference of a social system ‘is based on an ongoing auto-referential (autopoietic) process, which refers to itself as processing the distinction between itself and its topics.’ (Luhmann, 1986, p175) The system is thereby dynamic: ‘The instability of its elements is a condition of its duration.’ (Luhmann, 1986, p180) It ‘must always be produced by and through communication.’ (Luhmann, 2012, p79)

Public organisations can be seen as living social systems with actors and associations. ‘The brand (...) is created by, via and for the branding system, the recursively related communicative actions of the brander and brand users.’ (Van der Vorst 2004, p26).

‘For the existence of the brander system, it is crucial that it applies a self description that helps it to reflect. A self description indicates something (the organisation) it belongs to itself.’ (Van der Vorst, 2004, p89)

**Comment**

On the question if Luhmann’s theory is still accepted, the British sociologist John Mingers argues that this theory reduces ‘a society or part of it (...) as a processor of inputs into outputs’ (Mingers, 2002, p280): ‘One communication may stimulate another but surely it does not produce or generate it.’ (Mingers, 2002, p290). Van der Vorst has shown that Luhmann’s theory can be used to build a model of a branding system, by using it as a multi-layered communicative system that studies various communications by people and institutions. This contradicts the comment that Luhmann is too reductionist in viewing the rich complex of interactions.

The Brazilian sociologist Josep Pont Vidal (2017) sees clear possibilities for using the system theory in studying organisations and their
environment, especially because it describes the self-organising characteristics of the system, which is even more present in public (bureaucratic) organisations. He juxtaposes Luhmann’s work with other theorists like the post-structuralist Pierre Bourdieu and sees Luhmann’s concepts of autopoiesis and self-reference as enduring.

Public organisations

Wæraas (2008) stresses the importance of seeing a public organisation as a complex system: ‘Balancing multiple and competing values and goals, as well as responding to different and inconsistent demands and needs – which is essential for all public sector organizations – requires a high degree of flexibility.’ (Wæraas, 2008, p215). Wæraas applies the theorem of systems theorist Walter Buckley ‘(…) only variety can regulate variety.’ (Buckley, 1968, p468): ‘Applied to the field of formal organizations, the principle of requisite variety implies that the organizational response to complex and ambiguous inputs must itself be complex and ambiguous.’ (Wæraas, 2008, p216)

Functionalist and interpretative

Luhmann and Buckley are in the structural functionalist tradition, their systems theoretical work is part of the functionalist paradigm, developed by sociologists as Emile Durkheim and Talcott Parsons. In researching organisational culture Schultz and Hatch (1996) underline the possibilities of the functionalist paradigm, while developing a new strategy that promotes paradigm interplay with the interpretative tradition.

The interpretative paradigm was founded by Max Weber in reaction to Durkheim.

‘In contrast to the causal mode of functionalist analysis, interpretative analysis is associative. Interpretivists explore the active creation of meaning and the ways in which meanings are associated in organisations. In this mode of analysis, particular cultural themes, images, and metaphors emerge.’ (Schultz and Hatch, 1996, p538)

The functionalist paradigm focuses on objects (data) and the interpretative paradigm focuses on subjects (people). Because of the role of meaningful relations in the central question, and to understand the role of culture in the branding system, this research also needs the interplay of both paradigms, otherwise the focus would be too much on the adaptation of organisations to their environment.
‘In interplay the researcher moves back and forth between paradigms, so that multiple views are held in tension. (...) Thus interplay allows for cross-fertilization without demanding integration.’ (Schultz and Hatch, 1996, p535)

Schultz and Hatch state that this interplay is needed because of the criticism ‘that both paradigms focus on pattern and essence and involve static representations of culture.’ (ibid, p552). The ‘recognition of their interdependence enables the researcher to maintain their tensions and thereby reach a more subtle and complex appreciation of organizational culture.’ (ibid, p552)

Branding is about values which link branders and brand users. The interpretative paradigm adds a layer to the brand system, because it handles ‘reality as a socially made creation through interaction and thus focus on process information and how people create their own environment.’ (Hulberg 2010, p62)

Culture is an important construct in branding and according to Hatch and Schultz its role can be better understood by using the interpretative paradigm. ‘According to this paradigm, webs of meaning lie behind the immediate expressions of culture, turning the study of culture into a search for expressions of such cultural essence.’ ibid, p542)

### Branding system

De Chernatony and Dall’Olmo (1998) value the idea of brand as an identity system, because it stresses the importance of the concept of the brand as more than the sum of its parts. (De Chernatony and Dall’Olmo 1998, p420).

They show that the defining a brand as a value system gives a multi-layered view: ‘(...) individual brands are representations of unique clusters of values.’ (ibid. p422)

This ‘challenges the organisation to take into consideration not only the functional capability of the brand, but also the relevance to consumers of symbolic values and meanings imbuing the brand. In Clark’s (1987) words, “values provide the important link between consumers and marketers” ’ (ibid. p422) and in our case between other stakeholders and brand owners.

This definition sees the brand as a dynamic experiential system.

The branding system is setup following the system theoretical concept of the autopoietic system. By describing and researching the complexity of
the branding system in public organisations Van der Vorst’s theoretical model will be extended using elements from the interpretive approach.

The reason for using this model is that it explains the brand regulation, the use of the brand and the interaction between it. Van der Vorst: ‘The operations of the brander must be regulated by the brand regulator in such a way that they can easily connect with the operations of the brand user. If such regulation is successful, the chances are increased that the operations of the brander and brand user become mutually connected and, thus, the branding system is maintained and developed.’ (Van der Vorst, 2004, p82)

Hatch, Schultz et al (2001) describe the importance of well rooted branding: ‘Like a beacon in the fog, a corporate brand attracts and orients relevant audiences, stakeholders and constituencies around the recognizable values and symbols that differentiate the organization. But corporate branding is not only about differentiation, it is also about belonging. When corporate branding works, it is because it expresses the values and/or sources of desire that attract the key stakeholders to the organization and encourage them to feel a sense of belonging.’ (Hatch, Schultz et al, 2001, p7)

Identity, culture and image

In researching brands Hatch and Schultz use three variables: identity, culture and image.

‘Organizational identity refers broadly to what members perceive, feel and think about their organizations. It is assumed to be a collective, commonly-shared understanding of the organization’s distinctive values and characteristics.’ (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p357)

‘Corporate identity differs from organizational identity in the degree to which it is conceptualized as a function of leadership and by its focus on the visual.’ (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p357)

Both concepts are answers to these questions, but corporate identity emphasizes the role of top management in answering the strategic question: ‘who do we want to be’. This gives a process-based view of identity. The definition of identity has thus become an answer to the question ‘what and how are we becoming .’ (Schultz and Maguire, 2013, p9)

Corporate identity is dynamic and fluid. It is a living entity and part of the autopoietic system, which ‘once launched and accepted (...) no longer (belongs) (...) to the management of an organization but to all its
stakeholder - customers, shareholders, employees, business partners, and suppliers.’ (Balmer et al, 2009, p17-18)

‘Organisational culture is often described as a group's fundamental set of values, assumptions, attitudes and behaviour, which is a result of, or reflects, an organisational history.’ (Hulberg, 2006, p64). Or, putting it shortly: ‘What we feel we are’ (Balmer and Greyser 2006, p735)

De Chernatony (1999) stresses the importance of this internal process for the brand: ‘Brands are clusters of values and, particularly for corporate brands, these values emanate from people inside the firm.’ (De Chernatony, 1999, p172)Image is distinguished as the outsider’s perception: how others see us. ‘Corporate images: views of the organization developed by its stakeholders; the outside world’s overall impression of the company including the views of customers, shareholders, the media, the general public, and so on.’ (Hatch, Shultz et al 2001, p9)

Hatch and Schultz articulate the processes linking identity and culture (reflecting and expressing) and identity and image (expressing and mirroring). ‘(...) we argue that organizational identity needs to be theorized in relation to both culture and image in order to understand how internal and external definitions of organizational identity interact.’ (Hatch and Schultz, 2002, p991)

‘(...) our contribution lies in specifying the processes of expressing and reflecting and in articulating the interplay of all four processes that together construct organizational identity as an ongoing conversation or dance between organizational culture and organizational images.’ (ibid. p991)

Following this definition, branding can be seen as regulation of action of the brand owner in the brand system.

*Figure 1. The Organizational Identity Dynamics Model (Hatch and Schultz, 2002, p991)*
Brand system of cities and public organisations within cities

The branding system is set up with among others a communal brand, a public brand and several public/private brands. For example:

*Table 1. Communal, public and other brands within a country or city*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand system</th>
<th>Communal brand</th>
<th>Public brand</th>
<th>Public / private brand</th>
<th>Other sub brands (using elements of communal brand)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>Rijksoverheid (National government)</td>
<td>Holland.com</td>
<td>Higher education institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Stadt Berlin</td>
<td>Visitberlin.com</td>
<td>BVG (Berlin Transport Agency)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Gemeente Amsterdam (Municipality of Amsterdam)</td>
<td>Iamsterdam</td>
<td>University of Amsterdam Amsterdam Museum Ouder- en Kindteam (public youth health and social care)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 illustrates the existence of multiple brands within a brand system. It consists of a communal brand, public organisation brands and promotional brands.

Because this brand does not have a sole and clear owner, regulation of the communal brand is limited. Multiple sets of values are often attributed to a communal brand by brand users and also by brand watchers, while possible brand owners have limited influence and power over it.

In a city this leads to a question like: ‘who owns the city?’. If the communal brand is a nation it leads to a question like: ‘what values define our nation, do we have common and fixed values?’

Reflecting on multiple values and the influence of brand owners Waeraas (2008) refers to the uniqueness paradox as defined by Schultz and Antorini (2005): organisational values tend to be too general. ‘Despite the fact that most organizations have unique organizational values, they are often surprisingly similar and cliched when they are expressed. This phenomenon occurs in organizations in both the public and the private sectors, and prevents them from truly expressing who they are and their reason for existing.’ (Waeraas 2008, p214)

Because of the uniqueness paradox and because of the influence of the communal brand these public brands have a complex set of values.

For city brands and municipality brands within cities these dynamics are as important as for commercial brands. However, where the brand identity for commercial brands is mainly aimed at economic gain, it is even more complex for public brands which are also in the pursuit of clarity.

Waeraas (2008) argues that public organisations have to work with multiple values and cannot choose one simple set of coherent values. Public brands tend to have conflicting values, as an expression of their role in society. This leads to a versatile brand: ‘Recognize existing
attributes as a unique assemblage of characteristics that can be used in the branding process.’ (Waaraas, 2008, p218).

The process of branding with multiple values and limited control over the brand has been shown in several studies. Schmeltz and Kjeldsen (2019) have described this with the concept of different brand voices, questioning whether this leads to cacophony or polyphony.

Leijerholt et al (2018) argue that public organisations often face conflicting values and interests, such as having both an authoritative role to safeguard public interest and being service-oriented to meet user needs and interest, thus driving the need for variety.

Rochette (2015) argues that public brands deal with public institutional values, market values and democratic values. ‘The tension created in public organisations comes from the friction between new operating methods introduced into the public sphere and spawned by the managerial logic with traditional public values. (Rochette 2015, p331-332)

In the case of the brand ‘Amsterdam’ the roles are:

Table 2. Brand Amsterdam and roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand</th>
<th>Brand owner / regulator</th>
<th>Brand user</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communal brand</td>
<td>Limited brand regulation (who owns the brand?)</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>Municipality, public-private partnerships (pps) and other stakeholders take their influence</td>
<td>Visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Companies and institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gemeente Amsterdam</td>
<td>Municipality</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td></td>
<td>Visitors</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Companies and institutions</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Internal (employees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iamsterdam</td>
<td>Amsterdam &amp; Partners</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Visitors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion and further research

Setting up a model comprising a municipal brand system within the larger city brand environment helps to explain how identity, culture and image are formed in a municipality within the larger city brand system. Elements of this model could be derived from earlier work of Kavaratzis (2009), Hatch and Schultz (1997, 2002) and Waeraas (2008). A comprehensive model describing municipal brands within the brand environment of cities did not yet exist.
Using this model as the theoretical foundation under my projected PhD study at least three types of research are needed to explain the brand system. Starting with a study which is to shed light on the question ‘what is the public brand of a municipality within the larger brand of a city?’, it continues with a study on the relationship between organisational identity and organisational culture in a municipality in a phase of reorganisation. The third study will focus on the effect of corporate identity interventions in the branding system. An experimental exploration of brand associations in a public branding system is foreseen as well.

The literature study which I conducted made clear that the research of public branding of cities and municipalities can draw on the work that has been done over the past years in the field of public branding on one hand and place branding on the other. Because of the complexity of public branding of cities and municipalities, relating mainly to the fact that no products are sold directly, the necessity arose of constructing a comprehensive theoretical model.

Adding multiple layers of values to the model Van der Vorst has based on the systems theory appears to result in this comprehensive model. Following the theoretical observations of Schultz and Hatch to see culture, which is an important part of branding, as a construct which cannot be studied solely with an interpretative model, leads to the addition of an interplay between the functionalist and the interpretative paradigms.

Paying attention to Waeraas’ emphasis on the uniqueness paradox and Kavaratzis’ position that there is a limited control over city brands leads to the awareness that the research of public branding of cities and municipalities is relatively complex with many factors and values.

Overall the construction of this model can be seen as the initial impetus for a well rooted theoretical framework of municipality branding within the larger city brand environment.

References


CREATIVE MANAGERS, INNOVATION AND THEIR IMPACT ON SMALL CITY PLACEMAKING: EVIDENCE AND IMPLICATIONS FROM THE CITY OF PATRAS

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KOUTSOBINAS THEODORE
University of Patras, Greece

Abstract

We examine placemaking through the impact of creative managers working in innovation hubs and conditional to the constraints of a small city in the Mediterranean, the city of Patras. We conduct an extensive qualitative research on the behaviour of analysts involved in technology companies based in Patras. This study demonstrates the potential of the contribution of creative managers and innovation managers in the rebranding of the city. Patras can be developed as a creative city with smart potential because the innovation developed in the city can be used by city stakeholders to develop placemaking and city branding activities. This requires the collaboration on the part of the city and regional authorities, institutional and culture change. Moreover, Patras can potentially be enabled as a competitive city in Greece and in EU for the attraction and sustainability of creative talent in technology. Creative managers are sensitive and interested in the city and its activities and they want to contribute to the city and its transformation with their knowledge of international developments, as well as with innovative products and services they develop. We conclude that there is a communication gap between creative managers, city authorities and other local stakeholders that result in missed opportunities to use technology and innovation to rebrand the city both at the national level and internationally. This process could potentially cultivate further opportunities for both the city and the technology companies. We analyze this gap in socio-economic, cultural and institutional terms and propose certain measures to overcome the obstacles associated with this gap. In the concluding discussion, our findings are examined within the variegated frameworks of small cities, European South and regional development policies in Greece.

Keywords: creative managers, innovation, creative city, culture management, urban regeneration
THE IMAGINED CITY: RESIDENTS’ PARTICIPATION IN THE BRAND OF A REGENERATED NEIGHBORHOOD

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FRANÇOISE PAQUIENSÉGUY
SciencesPo Lyon, France

Abstract

The large-scale urban redevelopment projects used to promote a new emblematic image of the cities in the 1990s have reached the adult stage and should be observed. Our observation was mainly about the imagens of the area instead of the urban project itself. The buildings, stations and squares, most signed by star architect, are now being used by people. Our aim is to investigate the participation of the people, particularly the residents, in the brand and image of its territory over these almost thirty years. This paper presents the case study of Lisbon, the host city of the World Exhibition of 1998. The event favored the regeneration of the 300 hectares of an obsolete port and industrial area into a whole new neighborhood branded as «the imagined city». Nowadays the area is called Parque das Nações and is home of 16.000 inhabitants. To achieve our objective, we performed a cross-sectional descriptive study in three steps, in the first stage we analyzed the newsletters sent to the public during the five years of construction of the EXPO 98 area (1993 – 1998) and the local newspaper that has been written by residents since 2001, in a total of 60 institutional documents and 103 documents produced by the citizens. The second step consists of interviews with the main actors of the neighborhood, twelve people selected using the snowball sampling strategy and finally the realization of three focus group. The results show that in the past years a new derogatory verb has emerged from a group of the first inhabitants of Parque das Nações: “lisbonization” of the area, showing dissatisfaction with the actual image of their place. The lisbonization phenomenon bears some observations about the boundaries of an imagined city in a metropolitan area.

Keywords: territorial marketing, participation, urban regeneration, place brand
1. Introduction

Cities around the world are increasingly being aware of the importance of conceptualizing themselves as brands (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2008; Braun et al., 2018), as they have been confronted over the past few decades to a competitive reality (Margot-Duclos, 2011; Batat, 2016), caused by a set of factors. One of those is what Harvey (1989) defined as the transformation of a managerial approach into an entrepreneurial approach by urban governments. To enhance their attractiveness for different target groups such as tourists, residents and workers, businesses, industries, and export markets (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993), governments adopt local promotion, marketing and branding policies.

Major urban regeneration projects are part of these strategies to enhance the attractiveness of a place (Linossier and Verhage, 2009). Often called ‘flagship project’, it has been used by public administrators for more than two decades, with the aim of promoting the economic growth of the territory and generating a new emblematic image of the place (Doucet, 2007).

In the last years scholars have been studying the attention given to the residents in the process of marketing and construction of a place. According to Braun, Zenker and Kavaratzis (2013), in most cases the branding strategies of the city, the focus is on external target groups, although it is essential to integrate current residents in the process. Cities, by their very nature, depend on their residents for economic, social, cultural and environmental dynamism (Insch and Florek, 2008). Consecutively, the level of satisfaction of residents depends on their perception of the quality of this environment. In the competitive context of attracting investment, this level of resident well-being influences the decision of foreigners in migration.

The inhabitants are integral parts of the district or the city, they constitute the image of the place (Braun, Zenker and Kavaratzis, 2013). For Michel de Certeau (1980), to live means to invest socially and emotionally in space, it is to create links with people, places, buildings and urban forms. The relationship between people and the environment in which they live, the way they use public spaces and transport, their interactions with tourists and new residents and their lifestyle, can affect the attractiveness of the place.

To engage residents, city decision-makers and managers must consider the expectations and needs of current and future residents. The first variable of this thesis argues that, in addition to considering the expectations of current residents, cities must build a participative
approach to the valorisation of the place, which means involve consulting residents at the beginning of a project to promote the site (Bennett and Savani, 2003). A strategy for influencing a place's reputation is to stimulate an open brand process, characterized by open discussion and debate about brand development and implementation (Braun et al., 2018). This should allow residents to influence not only the content and goals of the brand but also the method and tools of communication (Zenker and Erfgen, 2014), as stakeholders feel more engaged and loyal to a brand if they participated in its construction (Eshuis and Klijn, 2012).

According to Bonaccorsi and Nonjon (2014), the services offered to encourage the mobilization and expression of citizens tend to be more and more similar and far from being neutral and transparent. These tools nourish and renew the standards of participation. There is a homogenization of methods such as questionnaire, sociological survey, forum, debate, a jury of citizens, travelling exhibition, etc. Raoul and Noyer who study the role of the resident in urban renewal projects and argue that consultation is a kind of “disciplinarisation” (2008 : 6) of the resident function, putting the resident in the obligation to give his opinion on a project of transforming its own space of daily life, without however giving it a real influence. It would, therefore, be a logic of acceptance of the project rather than a logic of project debate.

Considering this context, it seems appropriate to analyse the communication strategies that have surrounded the implementation of the brand identity of urban rehabilitation projects. We, therefore, want to analyse the approach put forward by developers and the government by asking how much it has contributed to changing the way of living and perceiving urban space. And conversely, we will ask ourselves if the initiatives born among the residents contributed to revising the institutional discourses? Our general research question is: what is the relevance of the inhabitants' participation in creating and maintaining the image of the renovated districts such as Parque das Nações? As a first hypothesis, we assume that a process of branding the open place does not guarantee either a variety of discourses or original ideas.

2. Research subject and case study

Lisbon had two very antagonistic parts of each other. In the west is the bourgeois part, and in the eastern zone, on the other hand, are oil refineries, obsolete industries, old military equipment, and substandard housing. The architect Nuno Teotónio Pereira described the situation in the Portuguese newspaper Público on May 22, 1993.
Lisbon was definitely divided in two parts: upstream of the Tagus, factories, warehouses and garbage, downstream from the aristocracy of Cascais, mansions and tourism, served by the first power line of the country. Around 1940, Duarte Pacheco underwent major changes: on the one hand, the gas plant was demolished near the Belém tower and the Portuguese Universal Exhibition was erected, and on the other side the Sacor refinery was installed the new slaughterhouse in Lisbon was built and a large avenue of factories was structured in the eastern zone (Pereira, 2012, p.50)

To celebrate 500 years of the Portuguese discoveries, a vector of the memory and identity of the Portugal, Lisbon was nominated to host the 1998 World Exhibition. The working group responsible of the event should study and propose to the government the location for Expo'98. The technical arguments were: environmental constraints; land availability; functionality of the exhibition venue; accessibility; degree and quality of exposure integration (Ferreira, 2006). One last very important argument was the use of the Tagus River, considered as an unavoidable element, justified for thematic reasons (the river then the ocean led Portugal to great horizons), but also aesthetic and even playful (Ferreira, 2006).

The organization of Expo 98 sought to set up an urban requalification program, taking as an example the 1939 New York Exposition to escape the ephemeral feature that for a long time was part of the history of Expos.

The eastern zone of Lisbon, and a part of its neighbouring city, Loures, were therefore the chosen place to host the requalification program. According to the municipal authorities it was a waterfront which suffered “risks of abandonment and degradation due to several aspects: the permanence of polluting and dangerous industrial activities; the dilapidation of old factories and former working-class neighbourhoods” (Ferreira, 2006). The rhetorical justification of the promoters of the event also incorporated the popular idea of “return of the river to the city”, offering average access to citizens to the Tagus.

Between 1993 and May 1998, 300 hectares of the eastern area of Lisbon were built from scratch by the public company Parque Expo S.A. The company did the soil decontamination, sanitation, and constructed the communication infrastructure and the distribution of energy and water. They also built all the structures needed to host the world exhibition: the Lisbon Exhibition Centre, the Oceanarium, the Camões Theatre, the marina, the cable car and thematic pavilions. Concomitantly the works
in the field of transport infrastructure have created ways of access to the site.

When the Exhibition closed on September 30, 1998, the urbanization works of the present Parque das Nações began. Still under the management of the public company Parque Expo, the residential areas and the shopping centre were built with the collaboration of the private sector. The establishment of the headquarters of large companies, hospitals, schools, leisure facilities, hotels and restaurants were put in over the following years.

Since the beginning was established the assumption that, in order to ensure the continuation of an urban quality level the best solution was the company Parque Expo be initially responsible for the area with a joint participation with local authorities (Pereira, 2013). With half inhabitants living in Lisbon and half living in Loures, but all belonging to the same neighbourhood, was urgent for the Association of Residents and Merchants of the Parque das Nações, the creation of a unique parish encompassing all the current territory of the Expo intervention zone.

In 2012 with the dissolution of the company Parque Expo and the pressure of the inhabitants the Law 56/2012, of November 8, which provided for the Reformation Administrative Council of Lisbon have created the parish of Parque das Nações. The newest parish of Portugal was from that moment under the management of the Lisbon city council. The boundaries of the parish of the Parque das Nações went to encompass the whole territory of the Expo Intervention Zone plus the integration of extra 200 hectares from Loures. This area makes border on west and is separated from the other part of the neighbourhood by the train tracks. It represents three areas of social housing: Quinta das Laranjeiras, Casal dos Machados and Oriente; and three public equipment: a school, a library and a swimming pool.

In 2019 the urban project celebrates its 21 years old and the parish is now is under the second electoral mandate. The first was from 2013 to 2017, chaired by Antônio Moreno, the president of the Association of Residents and Merchants of the Parque das Nações; And the current, chaired by Mario Patrício, from 2017 to 2021. The parish has now almost 20,000 inhabitants living in 5,44 km2.

3. Research Strategy and Methodology

Our global research consists in studying also the urban regeneration project in development in Confluence, Lyon (France). In this sense, we are conducting a study in both neighbourhoods in parallel, respecting
their economic, political and cultural characteristics, analysing the branding strategies in two different moments in time. Paillé and Mucchielli (2012) argue that a phenomenon taken alone out of context (...) cannot make sense; meaning always requires confrontation, comparison, evaluation, and perspective.

For this paper we are presenting our findings on the first observed project, Parque das Nações. We have done observations in the last two years, but in the first semester of 2019 we have moved to the neighbourhood to live as they live and to be part of the community. The research is carried out according to a qualitative methodological approach of intensive design. Differently from the concept of extensive research (Harre, 1979; Sayer, 1992) intensive research is more concerned with collecting as much information as possible about a small group, rather than little information about a very large group, paying more attention to the phenomenon than to its frequency (Sayer, 1992). In-depth research, through direct observation and interviews, consists of discovering some of the common properties and general patterns of a population.

Our approach to the community was through some activities offered by the parish and by the own residents. We became aware of many events and opportunities to socialize and be able to observe them through the Facebook group of the neighbourhood and the local newspaper. So, we became volunteers at the social project Refood, which was a great opportunity to know the residents who was doing the social work and the ones beneficiaries by project. We also stated to run in a night running group, organised by a group of residents every Tuesday and Friday. We enrolled in a course of urban sketches organized by the parish, and in there we met three ladies who were also member of the choral and invited us to go to some rehearsal. In the choral we met a professor and a student of the senior university who allowed us to attend a lecture, which was a great opportunity to be in touch of many other residents. We also frequented the public library and the association Nutxiga, which was just few metres far one to the other, both in the social housing part. At the library we participate of some activities for the elderly and at Nutxiga, an association created by a group of immigrants from Cape Verde, some activities for the teenagers.

After four months of observations and interviews we conducted three focus group: the first happened with the “new” residents of the Parque das Nações, the people from the west part of the train rails. We mean new because they were integrated to the territory after, but actually, they are there before the construction of the Expo intervention Zone. The second group was with the inhabitants from the east part of the
train rails, the one who live close to the river. An the last one was composed by people who transit on both sides and are more running some initiative turned to the residents.

One of the methodologies used in the focus groups was inspired by the works of Jean-François Augoyard (1979) and his problematic of the urban routes, of the pedestrian rhetoric of the methodologies used in the focal group was the drawing in the map of the routes made by the residents in his neighbourhood. Another applied was the use of toys to help the participants to introduce themselves and to and to break the ice among the neighbours who in many cases had not known each other before the focus groups.

We have also analysed the monthly magazine produced by the company Parque Expo S.A from 1993 to 1998 and the local newspaper «Notícias do Parque». The 60 original copies of the newsletter are part of the archive of the Lisbon Urban Information Center (CIUL), which received most of the documents after the extinction of the Parque Expo company. In contrast the 103 volumes of the local newspaper are online. Notícias do Parque is a free newspaper that is maintained from local advertising. The diary is run by a resident, who created another newspaper in the in the neighbouring district and decided to create Notícias do Parque as he moved to Parque das Nações in September 2001. There are no journalists writing in the newspaper and any resident is welcome to write about what they want. It is distributed in mailboxes and commercial establishments, as well as being online in its entirety. The club and association have a page in the daily, as well as the political party and the parish.

4. From the Imagined city to the Lisbonization of Parque das Nações

The new neighbourhood was constructed with an urban landscape totally different from the previous one, a change not only visual but also sensory and social (Pereira, 2013). Called by the Parque Expo company as ‘Cidade Imaginada’ (Imagined City), the district is built around the theme of voyages at sea and especially those related to Lusitania’s discoveries. The nautical universe inspires the toponymy of streets and avenues; the names of oceans, seas, rivers, birds, navigational instruments and boats. Pereira (2013) concluded that the urban project of Parque das Nações had as ambition the creation of the “sensation of leisure” generated by the presence of cultural facilities, recreation and vast spaces green and by the cleanliness, safety and tranquillity adopted by urban management.
In the interviews and in the documentary analysis we found that the own inhabitants organized a petition and many other activities to protest in favour of a unique parish belonging to the same city. But many of them did not agree with the integration of the new territory which was not part of the ZI. In the daily Notícias do Parque of Septembre 2012 the resident José Baltazar says: “If there is geographic proximity to the area in question the affinity is small or even zero”.

On the other hand, the residents of the Quinta das Laranjeiras, Casal do Machados and Oriente were not consulted about their opinion in be part of a new parish. So far, we found that the territory does not have a unique identity, people do not recognize themselves as part of the same place. Even in the name of the neighbourhood there are different opinions. Some residents call it by the official name, Parque das Nações, others call it by Oriente referring to the geographic location and the name of the metro station located there, others simply call it Expo in allusion to the word exhibition of 98.

As a result of the drawing maps in the pedestrian rhetoric methodology we realised that the there are two barriers between the two parts of the neighbourhood. The first is the physical, as said before there are the train rails that separates the ZI from de social houses and there are just two ways of access between them, and both are not pedestrian friendly. The second barrier is the social and economic. The participants of the focus group drew that the use just the area of the neighbourhood where they live. The residents of the west part did not use the east part of the neighbourhood and vice versa. The residents of the social housing justify it because they do not few welcome in the area close to the river where are the most luxurious houses and the residents from the area close to the Tagus showed ignorance about what exist on the other side of the train rail.

When asked about this imbalance between the two territories, the actual president of the parish answer that they are trying to create instruments to integrate both areas such as activities to involve all inhabitants like the «Family Day» when they proposed concerts, lunch and playing. Another strategy is the construction of flower beds and street furniture in the west area, similar to existing ones of the east area.

The management of this new area by the municipal government, like all the other districts of Lisbon, did not please all the inhabitants. In the article “Lisbonização do Parque das Nações” published Notícias do Parque on February 2019, the resident, João Rocha, criticizes the new management and accuses of a lisbonization due to the ‘decharacterization’ of the public space. He evokes the change of
lampposts, the bad cultivation of green spaces and the multiplication of signs that visually pollute the streets.

The term used by João Rocha, in a rather pejorative context, puts the idea of ‘belonging’ and collective to the city into question. Metaphorically, it says that Lisbon and perhaps the surrounding cities are bad examples, almost dangerous by contamination and invasion.

This abstraction brings us some interrogation about the boundaries created by the idea of the imagined city, a harmonious, clean and green almost a perfect place. And mainly on the posture of the inhabitants, their openness to dialogue and diversity, their pride and their sense of attachment to the brand and image of the territory where they live. And as we are talking about two different population, their sense of participation, their sense of integration, their necessities and wishes are not the same.

Bridges must be constructed to connect the two population, to make them understand they are part of the same territory. Not physical bridges, but maybe human bridges. People like the ones who are volunteering at Refood, people who transits in the both sides of the train rails and would be able to decrease the distance of mentalities. And finally make them participate and find one legitimate identity for the whole neighbourhood.

5. The potential contribution of research

In the first place, this study answers a theoretical need on the social perspective in the field of Territorial Marketing. Following extensive research, Braun et al. (2013) note the need for a more in-depth examination of the role of residents in public communication, marketing and branding research. The author explains that some marketers only consider new residents as target markets for the placemark. The existing literature on city branding and territorial marketing emphasizes the comparison of cities in terms of different positioning of the brand image, focusing on the search for a differentiated and competitive position, which enhances the attractiveness of this city for its inhabitants and for others. This research goes further and tries to understand the social phenomena about the relationship of the inhabitants of multiple social and economic situation, with the image of the territory where they live.

Secondly, very few researchers have so far analysed the relationship between society and urban space from a communication point of view. For this purpose, Parque das Nações are veritable micro-scale
laboratories for deepening issues related to territorial policies of internationalization, particularly in the current context of global competition. As a result, we hope that this thesis can make an important contribution to democracy and dialogue in cities around the world.

Bibliography


TRANSMedia TOURISM. ANALYSIS, EVALUATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF TRANSMedia EXPERIENCES FOR THE DESIGN OF NEW TOURIST SPACES

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Abstract

The starting point for this research is the impact of transmedia storytelling or TS (Jenkins, 2003) on tourist experience (Ferreira, 2015). In this context, participation, interaction and engagement (Huang, 2017) of real or potential visitors with a tourist destination and its promotions can be improved by the comprehensive communication concept that TS represents. If we also enhance TS with the new capabilities of information and communication technologies (Neuhofer et al. 2012), these can be a powerful dual aid both to propose and design the products, activities and tourist destinations for the new, 21st century travellers, as well as to understand the tourist phenomenon in its current reconfiguration. We propose to call them both this understanding and design capacity ‘Transmedia Tourism’, drawing the name from the terms in Jenkins’ convergence culture (Jenkins, 2006).

To that end, we have proposed 3 research goals: (1) To analyse the principal initiatives in Europe which incorporate elements regarding transmedia communications in the sphere of tourism, (2) to draft a model of recommendations so that the directors of tourist destinations can propose sustainable tourism models based on the advantages of transmedia storytelling, and (3) to define, evaluate and characterise the concept of ‘Transmedia Tourism’ based on the experiences analysed in the study sample.

After finalising the review of the current literature, this research project intends to employ a qualitative methodology derived from the theoretical framework that will combine different analytical techniques in line with the 3 research goals. The methodology will include creating an Identikit with the objective and subjective elements that identify and define the projects and their principal elements, and make these aspects comparable. In the end this research project will select a total of 10 European projects that meet the main requirements concerning transmedia communication in the sphere of tourism. These projects will be taken as a reference and we will identify the sponsor, designer, users and other aspects in order to collect information using the following
techniques: polls and open-ended interviews and virtual ethnography (end user). Based on this information, we will establish a set of indicators to consider or measure the effect of the projects designed for this purpose on the territory according to the proposed challenges. We will utilise the matrix and the results to draft the conclusions and recommendations that will define and characterise the concept ‘Transmedia Tourism’ as well as the chapters and measurement systems.

In short, the thesis poses the need to analyse, evaluate and characterise a concept which allows for transmedia storytelling to be applied to touristic communication. This will help to activate tangible and intangible heritage and make it available by designing new spaces for tourist experience and participation that forge a better connection between the destination, tourists and residents, binding both groups together with the local tourist offer and identity.

**Keywords:** transmedia storytelling, communication, tourism, engagement, new technologies
Abstract

Aims

The aim of this paper is to understand the agency embodied in the disparate roles and identities held by the young (< 45 years old) returned local, in-migrants and other stakeholders in Pinglin; also to explore the reconfiguration of the local socio-economic networks built around the branded tea products and place.

Main Approach

This paper holds a post-structuralist ontological stance inspired by Assemblage theory. Firstly, the rhizomatous features (referring to the Deleuzian concept ‘rhizome’) of the local and extra-local network is examined; this anchors the bottom-up approach of a destination place branding in the incumbent neo-endogenous rural development model in Pinglin. Secondly, the theoretical context of the agency of this rhizomatous network is critically reviewed, focussing on the theories of innovation, participation, place-making and collective identity.

The analysis is grounded on practices and perceptions of 27 key young actors in Pinglin’s place branding. Data collection was conducted via on-line shadowing of the local branding actors’ social media postings (2017-2019), followed by participatory observation in two major local branding events and 57 in-depth interviews. A discourse analysis on place identity construction is adopted to examine the individual and collective power and agency of these young actors.

Key Argument

One can elaborate the socio-economic process in Pinglin’s rural development through more precise demarcation of the young generation’s contributions to local place branding.

Findings

Bottom-up place branding is intrinsically a multi-focal process and supports multi-functional rural development. The core activity of a rural bottom-up place branding is building/repairing the connections between the local and extra-local through social and economic innovation. In Pinglin, these innovations were enabled by local resource re-definition and integration
initiated by the young generation; such agency possessed by this generation is exemplified by re-framing local culture, pursuing changes with less institutional burden, and entailing solutions by leveraging the elders’ social capital.

Despite having heterogeneous backgrounds (e.g. returned local, in-migrants), the young generation in Pinglin have constructed a rhizomatous network, which is nurtured and disciplined by the shared ethos of the social media era and a tea commodity chain modified by new online marketing means. Based on this connection, the varied collective and individual identities around Pinglin were harmonised, and a multi-faceted place branding was organically and spontaneously constituted from the bottom up. The agency of the young generation and social media generates symbiotic relationships between actors and reconfigures local socio-economic composition.

Conclusions

The roles and identities of young actors in Pinglin’s case enrich the scholarly understanding of the bottom-up place branding process and link the place branding literature with rural development studies. Moreover, through the lens of Assemblage theory, this paper suggests a different reflection on inclusive and resilient place branding processes based on a critical review on key concepts such as place identity construction, inner place branding processes and participatory place branding approaches.

Keywords: bottom-up place branding, neo-endogenous rural development, young generation stakeholders, rhizomatous network, social media
A JOURNEY THROUGH THE PLACE BRANDING AND MARKETING LITERATURE: WHAT SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS TELLS US

CLEMENTS FLORIDA
MSc, MBA, Doctoral Candidate at University of Chester
Research sponsored by University College Isle of Man

Abstract

Aims:

This systematic review is part of the literature review conducted as part of the doctoral research: “The Isle of Man ... all dressed up but nowhere to go: Can place marketing strategies help turn around the fortunes of the Isle of Man?”.

The aims are to evaluate the extent to which an understanding of place marketing strategies might better inform our appreciation of the way in which places might (and have to date) seek to make themselves a more attractive location for business and workforce. In scoping out this literature review the aim was to explore works that would offer a view as comprehensive as possible of relevant theories and debates around areas including place identity, place image, place marketing and place branding etc. which are being adopted and diffusing into ongoing place marketing practice.

Review approach

The review approach has consisted of systematically identifying, tabulating and analysing, using thematic analysis, 20 systematic reviews and 116 articles, included in the systematic reviews. As a result, two main themes and a number of subthemes have highlighted the main debates in this area.

Findings

Theme 1- Conceptualising and defining place identity and place image highlights that there is little congruence in terms of core definitions such as place identity, place image and it is yet to emerge a framework that can be operationalised to aid the place branding and marketing process. Theme 2 - The impacts of place identity, image and marketing, bring attention to the fact that these concepts should not be looked into as mere philosophical terms rather important factors in the social reality which has an impact in people’s everyday life and can be impacted in many ways. One of the issues raised is whether corporate marketing and branding strategies could be used to promote places. This is widely discussed with very strong opinions pro and against it. On one side are the marketers who think that the use of marketing strategies brings a competitive advantage to places and on the other side there are authors who think that places represent people, feelings, social relations
which cannot be marketed like products, and using corporate marketing strategies will have political and social impacts.

Conclusions

The review suggests that the main debates and the lack of widely accepted definitions are due to the multidisciplinary nature of this field of studies (Lucarelli & Brorström, 2013) where concepts from geography, psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism are all interlinked, however they bring some sort of confusion when interpreted in different contexts. It also highlights the importance and the need for more robust research underpinned by theory and especially the integration of the critical theories in the research process. On the other hand the consolidation of the research should not neglect the needs of the practitioners.

Keywords: Place, place identity, place image, place marketing, place branding

Aims

This review aims to evaluate the extent to which an understanding of place marketing strategies might better inform our appreciation of the way in which places might (and have to date) seek to make themselves a more attractive location for business and workforce. In scoping out this literature review the aim was to explore works that would offer a view as comprehensive as possible of relevant theories and debates around areas including place identity, place image, place marketing and place branding etc. which are being adopted and diffusing into ongoing place marketing practice.

1. Literature review approach
1.1 Literature search

The systematic review presented here draws heavily on a broader literature review carried out by the author for the doctoral studies which focuses on exploring the application of place branding in the context of the Isle of Man (IoM). The IoM Government is seeking to attract a talented workforce to relocate to the IoM and hence are concerned with how the IoM is perceived (its image) by both residents and non-residents. This emphasis on the way IoM is perceived, is also reflected in a number of recent ‘image-related studies’ of the IoM (see (Canavan, 2013, 2014, 2015b, 2015a)) and a Government commissioned study of internal and external stakeholder perceptions of the IoM conducted by the consultancy Acanchi &HPI (Acanchi and HPI, 2006), which highlighted a gap between how the IoM is perceived by people who live on or off the island - what arguably can be conceived of as a gap between
external ‘image’ and ‘internally perceived identity’. Taking as a starting point this ‘conceptual gap’ between the perceived image and identity of the IoM, the literature search sought to explore how such notions of ‘place image, identity and branding’ have been treated within the literature.

As a result the process of locating the literature started with searching in several databases (ProQuest (ABI Inform Global), Elsevier (Science Direct), EBSCO Business Source Elite, Google Scholar) using the keywords ‘image’ and ‘identity’. This search brought over four million results. Search results are shown in Table 1.

To narrow down the search results to a manageable number, it was necessary to apply a number of filters to the search criteria, which included discipline filters. Discipline filters categorise sources into academic disciplines such as history, geography, mathematics and so on. However identifying the research discipline, which studies the image and identity in the context of place attractiveness, was not straightforward. Lucarelli and Brorström (2013) consider place branding an interdisciplinary area of study which for Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetten (2006) might include psychology, marketing and organisational research, while for Hall (1997), marketing, tourism and geography. As a result, the discipline filters were set to include marketing, tourism, sociology, geography and psychology leaving out the organisational research at this stage, as it was considered irrelevant.

To ensure credibility of the source materials, criteria for the type of publication were set for journal articles, scholarly and peer reviewed (Hannes, 2011). To narrow down even further, the range of keywords was expanded and combined with Boolean operators (Fink, 2010). So aiming to narrow down the search from thousands of articles to a more manageable level, a few hundred, but at the same time avoiding having very few articles, the search criteria was modified several times as shown in Table 1. An initial review of the titles in the last search, (combination Place AND image AND identity) identified 21 journal articles, which had place image and identity as subject terms.

These 21 articles were read and used as base for snowballing, which is a strategy that aims at identifying authors that were cited in a particular work (Booth, Papaioannou, & Sutton, 2016). Snowballing was enabled through the use of bibliographic methods in order to reveal studies which are interconnected or belong to the same research area (Vogel & Güttel, 2013). The inclusion criteria was set for articles which discussed specifically the place image, identity, branding and marketing in any of the disciplinary areas specified in the initial research (marketing, tourism, geography, psychology, sociology).
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Google Scholar</th>
<th>ProQuest</th>
<th>Science Direct</th>
<th>EBSCO, Business Source Elite</th>
<th>Wiley</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Image</td>
<td>8,710,000</td>
<td>2,250,180</td>
<td>3,197,723</td>
<td>210,040</td>
<td>1,559,297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>4,420,000</td>
<td>1,022,024</td>
<td>967,207</td>
<td>93,513</td>
<td>3,619,872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country image</td>
<td>5,640,000</td>
<td>634,387</td>
<td>303,177</td>
<td>1,551</td>
<td>230,096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place image</td>
<td>5,990,000</td>
<td>818,831</td>
<td>1,003,453</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>836,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place identity</td>
<td>4,450,000</td>
<td>500,020</td>
<td>372,962</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>1,954,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place marketing</td>
<td>3,350,000</td>
<td>757,104</td>
<td>148,322</td>
<td>5,870</td>
<td>509,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place reputation</td>
<td>1,970,000</td>
<td>423,679</td>
<td>83,156</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>109,867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country brand</td>
<td>2,910,000</td>
<td>588,328</td>
<td>76,255</td>
<td>3,158</td>
<td>66,791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place AND image AND identity</td>
<td>3,990,000</td>
<td>17,737</td>
<td>3,302</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>595,914</td>
</tr>
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<td>444</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>9,506</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place AND identity (subject terms)</td>
<td>3,660</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>2,260</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>212</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Journals peer reviewed only

Subject filters applied

1.2 Review method

Based on the aims of the literature review, which seek to produce a view as comprehensive as possible of relevant theories, debates around areas including place marketing and place branding and factors they are closely related to, conducting a systematic review using thematic analysis was deemed an appropriate method. This method consists of extracting the main concepts and findings from the research studies, which are then tabulated to identify, analyse the themes and as a result produce a synthesis of these studies (Denyer, Tranfield, & Van Aken, 2008; Harden & Thomas, 2008).

1.3 Findings and discussion

The image, identity and attractiveness of a place have been subject of interest by many researchers in the last few decades; the reason being a constant competition between places for investments, talented workforce, tourists (Acharya & Rahman, 2016; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). From the 136 sources selected for this review, 15 were published before 1999 and the rest (121) are published after the year 2000. As noted by many authors (Cleave & Arku, 2017; Green, Grace, & Perkins, 2016; Hanna & Rowley, 2008; Kaneva, 2011), the research in place branding and marketing has experienced a great expansion post 2000, but frequently reference is made to articles published
earlier for various definitions and concepts, as a result it was deemed appropriate to include the original articles in this review.

20 articles from the core 136 sources identified, were systematic reviews in areas related to place image, place marketing and place branding, with all of them except two published after year 2010. As systematic reviews are considered an efficient and highly reliable way of synthesising knowledge (Denyer et al., 2008; Mulrow, 1994), the discussion will start with an overview of these 20 systematic reviews.

1.4 Overview of systematic reviews

The systematic reviews selected for this literature review belong to a wide field of study as shown in appendix 1, Table 3. A list of the 20 systematic reviews in chronological order within their specific area of study (colour-coded as shown in Table 3, appendix 1) is shown in Σφάλμα! Το αρχείο προέλευσης της αναφοράς δεν βρέθηκε. in appendix 1. Table 4 includes the number of articles in each review, the time period covered (when specified in the article) and the main findings as identified by the authors.

A common thread in most of the reviews is a general criticism related to the quality of research, in the sense that the area is lacking use of theoretical models and frameworks, and well-established and accepted definitions. In understanding these systematic reviews is important to recognise the disciplinary background the authors are coming from, as this shapes the theoretical view they draw from (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Table 2 shows the research discipline (highlighted in different colours), the articles’ titles, authors, publication date, authors’ (or their institutions’) country and the themes more prevalent in the systematic review. It is noticeable that even though the systematic reviews come from different disciplines, using a different lens in their analysis, they are discussing similar themes. Background colours are maintained as in Σφάλμα! Το αρχείο προέλευσης της αναφοράς δεν βρέθηκε.(appendix1).

The main insights coming from the systematic reviews are as below:

- There is a lack of theoretical underpinning and there is a need for a stronger methodological approach in the research in the area of place branding, place marketing, place image and identity
- There is a lack of clarity in the definition of the core concepts: place, place image, place identity, destination image, place branding and place marketing
• The use of critical theories is becoming an imperative as part of a holistic multidisciplinary approach in place branding and marketing.

Besides the insights in the state of the research in place branding and marketing, the discussions in the systematic reviews have led to a number of themes in the articles reviewed, which will be discussed in the next part of this review.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Review title</th>
<th>Author/s</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Impacts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Destination image analysis - A review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000</td>
<td>Steven Pike</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Destination Image Towards a Conceptual Framework</td>
<td>Martina G. Gallarza, Irene G. Saura, Haydeé Calderón García</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>An examination of the status and evolution of country image research</td>
<td>Irene R.R. Lu, Louise A. Heslop, D. Roland Thomas and Ernest Kwan</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroscience</td>
<td>Sense of place and place identity: Review of neuroscientific evidence</td>
<td>Charis Lengen, Thomas Kistemann</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Rethinking place marketing – a literature review</td>
<td>Elin Berglund, Kristo Olsson</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Unfolding and configuring two decades of research and publications on place marketing and place branding</td>
<td>David Gertner</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Place branding &amp; place marketing 1976–2016: A multidisciplinary literature review</td>
<td>Renaud Vuignier</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>Nation Branding: Toward an Agenda for Critical Research</td>
<td>Nadia Kaneva</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Problematising place branding research: A meta-theoretical analysis of the literature</td>
<td>Andrea Lucarelli, Sara Brorström</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>A review of place branding methodologies in the new millennium</td>
<td>Chung-shing Chan, Lawal M. Marafa</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Branding places with social problems: A systematic review (2000-2013)</td>
<td>Shanon Jones, Krzysztof Kubacki</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Placing place branding: an analysis of an emerging research field in human geography</td>
<td>Ida Andersson</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Place branding research: a thematic review and future research agenda</td>
<td>Alok Acharya , Zillur Rahman</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Nation branding for foreign direct investment: an Integrative review and directions for research and strategy</td>
<td>Nicolas Papadopoulos, Leila Hamzaoui-Essoussi, Alia El Banna</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Canada + UK</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Putting a number on place: a systematic review of place branding influence</td>
<td>Evan Cleave and Godwin Arku</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Main areas of place branding scientific research - bibliometric analysis</td>
<td>Ewa Glinska, Ewelina Julita Tomaszewska</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>City branding: a state-of-the-art review of the research domain</td>
<td>Andrea Lucarelli, Per Olof Berg</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>City branding research and practice: An integrative review</td>
<td>Amelia Green, Debra Grace, Helen Perkins</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2*
2. Thematic analysis
The exploration of systematic reviews started by trying to identify the impact that marketing and branding strategies can have on the place and the target audiences and how can we define them.

A wider review, beyond the 20 systematic reviews and analysis of 116 articles (included in many of the systematic reviews) led to two core themes and a number of subthemes, listed below.

**Conceptualising and defining place identity and place image**
- Place as a complex dynamic concept
- Place identity or place attachment or sense of place
- Place image and the search for a framework

**The impacts of place identity, place image and place marketing**
- The impacts of image and identity on places
- The factors that influence the image and the identity of a place
- Clarifying the definitions and the role of branding and marketing in relation to places
- Stakeholders importance and their role in place branding
- Branding as part of place development strategies

The themes and subthemes are explored further in the next sections with the aim to gain a better understanding of the debates and established knowledge.

2.1 Theme 1: Conceptualising and defining place identity and place image
Following the criticism in the systematic reviews about the lack of definitions and the clarity of concepts, the exploration of this theme will provide some insights on to what the debates are all about and why there is this lack of consensus. For this reason the next sections is dedicated to the discussions about three main concepts: place, place identity and place image.

2.1.1 Place as a complex dynamic concept
A core element of this first theme is concerned with the notion of ‘place’, which was examined from a number of disciplinary perspectives including geography, neurosciences, psychology, sociology and marketing. The discussion expands from the physical, spatial territories with borders, to the social phenomena or
social constructions and meanings that reside and evolve within these confined areas (Kalandides, 2011; Massey, 1994; Roosvall, 2017; Tuan, 1979; Warnaby & Medway, 2013), to individual’s brain, which according to neuropsychological sciences, has cells dedicated to places and spatial information, which fire up by environmental triggers (Lengen & Kistemann, 2012).

Perhaps the most common area of agreement found within the literature lay in the fact that the place should be considered as a dynamic, fluid concept (Cresswell & Hoskins, 2008; Kalandides, 2011; Massey, 1994; Warnaby & Medway, 2013), but vague at the same time (Hauge, 2007). There is a wide range of place definitions, which mostly stem from the traits, components or dimensions that various authors associate to the place (Cresswell & Hoskins, 2008; Kalandides, 2011; Massey, 1994; Roosvall, 2017; Tuan, 1979; Warnaby & Medway, 2013). Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) base their discussion on Kalandides (2011) five components of place: materiality, practices, institutions, representation and power. Some authors (Cresswell & Hoskins, 2008; Warnaby & Medway, 2013) support Agnew’s (1987) three dimensions of place as location, locale and sense of place. Agnew (1987) argues that location represents the “macro-order” of the places in relation to other places, locale represents the place in terms of where everyday life happens, and sense of place is the “subjective orientation that can be engendered by living in a place” (p.6) or “identity produced by the place” (p.6). The sense of place and place identity have engendered a wide academic discussion, which is explored further as a subtheme of its own, in the next section.

2.1.2 Place identity or place attachment or sense of place?

Following on from Agnew’s (1987) ideas on place identity and sense of place, it appears that besides “the material fabric of place” (Cresswell & Hoskins, 2008, p.395), place identity is considered one of the most important elements of place (François Lecompte, Trelohan, Gentic, & Aquilina, 2017; Kalandides, 2011; Massey, 1994; Relph, 1976). Place identity, place attachment and the sense of place are terms that some authors use interchangeably (François Lecompte et al., 2017; Giuliani, 2003; Kalandides, 2011; Massey, 1994), while others tend to highlight the distinctions and identify the relationship between them (Hernández, Carmen Hidalgo, Salazar-Laplace, & Hess, 2007; Knez, 2005; Lewicka, 2008; Lindstedt, 2011; Rollero & De Piccoli, 2010). All the three terms represent relationships of people with places. While the sense of place is experiencing the place through our senses (Agnew, 1987; Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1979), and place attachment is an emotional link with the place (Giuliani, 2003; Kalandides, 2011; Knez, 2005; Lengen & Kistemann, 2012), what constitutes place identity is an open debate, with over 25 different definitions and conceptualisations only in the 116 articles of this literature review (see appendix 2).

It appears some authors link place identity to community related features such as history, culture, lifestyle (Harrison, 2002; Keillor & Hult, 1999; Lewicka, 2008; Mayes, 2008; Skinner & Kubacki, 2007). Whereas others consider place identity a process (Agnew, 1987; Hernández et al., 2007; Kalandides, 2011;
Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Massey, 1994), even though there is no congruence in the description of the process by the authors.

According to Lewicka (2008) some authors discuss place identity at the level of the individual person, while others as the identity of a place.

Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff (1983) define place identity as clusters of “valenced cognitions about physical settings” (p.74), which are linked to social settings (Hauge, 2007; Lengen & Kistemann, 2012) and are formed through enculturation process (Crotty, 1998). This view resonates with Massey’s (1994) view that place is about social relations. Many authors (Hauge, 2007; Lengen & Kistemann, 2012; Proshansky et al., 1983; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996) agree that place identity is part of self-identity of an individual person.

Tuan’s (1979) suggestion that places have a personality “acquired … through prolonged interaction between nature and man” (p.409) and they have a distinct character reflected in the everyday reality or “the genius loci” (Norberg-Schulz, 1980), appears to be supported by Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015) view that places have identity, which is a characteristic of that place, is its distinctiveness or specificity. This contradicts Kalandides (2011) very own assertion that “transposition of identity from humans to place... can only be understood as a metaphor” (p.37) and Kavaratzis and Hatch’s (2013) place identity definition, as a dialectic process of internal and external views, appears to be a transposition from human to place of Proshansky’s et al. (1983) definition of self-identity of the individual. While environmental psychology sees place identity as part of self-identity of a person (Proshansky et al., 1983; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996), other authors (Alaux, Serval, & Zeller, 2015; Lindstedt, 2011) view the identity of a place as a representation of the identity of its actors.

The systematic review of Lengen and Kistemann (2012) concedes in the fact that while the research in neurosciences has already converged in relation to place identity at individual person’s level, is yet to substantiate at higher levels like culture or communities. Diversity in definitions and viewpoints appears to support Kalandides (2011) suggestion that defining place identity is an impossible task. After reviewing the discussion in place identity, the review will progress into exploring the views in place image.

2.1.3 Place image and the search for a framework

Reynolds' (1965) concept of image as “a mental construct of few selected impressions” (p.69) created by the customers has been widely supported by many other authors in the area of place or destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Zavattaro, 2013). However O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy (2000) argue that image is more than “a picture in the head” (p.57), rather a combination of beliefs, claims and pictorial views, which change over time.

Historically many authors aimed to identify the components of the image in varied disciplines such as psychology, tourism, marketing (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Brijs, Bloemer, & Kasper, 2011; Echtner & Ritchie,
1991; Gartner, 1993; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016; O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2000; Reynolds, 1965; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) and there is a congruence of thinking as far as the psychological components are concerned, precisely the cognitive, affective and conative components. Even though many authors have tried to identify further subcomponents or different dimensions such as geopolitical, socioeconomic, holistic or attribute based etc. (Brijs et al., 2011; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Han, 1989; Kock et al., 2016; Tasci, Gartner, & Tamer Cavusgil, 2007), and others have tried to identify and study the links and relationship between these elements (Buhmann & Ingenhoff, 2015; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015), what seems to be an area of concern raised by many authors especially in tourism, is the lack of a widely accepted model or framework for destination image (Brijs et al., 2011; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Kock et al., 2016), which renders the task of attaching value to the place image, very difficult (Stock, 2009).

In summary, it appears that in essence both place identity and place image are cognitions, meanings, emotions, social definitions that humans attach to a geographical space, which would be called place because of these very cognitions (Proshansky et al., 1983; Tuan, 1979). They constantly interact with each other (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013) and they only differ depending on which side of the boundary between “we” and “they” (Tuan, 1979), the humans find themselves in geographical, temporal, cognitive and emotional terms. The boundary is not fixed, it shifts every time the question “Who?” is asked (Taylor, 1989) depending whether humans feel inside or outside of it (Relph, 1976). Figure 14 adapted from Tuan (1979, p. 420) tries to capture this relationship.

Figure 14 The shifting boundary between Place Identity and Place Image. Adapted from Tuan (1979, p. 420)

From the discussion it appears that what gives the place its personality, distinctive character and identity are two factors:

1. the interaction between geographical space and the people who feel inside this place, wherever they draw its spatial boundary (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Norberg-Schulz, 1980; Relph, 1976; Seamon & Sowers, 2008; Tuan, 1979)
2. the dialectic exchange with the place image, which represents the interaction between geographical space and the people who feel outside this place (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Relph, 1976).

The research for defining concepts, identifying models and frameworks will help identify the influence that place identity and image have into changing the place and the factors they are influenced by. This topic has been subject of very heated debates between researchers in different disciplines and represents a very important theme, which will be explored in the next section.

2.2 Theme 2: The impacts of place identity, image and marketing

While place image and identity are represented as a cacophony of dimensions and components which sometimes are studied in isolation and sometimes holistically (d’Astous & Boujbel, 2007; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Han, 1989; Tasci et al., 2007), the impact that they have on the place, its internal and external audiences, and the impact that marketing and branding can have upon both the image and identity of the place, appears to be a reoccurring theme in the majority of the systematic reviews (17 out of 20) and the rest of the articles. A synthesis of the discussions follows below.

2.2.1 The impact of the image and identity on places

Haslam, Reicher and Platow (2008) have argued that calling on people’s place identity, in the forms of calling to their patriotism or the call of the country, can have profound impacts in changing places, as the history of world wars and dramatic shifts has already demonstrated.

One of the impacts that place image has had on countries has been studied under the country of origin effect (COO). Numerous authors have studies various dimensions of place identity and image which impact on the customers perception of a product and their intention to buy (Brijs et al., 2011; De Nisco, Papadopoulos, & Elliot, 2017; Fan, 2006; Han, 1989; Kleppe & Mossberg, 2005; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang, Li, Barnes, & Ahn, 2012), even though research from Pike (2013) and Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert (1997) suggest other factors too.

In the tourism area there is an agreement that place image has a strong influence on the tourists selection of places and intention to travel (Chen & Phou, 2013; De Nisco et al., 2017; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Elliot & Papadopoulos, 2016; Gartner, 1993; Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio, & Nazzareno, 2017; Molinillo, Liébana-Cabanillas, Anaya-Sánchez, & Buhalis, 2018; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008; Tasci et al., 2007).

Research (Clark, Lloyd, Wong, & Jain, 2002; Florida, 2002; Zenker, 2009) suggests that the place image impacts also the choice of location for the talented workforce and businesses’ economic decisions (Mihailovich, 2006). While it is clear how the image and identity influence the choices it is paramount to identify the factors they are influenced by, which leads to the next subtheme.
2.2.2 The factors that influence the image and the identity of a place

Many authors (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Insch & Avraham, 2014; Kleppe & Mossberg, 2005; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Lu, Heslop, Thomas, & Kwan, 2016; Roosvall, 2017; Stepchenkova & Li, 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013) agree that frequently people’s images of different places are based on stereotypes, which according to Boisen, Terlouw and van Gorp (2011) represent “collective or shared perceptions” (p.139). Residents and authorities tend to reinforce the positive stereotypes (Boisen et al., 2011), but it is very hard for them to change the negative ones, which can tarnish place reputation (Boisen et al., 2011; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000).

Other factors that impact the place image and identity, have created space for the research to branch out further, for example the peripherality or remoteness of the place (Canavan, 2013; Rijnks & Strijker, 2013), social and political systems (Boulding, 1959; Foroudi, Gupta, Kitchen, Foroudi, & Nguyen, 2016; Tasci & Holec, 2007; Wang et al., 2012), people’s attitudes (Parker, Roper, & Medway, 2015; Ryan & Aicken, 2010) and individual’s (visitor or expatriate) background (de Eccher & Duarte, 2018). Amongst these factors, media (Garcia, 2017; Molinillo et al., 2018; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000; Wang, Chan, & Pan, 2015) and branding and marketing (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Gartner, 1993; Niedomysl & Jonasson, 2012) are considered as very important in influencing the place image. Cleave and Arku (2017) consider place branding as a mediator between place values and customer’s expectations. Therefore place marketing and branding will be explored further in the next paragraph.

2.2.3 Clarifying the definitions and the role of branding and marketing in relation to places

Arguably the notions of place marketing and place branding are very closely aligned and some (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013) might argue often almost synonymous with one an other, as Giovanardi, Lucarelli and Pasquinelli (2013) call for the ‘dichotomy’(p.378) to be re-examined . However, an equally vociferous fraction of scholars have argued the opposite, insisting that place marketing and place branding are different, not only semantically but conceptually too (Berglund & Olsson, 2010; Gertner, 2011; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Lucarelli & Brorström, 2013; Skinner & Kubacki, 2007). Boisen, Terlouw, Groote, and Couwenberg (2018) go further by elaborating in specific definitions, roles, goals and metrics for place promotion, place marketing and place branding ( figure 2 and 3).
Despite the congruence in the aim of place branding to prompt the audiences into making associations and create expectations about the place (Aronczyk, 2009; Dinnie, 2008; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011), the lack of a clear, well accepted definition (Merkelsen & Rasmussen, 2016) is “a recipe for ongoing confusion and manipulation” (Ballantyne & Aitken, 2007, p. 365) which does not help the practitioners (Hankinson, 2010). Papadopoulos (2004) blames this situation on the lack of cooperation between different academic disciplines.

As places compete (Acharya & Rahman, 2016; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Malecki, 2004; Porter, 2011), place branding and marketing are emerging as very important tools in the efforts “to improve the competitive image of the place” (Niedomysl & Jonasson, 2012, p. 225; Zenker & Martin, 2011) and a growing area of research, as highlighted in several systematic reviews (Acharya & Rahman, 2016; Gertner, 2011; Vuignier, 2017).
Marketing and branding theories and concepts have been applied widely in tourism (Papadopoulos, 2004), however their adoption to promote places has sparked debate, with some researchers arguing that it can create a competitive advantage for the place (Anholt, 2006; Bell, 2016; J. Freire, 2005; Gertner, 2007; Kavaratzis, M., & Ashworth, 2005; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Mihailovich, 2006; Niedomysl & Jonasson, 2012; Skinner, 2011; Zenker & Martin, 2011). Important is to consider that place branding is different (Olins, 2002), more complex than product branding (Anholt, 2006; Dinnie, 2008; Lindstedt, 2011; Warnaby & Medway, 2013; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013) and the marketers have no control neither over customer experience nor over product management (Hankinson, 2004).

Some authors (Bell, 2016; Boisen, Terlouw, Groote, & Couwenberg, 2018; J. R. Freire, 2011) see place branding as going hand to hand with place reputation and as a very important factor in shaping place identity (Botschen, Promberger, & Bernhart, 2017; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2017; Van Ham, 2008). This is met with strong opposition by other authors (Aronczyk, 2009; Dinardi, 2017; Eisenschitz, 2010; Fan, 2006; Hall, 1997; Jansen, 2008), for whom what is being marketed is not a product with fixed features, which if not successful can be changed or abandoned, rather an entire place or nation with complex social relations, politics, economics, culture and many more factors involved. Furthermore Boisen et al. (2011) and Van Ham (2002) warn that place branding itself can turn into a political game between stakeholders.

This discussion has brought the attention to the role of stakeholders, which is an important subtheme in this review and will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.4 Stakeholders role and importance in place branding

Aronczyk (2009) disagrees with the arguments about the extent of the citizens involvement on the place branding process, because as Boisen et al. (2011) and Eisenschitz (2010) argue, place branding favours only particular stakeholders groups. For this reason many authors (Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Kavaratzis, 2012; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013) insist on implementation of inclusive practices in place branding process. Hultman, Yeboah-Banin and Formaniuk (2016) notice that different stakeholders have different view points and for place branding to be successful it is imperative to find common grounds. Jansen (2008) strongly opposes this view because it denies the existence of the differences and undermines democracy.

The importance of residents and their role in place branding has been highlighted by many authors (Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Botschen et al., 2017; Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013; Foroudi et al., 2016; Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Kavaratzis, 2012; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013; Song & Sung, 2013), even though they are referred to as the customers/consumers (Kavaratzis, 2012), community (Aitken & Campelo, 2011), local population (Lindstedt, 2011), a whole network of diverse stakeholders (Hankinson, 2004; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013), or “groups that collectively produce place brand” (p. 82), with brand managers being one of them (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013). This debate brings to attention another area of discussion on
place branding: its management and how this can be shaped by various policies and decision. Therefore the next subtheme delves further into the links between place branding and policies.

2.2.5 Branding as part of place development strategies

Place branding is an activity initiated by the various authorities in their attempt to attract businesses or tourists (Acharya & Rahman, 2016; Olins, 2002). For this reason many of the articles stress the importance of place brand management (Freire, 2005; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Kotler & Gertner, 2002), even though places have brands without any branding activity (Giovanardi, Lucarelli, & Pasquinelli, 2013; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). In a simplistic delineation Van Ham (2008) goes as far as comparing the flag, anthem and constitution of a nation to brand, logo and mission statement.

Despite the fact that the branding will not solve a country’s problems (Fan, 2006), a number of authors have highlighted that place branding should be placed high in government’s agendas (Cleave, Arku, Sadler, & Gilliland, 2016; Gertner, 2007; Houllier-Guibert, 2012; Jones & Kubacki, 2014; Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013) and should not be confused with its operationality (de Noronha, Coca-Stefaniak, & Morrison, 2017). Jones and Kubacki (2014) systematic review stresses that government’s support is crucial in the place branding success, especially in places with social problems. However they also insist that investing in branding and ignoring social problems will not work, a view shared by many authors (Anholt, 2006; Govers, 2013; Papadopoulos, 2004; Rose, 2010).

Conclusions

This literature review has provided some important insights with regards to the developments in the studies of place image, identity and branding, despite the fact that there is a lack of unity in terms of definitions and established theoretical concepts and models (Gertner, 2011; Hildreth, 2010; Stock, 2009; Vuignier, 2017). While this lack of unity could be due to its multidisciplinary nature (Lucarelli & Brorström, 2013), the contribution from each area can help defining the fundamental concepts. The numerous definitions of place identity, place image and place branding and the lack of the frameworks does not necessarily represent a theoretical weakness of this field, rather a preparadigmatic stage of its development (Gergen & Thatchenkery, 1996; Kuhn, 1962).

By recognising what influences places, their identities and their images and the impact that these later ones have upon each other, can help focus marketing and branding efforts to promote the places and contribute to their economic growth and social progress. This requires place branding to be given the right priority in government policies (Cleave et al., 2016; Gertner, 2007; Jones & Kubacki, 2014) by taking into consideration the interests of all stakeholders (Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013) and measuring the benefits and consequences of any initiative.
By aiming to bring all these concepts together, Figure 4 shows how the main elements: place identity, place image and place branding, are connected and influence one another and how important is to define them. Place Marketing and Branding has been placed in between because it acts as mediator between place identity and place image and this is the only variable that can be influenced in the process.

As such, the measuring of its inputs and impacts should be one of the areas for future research as it is one of the crucial points on branding activities undertaken by the organisations in charge of places.

References


Rollero, C., & De Piccoli, N. (2010). Place attachment, identification and


### Appendix 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review title</th>
<th>Author/s</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. articles</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Destination Image analysis - A review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000</td>
<td>Steven Pike</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1973 - 2000</td>
<td>• There is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models. &lt;br&gt;• DI construct is difficult to measure &lt;br&gt;• Consumers’ overall perceptions of a destination is binary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Destination Image Towards a Conceptual Framework</td>
<td>Martina G. Gallarza, Irene Gil Saura, Hayde´e Caldero´n García’a</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1971-1999</td>
<td>• Studies are analysed based on three dimensions: object, subject and attributes &lt;br&gt;• Conceptualization and Dimensions - no consensus on the process and nature of DI formation &lt;br&gt;• DI Formation Process – static and dynamic &lt;br&gt;• Assessment and Measurement of DI - complexity in measuring perceptions, inaccurate comparisons &lt;br&gt;• Distance and DI Change Over Time. &lt;br&gt;• Active and Passive Role of Residents in Image Study. &lt;br&gt;• DI Management Policies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Destination Image: A Meta-Analysis of 2000–2007 Research</td>
<td>Svetlana Stepchenkova, Juline E. Mills</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>2000-2007</td>
<td>• DI definition- lack of consensus among scholars due to the complexity, subjectivity, and elusive nature of the concept. &lt;br&gt;• Area has become interdisciplinary - sociocultural, media and communications, DI and self-concept, consumer behaviour and marketing &lt;br&gt;• Still no consensus on methodologies for measurement of the behavioural aspect of DI.</td>
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<tr>
<td>An examination of the status and evolution of country image research</td>
<td>Irene R.R. Lu, Louise A. Heslop,</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>1978 - 2003</td>
<td>• Number and influence of CI articles is in decline &lt;br&gt;• Upward trend for articles from outside North America, collaboration is constant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study Title</td>
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<td>Sense of place and place identity: Review of neuroscientific evidence</td>
<td>Chris Lengen, Thomas Kistemann</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>- Encoding of environmental information in the perception and memory system</td>
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<td>- The role of attention and emotion in the encoding process</td>
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<td>- Recognition of places based on the perception and memory system</td>
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<td>- Navigation and spatial orientation based on the recognition of places</td>
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<td>- The significance of emotion in the place recognition process</td>
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<td>- Neuroscience has studied place identity in respect of individual but not</td>
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<td>substantiated in the culture or higher levels yet</td>
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<td>Rethinking place marketing – a literature review</td>
<td>Elin Berglund, Krister Olsson</td>
<td>2010</td>
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<td>- Two divergent starting points place and marketing.</td>
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<td>- place as a starting point tend to be empirical and/or critical in approach,</td>
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<td>studies with marketing as a starting point tend to be prescriptive and/or</td>
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<td>conceptual,</td>
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<td>- Identifies ten themes</td>
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<td>- Most empirical and critical research in this field of development are</td>
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<td>dealing with place selling and place promotion, not with place marketing.</td>
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<td>Unfolding and configuring two decades of research and publications on place marketing and place branding</td>
<td>David Gertner</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>- The field has not reached a point where we can say that a robust theory is</td>
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<td>- Dominance of qualitative anecdotal evidence.</td>
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<td>- The field must make an effort to identify variables that might play a role</td>
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<td>in the attitudes toward city brands, nation brands and so on.</td>
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<td>Place branding &amp; place marketing 1976–2016: A multidisciplinary literature review</td>
<td>Renaud Vuignier</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1172</td>
<td>- Articles are classified into categories and subcategories according to</td>
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<td>disciplinary approach, method used and perspective adopted.</td>
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<td>- The field suffers from a lack of conceptual clarity, diverging definitions</td>
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<td>and a weak theoretical foundation.</td>
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<td>- The field lacks empirical evidence and explanatory articles</td>
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<td>- Six important themes identified individually and others grouped together</td>
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<td>- The review underscores the literature’s lack of interest in the political</td>
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<td>and institutional contexts of places.</td>
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<td>Nation Branding: Toward an Agenda for Critical Research</td>
<td>Nadia Kaneva</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>- Research is split in three categories, borrowing from Bell (1976):</td>
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<td>technical economic - political - cultural.</td>
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<td>Title</td>
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</table>
| Problematising place branding research: A meta-theoretical analysis of the literature | Andrea Lucarelli, Sara Brorström             | 2013 | 292   | • A reflexive conceptual map with four types of research orientations across disciplines.  
  • Directions for future research work should be informed by critical theories on the global phenomenon of nation branding.  
  • Researchers disagree on how the concept of place branding should be defined.  
  • Literature is categorised according to different ontological and epistemological approaches  
  • Most of the articles follow objectivist approach, driven by production and consumer-oriented perspective. |
| A review of place branding methodologies in the new millennium        | Chung-shing Chan, Lawal M. Marafa             | 2013 | 82    | • A dominance of qualitative research approaches in most of the specific topic areas in place branding including place identity, projected images, place offerings, marketing and communications, and stakeholder relationships.  
  • Most research is individual case studies  
  • There is lack of integrated research approaches  
  • Relatively low explanatory power of statistical applications in some studies.  
  • Mixed-method or more diversified quantitative approaches may yield insightful future research opportunities. |
| Branding places with social problems: A systematic review (2000-2013) | Shanon Jones, Krzysztof Kubacki              | 2014 | 25    | • Three main themes: place branding strategies, types of social problems and the role of policy development in addressing the problems  
  • Place branding strategies can be successful for places with negative images, in particular social problems; however, it is an all-encompassing process that cannot focus on only one aspect (that is, promotion or tourism)  
  • It is not necessary to remove a social problem before place branding benefits can be seen. |
| Placing place branding: an analysis of an emerging research field in human geography | Ida Andersson                                | 2014 | 86    | • Place branding in human geography has solid conceptual frameworks and uses theoretical approaches.  
  • Place branding research can move beyond a routine explanation of the adaption of corporate branding to places, into a wider understanding of societal, political, spatial and economical structures that in interplay create what is known to be place branding.  
  • Geographers, by studying place branding using various conceptions of place as defined in human geography, are making distinctive conceptual contributions to the multi-disciplinary research field of place branding. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Citations</th>
<th>Summary</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place branding research: a thematic review and future research agenda</td>
<td>Alok Acharya, Zillur Rahman</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>Articles are categorized according to various criteria such as research themes, bibliographic data, method of study, method of data collection, types of data analysis techniques used, conceptual/theoretical frameworks proposed and geographical locations focused. Most of the articles are based on conceptual, case, and qualitative studies. Nine themes were identified. Place brand identity emerged as a major research theme in all studies. Place branding field still lacks sound theoretical background.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation branding for foreign direct investment: an Integrative review and directions for research and strategy</td>
<td>Nicolas Papadopoulos, Leila Hamzaoui- Essoussi, Alia El Banna</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td></td>
<td>Four main areas: Decision making and location choice in foreign direct investment, Nation branding: promises and challenges, Nation branding for investment attraction, Lack of consensus, as to the principal factors that affect investor and nation decisions and actions, resulting in several knowledge gaps that need to be addressed by new research along the lines suggested in the study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting a number on place: a systematic review of place branding influence</td>
<td>Evan Cleave and Godwin Arku</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Compatibility between place branding and human geography, Place branding influence to be conceptualized through the sense-of-place, which has implications for place equity and consumer decision-making, Place branding influence can be conceptualised through place equity, revealing potential performance indicators for its quantification, Place branding influence can be categorized along three interrelated dimensions: adaptiveness, effectiveness and efficiency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main areas of place branding scientific research - bibliometric analysis</td>
<td>Ewa Glinska, Ewelina Julita Tomaszewska</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>The main disciplines conducting research in place branding: tourist destination branding, country branding, city branding, place branding strategy and cultural heritage, New research fields which are developing the most dynamically within the area of place branding: place brand equity, stakeholders’ involvement and the role of cultural heritage in the place branding process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City branding: a state-of-the-art review of the research domain</td>
<td>Andrea Lucarelli, Per Olof Berg</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>Criticism for applying a mono-disciplinary perspective in a field, which is essentially multi-disciplinary, Three perspectives were identified emerging across academic disciplines</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• The qualitative methods are commonly used.  
• There is a tendency to describe the data but not to interpret the relations between the concepts and theories. Therefore, the knowledge is idiographic.  
• Propose 4 categories of branding themes

| City branding research and practice: An integrative review | Amelia Green, Debra Grace and Helen Perkins | 2016 | 134 |  | • Map the development of city brand management over five waves - primitive attempts to adjust what cities mean to people, boosterish city promotion, entrepreneurial urban governance, formalised city marketing, a rhetorical city brand focus.  
• Identify four major waves in city branding research: (i) initial possibilities, (ii) application and adaption of existing branding theory, (iii) development of a critical lens and (iv) progressive approaches that intersect with the co-creation branding paradigm  
• The divergent evolutionary paths of city branding research and practice contribute to an overall disconnect between scholars and practitioners. |
### Appendix 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place identity definitions</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  the identity of a place takes shape when similar perceptions are shared across a community’</td>
<td>(Aitken &amp; Campelo, 2011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2  Positive stereotypical associations with the place</td>
<td>(Boisen et al., 2011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3  ...is made up of one’s own enjoyment and pride in living in a place and is influenced by the range of facilities, quality of environments, social variation available, as well as the pride generated through experiencing external interest in local culture</td>
<td>(Canavan, 2015b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Place- identity is a substructure of self-identity, much like gender and social class, and is comprised of perceptions and comprehensions regarding the environment.</td>
<td>(Hauge, 2007)</td>
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<td>5  Places are not only contexts or backdrops, but also an integral part of identity</td>
<td>(Hauge, 2007)</td>
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<td>6  Place identity, however, has been defined as a component of personal identity, a process by which, through interaction with places, people describe themselves in terms of belonging to a specific place</td>
<td>(Hernández et al., 2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td>7  place identity is a process</td>
<td>(Kalandides, 2011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>8  place identity as part of individual (human) identity; (2) place identity as formative of group identity; (3) mental representations of place by an individual; (4) group perceptions of place; (5) identification of a group with a territory; and (6) place identity as a sense of place, “character”, “personality” and distinctiveness</td>
<td>(Kalandides, 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  The transposition of the term identity from humans to place is highly problematic and can only be understood as a metaphor.</td>
<td>(Kalandides, 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 place’s identity, which is understood as an interactive process of identity construction through a dialogue between stakeholders</td>
<td>(Kavaratzis &amp; Hatch, 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Through the interaction between place and the self in the assimilation and accommodation process (Piaget and Inhelder, 1956) identity is generated (Relph, 1976).</td>
<td>(Lengen &amp; Kistemann, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12  ... define place identity in relation to cognition. This cognition includes memories, feelings, attitudes, values, preferences, behavioural concepts and experiences, which are associated with the variety and complexity of the physical setting and define the existence of personhood.</td>
<td>(Lengen &amp; Kistemann, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13  However, “place identity”, the way it is used by psychologists, conceives of it as a feature of a person, not place</td>
<td>(Lewicka, 2008)</td>
</tr>
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<td>14  Let us notice, though, that the concept of “identity”, when applied to a place, may carry two altogether different meanings. In the first meaning “identity” refers to the term “place” and means a set of place features that guarantee the place’s distinctive-ness and continuity in time.</td>
<td>(Lewicka, 2008)</td>
</tr>
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<td>15  The relation between place and identity comprises two interrelated perspectives (Relph, 1976 ): the identity of the place itself and a person ’ s identity with the place — in other words, the role of place in the formation of the person’s self-identity</td>
<td>(Lindstedt, 2011)</td>
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<td>the collectively shared vision of a place ’ s identity is based on the identities formed at the individual level</td>
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<td>Place identities and senses of place are widely accepted in the place branding literature as deriving from the intrinsic features and history of a given place and a shared (personalised) relationship to these elements.</td>
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<td>a place, to a higher degree, becomes a part of one’s conceptual and extended selves</td>
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<td>place identity as a substructure of self-identity, consisting of cognitions about the physical world.</td>
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<td>Place identity is a “physical world socialisation of the self”</td>
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<td>Place identity is a representation of the attachment of the people with the place, which they identify themselves with</td>
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<td>formation of the identity of a region. In this process, people ascribe characteristics to places (and to people within those places). The identity of a region as described by a person is therefore dependent on the regional identity of that person, whether a person identifies with a region (when a region and the people in the region are perceived as congruent with the ‘self’), or against a region (when the region and its inhabitants are considered incongruent with the ‘self’).</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>..all identifications have locations implications, place is part of the content of an identification... Identity processes have a dynamic relationship with the residential environment ... the environment becomes a salient part of the identity as opposed to the merely setting a context for in which identity can be established and developed</td>
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<td>It is considered a distinctive feature of any place</td>
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<td>place identity is a more emotional attachment, which involves a psychological investment in a place that develops over time</td>
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PLACE BRANDING THROUGH COMPETITIVE EUROPEAN PROGRAMS: THE CASE OF THE ISLAND OF TILOS

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DEFNER ALEX
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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to highlight the important and essential role that Competitive European Programs can play as a key tool in identifying a place by contributing significantly and substantially as interrelated actions and measures to the development of long-term strategic place marketing / branding, as well as to local development. Also, planning a long-term place marketing / branding strategy with interrelated actions and measures, and through European Programs, leads to establishing identity, as well as to maintaining and increasing the attractiveness of a place for specific target groups.

The case of the island of Tilos, as well as the promotion of the identity of the first "green" island of the Mediterranean, which also derives from the corresponding distinction, will be the object of study. Due to the complexity of the theme, mixed methods are going to be implemented. Therefore, in addition to secondary research, the combination of quantitative and qualitative (e.g. semi-structured interviews) methods will lead to the collection of the necessary primary data that constitute the research framework and will meet its general and specific objectives. This research currently is on the stage of its implementation. It is important to stress that the Tilos has been chosen because it aims to become the first fully sustainable island in the Mediterranean. For this reason, it has been chosen for “Horizon 2020” which is a Competitive European program which supports such initiatives. It is also important to stress the fact that Tilos is a small island in S.E. Greece which is quite isolated and away from the mainland. Hence, become energy efficient and sustainable, this will help this small island to achieve an image as a sustainable destination which will attract the interest of tourists.

On the expected findings and conclusions, it is important to mention that the link between competitiveness and identity constitutes a key feature of modern place marketing / branding. The island of Tilos has a distinctive originality which derives from the fact that it is considered the first solely “green island” in the Mediterranean Sea, hence it is
expected that this will leverage its brand image and it will help the island to generate more income from sustainable tourism.

**Keywords:** local development, sustainable tourism, green islands, Competitive European Programs, Tilos
BRANDING THE MID-SIZE CITY: THE CASE OF THREE AUSTRALIAN CITIES

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Abstract

Today, the majority of the urban population in the world live in small and medium size cities. Also, they are the fastest growing (Economic & Affair, 2016). Due to globalisation, especially in the developed world cities are competing to distinguish themselves, and are implementing various policy and long-term strategies to providing a competitive advantage (Tataroğlu, Karataş, Erboy, & Sciences, 2015). Cities are increasingly using branding as a tool to differentiate themselves (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008). It is used as an instruments in place development, urban regeneration, place positioning, and its contribution to economic growth (Maheshwari, Vandewalle, & Bamber, 2011). Without neglecting its existing character (Eshuis, Braun, & Klijn, 2013). These strategies influence the transformation of the city, not only the built environment with its physical form but also its nonphysical and intangible attributes (Maheshwari et al., 2011). Hence, place branding is a tool that support cities’ desired vision, and contribute in generating place’s identity.

Identity of a place is a dynamic concept; it goes through an ongoing transformation and evolutionary change. Place identity is a changeable concept, depending on the events and circumstances that it faces (Relph, 1976, p. 45). However, there is lack of the literature that focuses on the place and city branding of small and medium cities. Most of the literature explores the branding of established place identity. There is a gap in analysis of the processes in which branding, and identity formation are happening in the same time, where brand is used to generate the uniqueness and values for the new identity.

Almost half of the Australian population live in Sydney and Melbourne, both are challenged to manage the high influx of migration. As a result, there has been a strong push by the national government to decentralize the distribution of its, through the implementation of long-term strategies, with the intention to [re]imagine and/or [re]position the image of the cities. Thus, this paper will focus on the branding of three
Australian mid-size cities. The aim is to investigate and analyse the commonalities and similarities of the chosen case studies.

This paper is part of a larger project which will further investigate further understandings of place branding, and is guided by the major question; How to brand a Mid-size City?

Empirically, the thesis will focus on in-depth case studies of place branding in three medium-sized cities in Australia, and analyses of the development of place branding over the course of time, situating place branding practices within a wider spatial contextualization. The main objective of the study is to further understand how the strategic thinking influence the city’s identity. The findings will be useful for city leadership, marketers and urban planners alike.

**Keywords:** place branding, place identity, place brand management, medium sized city, Australia
THE IMPACT OF SPATIAL THINKING ON TOURISM:
THE CASE OF TOURIST MAPS

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Abstract

Nowadays, Spatial Thinking has become a powerful tool not only in Geographic Information Science but also in other fields such as work and daily life. The profession of a Graphic Designer (who uses visual and spatial skills to create images that communicate) and the hobby of chess (where players need to remember a lot of moves through space) are two typical examples of that powerful tool. Indeed, according to Michael F. Goodchild, Spatial Programming is equally important to modern human life as numeracy, reading, writing, and logic. More specifically, Spatial Cognition is a particular way of thinking, which, however, has been developed rapidly in recent years, mainly due to two existing facts; Initially, due to the rapid evolution of Internet technologies and secondly, due to the wide and easier now, use of Maps. In particular, in a country like Greece, where Tourism plays an important role as a driving force of economic development, tourist maps are used to a great extent. Consequently, a tourist map that serves its purpose and it expresses good information to its readers, it can be only considered as a great advantage for Tourism. As a result, the questions that arise here, are connected to the concepts of Spatial Thinking and Tourist Maps and by extension to the Place Branding. The main question is, in what ways Spatial Thinking could contribute to Tourist Maps? One of the most serious problems that a tourist map faces (except the different characteristics and expectations of its readers), is related to the general problem of human’s orientation at a new location and secondly, the low levels of his spatial literacy. Spatial Thinking can overcome these problems, as, for example, orientation could be studied and then, improved graphically on a map. On (G.J. Ashworth, 1995) the other hand, the study of Tourist Maps could contribute to Spatial Thinking, to unknown paths until today. A typ (Leiper, 1979)ical example of that is the analysis of many different characteristics and expectations that a tourist map needs to take into account. Eventually, the main purpose of this presentation is to highlight the connection between Spatial Thinking and Tourist Maps and also, to mention that both of them could contribute to the field of Place Branding, as they could be a part of discovering, developing and conceiving ideas for constructing the identity of a place.

Keywords: spatial thinking, spatial literacy, tourism, tourist maps
Abstract

Recently, place branding is getting more and more attention in both academic and practices. However, the government branding strategies and other factor impact the knowledge generation mechanism in place branding literature is still lacking study. This research has contributed by investigating case selection pattern and its influencing factors based on articles about place branding from the Web of Science from 2008 to 2018. Firstly, we raised three hypotheses about case selection mechanism in place branding literature, including government branding strategies, urban attraction factors and knowledge resources. Secondly, we tested these hypotheses in aggregated individual cases and city pairs by linear regression and qualitative comparative analysis. As for case selection patterns, the coverage of cases has been expanded from Europe to other continents, especially Asia. As for influencing factors, this study demonstrated mega-event holding cities rather than the ones with official branding documents or organization tend to be selected as cases in place branding literature. It is possible that the better performed cities gain more attention from scholars, such as cities holding megacity event. The other influential factors include tourism visitor number and the number of scholars working on place branding. The administrative function and population of cities are not influential factors for individual case selection. The city pairs appear in the literature tend to base on their similarity rather than variety, such as similarity in location, tourism visitor number and scholar agglomeration intensity. However, scientific collaboration among scholars plays a limited role in multiple case selection. The collaboration between scholars in different countries or continents are still in a small proportion in recent place branding literature.

Keywords: place branding, case selection, thematic analysis
A COMPARISON OF THE AFRO-PESSIMISTIC
DISCOURSE AND PERCEPTIONS OF ‘BRAND AFRICA’

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Abstract
For over a century, Africa has been depicted by the West as the dark continent, resulting in a place brand image that impedes tourism, trade and investment. This one-sided discourse, shaped by Western charities, celebrities, movies, and the media, has led to Afro-pessimism; the conviction that the continent isn’t capable of social, economic or political progress.

The literature on Afro-pessimism highlights the prevalent connotations from the discourse, such as poverty, famine, conflict and corruption, but does not indicate if they correspond with current perceptions of Africa. This study aims to assess the similarities and differences between the Afro-Pessimistic discourse and the place brand image of Africa in terms of its core geographical space, associations, functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits. For this purpose, the Brand Concept Maps method of John et al (2016) is adapted allowing for free association (instead of selecting prompted associations) and broadened to analyse functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits. Data is gathered through a structured online survey in the United Kingdom and the United States. The research contributes to the literature on Afro-Pessimism and place branding, as it examines if the negative, external discourse has effectively become the brand image and how that affects the attitude towards the supra-national place brand ‘Africa’.

Keywords: afro-pessimism, Brand Africa, supra-national place branding, brand benefits, the dark continent
THE BRAND OF SHARING CITIES: SOCIAL PRACTICES THAT COMMUNICATE URBAN IDENTITIES

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Abstract

The sharing city is a notion based on citizen empowerment and how to foster collaboration, participation and co-creation of all stakeholders within the city (McLaren & Agyeman, 2015; Sharp, 2017). This concept emphasizes people as real agents of change, and holds certain links with the notions of sharing and sharing economy (Bernardi & Diamantini, 2018). Conceptually, the sharing city represents best practices similar to other similar terms such as the smart city, the intelligent city, the creative city etc. (Joss et al. 2019). Furthermore, although the sharing city shares commonalities with the widely researched smart city, e.g. make the city more efficient and sustainable (Dril, Galkin & Bibik, 2016; Khan & Zaman, 2018), the sharing city has a more anthropocentric focus prioritizing the aspects of human interaction, citizenship and community (Calzada and Cobo, 2015).

There is no single way to implement or manage the sharing city, so naturally many differences can be found between them (e.g. Seoul, Amsterdam, Milan). However, these heterogeneous spatial identities seek common values such as social justice, equality and inclusion. Issues such as housing, transportation, food, entrepreneurship or education are addressed within this notion.

Furthermore, the emerging discourses that construct the sharing city brand are strategic communication tools to position territories and influence their perception (Vanolo, 2016). Therefore, from a theoretical point of view, this thesis aims to explore the set of brand attributes that compose the sharing city brand and the construction process of these brands in two different contexts. From the practitioners’ point of view, this thesis seeks to identify how this city imaginary represents a competitive advantage for the constitution of place brands and identify other policy and managerial implications. We start from the idea that
the sharing city brand construction takes places in different levels. It can be built at the macro level, through top-down strategies and plans (e.g. ‘Sharing Cities Sweden’ is developing a national program to improve quality of life in cities focused on innovative and smart solutions); but also at the micro level, where it becomes operational and visible (e.g. bike-sharing initiatives in Copenhagen).

This study uses a qualitative approach. Through interviews, netnography, focus groups and document analysis, we set to explore how the sharing city is constructed as a place brand and to analyze this process and who participates. First, the institutional perspective is analyzed through the participation of various public and private actors (municipalities, companies, associations) in the construction of a city as a sharing city. Second, attention is placed on citizen participation and how communities form and are formed in the context of a sharing city. The research contexts are the cities of Berlin and Barcelona, where sharing city brands are still in process. These two cities present certain interesting differences. In Barcelona, the city hall acts as a promoter of the sharing city project and facilitates spaces and structures in that regard such as the Decidim, a participation platform for establishing a collaborative channel between citizens and government. However, Berlin lacks a strong motivation on the part of institutions that would facilitate the process. Instead many bottom-up initiatives take place such as Supermarkt Berlin, a space to boost collaborative economies and new forms of work. Also, OuiShare.Berlin, a platform to develop social models based on sharing values.

The preliminary findings indicate: (a) Sharing cities are complex and conceptually fragmented entities. They require more theoretical and practical delimitation in order to establish their fields of action. (b) In sharing cities a myriad of meanings and symbolic images of solidarity are produced. (c) The implementation of a sharing city brand requires nurturing a sharing culture that allows recognizing potential opportunities for sharing. (d) Sharing cities are represented holistically. They combines different branding tools and in our case study, for example, media information are prioritized than spatial planning. (e) Communities and citizenship do not only exercise a transforming role in the city, but may also assume the leadership becoming an essential agent of change. (f) Sharing cities are not mutually exclusive city projects with the smart city and other city brands although they present certain conceptual differences. Sharing cities are optimistic representations about urban futures (Harmaala, 2015; Khan & Zaman, 2018; Vanolo, 2015). Furthermore, storytelling and narratives must be
analyzed and contrasted with planning and policies. Focusing on place branding would be useful to the understanding of the strategic dimensions of the label sharing city.

**Keywords:** sharing cities, sharing culture, place branding, social practices, communities
CHINA’S BELT AND ROAD INITIATIVE IN ETHIOPIA: DEVELOPMENT OR FALLACY?

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Abstract

Africa’s economic development is attributed greatly to China’s investments with the latter’s global branding strategy drawing the attention of global affairs and geopolitics. China’s Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) as part of the China-Africa public diplomacy intensifies the South-South axis versus the North-South. Moreover, China’s business-as-usual approach offers favorable terms than Europe and the US. Ethiopia is China’s geostrategic ally in the BRI and one of the world’s fastest growing economies - its GDP reaches since the new millennium a steady average of 8% due to mega infrastructure and construction projects financed by the Chinese government. Moreover, its agriculture-based economy transforms into a manufacturing hub financed by Chinese foreign direct investments. Contrariwise, like many African economies, Ethiopia’s growth brand is accompanied by severe poverty, ethnic conflicts, violence and displacements. Remarkably, Ethiopia’s Prime Minister, Abiy Ahmed won the Nobel Peace Prize fairly by negotiating peace in the Horn of Africa setting a brand example for the whole African continent. However, federalism and domestic conflicts remain still a challenge for the country’s competitive identity. The diverse ethnic groups demand more access to power and growth. Given China’s view on equal China-Africa relations, how does Ethiopia benefit from the BRI and which are its brand implications? How is Ethiopia’s community included in its growth brand identity? This article attempts to shed light on the China-Africa partnership by examining Ethiopia’s challenges through its development brand strategy as a transition economy. The article conceptualizes win-win branding approaches and contributes thus to the interdisciplinary discussion on China-Ethiopia public diplomacy.

Keywords: growth, trade, investments, displacement, ethnic conflicts

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Aim of study and methodology

This study aims to investigate the China-Africa partnership by examining China’s Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) brand implications in Ethiopia. Specifically, the study seeks to i) define the China-Africa and China-Ethiopia cooperation between 2001-19, ii) examine the impact of rapid growth on the Ethiopian community, iii) conceptualize Ethiopia’s brand identity and China-Ethiopia win-win brand strategy.

The study is part of the author’s PhD thesis on the sustainable transition of African emerging economies at the University of the Peloponnese in Greece, Dept. of Political Science and International Relations. Field research was conducted in Ethiopia and Greece through structured and unstructured interviews between 2017-19 with representatives of international, local organizations and associations as well as asylum seekers. The framework analysis of this qualitative and quantitative research is based on international literature review as well as systematic observation of China-Africa news and publications.

China’s rising influence in Africa

China’s ‘going global’ brand strategy has changed the world economic order with China emerging as a major player in the global system among the new economic powerhouses of Brazil and India. With an alternative model to the public diplomacy of the North-South relations, China’s growth strengthened the South-South cooperation (Cheru 2015, Beeson and Zeng 2017, Gray and Gills 2015, Nayyar 2016, Gelb 2005) in global political and economic forums such as the G20, BRICS and the World
Trade Organization (WTO) representing the rise of the emerging markets (Sheikh, Hathaway 2017) over the global North. Africa’s increasing dynamism since the new millennium was attributed to China’s growing presence in the African continent. African countries such as Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and Namibia began to pursue a strategy of ‘looking Eastward’ in the hope of cooperating with the emerging markets of China and India (Guimei 2018: 16). Remarkably, China’s strategy competed the advanced countries of the North, namely US, Europe and Japan with a decline becoming more evident in 2010, when their economies accounted for less than half of global GDP in purchasing power terms (Demertzis et al. 2018). This trend known as ‘the diminished Giant syndrome’ (Bhagwati 1993) or ‘curse of declinism’ coincided with the Brexit insecurity and the US-China trade war.

After China’s accession to the WTO in 2001, its trade with Africa boomed. According to the China-Africa Research Initiative of John Hopkins University (2019), China-Africa bilateral trade has been steadily increasing for the past 16 years with more than 10,000 recorded privately owned Chinese firms investing in the African continent (Mc Kinsey 2017). China was Africa’s third most important partner in 2006 following the US and France ahead of the UK (Taylor 2006). The same year a number of African countries occupying a central role in China-Africa public diplomacy participated in the Beijing Summit of the Forum on China–Africa Co-operation (FOCAC). Within FOCAC, China signed memorandums of understanding with 37 African countries - 70% of all 54 African nations - and the African Union. Surpassing the US in 2009, China is now Africa’s largest trading partner (Cooke, Downie 2015: 3). Chinese state-owned and private sector enterprises in Africa accounted for $14.7 bil. foreign direct investments (FDIs) in 2012 and overall Chinese investment in Africa exceeds $40 bil. overtaking World Bank lending in the continent (Ayodele, Sotola 2014). The initiation of the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) in 2013 featured China the same year as the world’s largest trading nation with its total trade in goods amounting over $4 tril. surpassing the US (The Guardian 2014). In 2017, the largest exporter to China from Africa was Angola, followed by South Africa and the Republic of Congo, while South Africa was the largest buyer of Chinese goods, followed by Egypt and Nigeria (2016).

China became Africa’s closest ally favoring the continent’s economic development offering new development opportunities for the African continent under different conditions than those proposed by Europe and the US. Moreover, China’s resource-seeking investment strategy in the African continent drew the attention of global affairs, because the BRI confirms in a way that there is an alternative against the established
global North’s conditionalities. Both the EU and the US push the African governments consistently for democratic and governance standards in exchange for development aid. Moreover, African economies have to deal often with the high interest rates either of the international financial institutions or the Western loans. A German professor of African politics reports in a study commissioned by the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development that the exponential growth in foreign trade, direct investment and development cooperation between China and Africa since the end of the 1990s shocked the Western public opinion (Asche, Schüller 2018: 10). The reasons lay on the concessional loans offered by the Chinese state-owned Exim Bank, China Development Bank, Export-Import Bank of China, People’s Bank of China and China-Africa Development Fund, including in many cases debt-cancellations.

In turn, African economies with significant natural resource endowments fuel China’s growth with their potential sources of raw materials (Power and Mohan 2010: 463). Concentrated in oil producing countries such as Nigeria, Angola and Sudan (Ziso 2018: 17) as well as mega infrastructure and construction projects such as the Standard Gauge Railway in Kenya and the Djibouti-Addis Ababa electric train line, China’s capital focuses on infrastructure-for-resources loans (Alves 2013). The finance of Africa’s infrastructure through Chinese loans and technical expertise in exchange for access to resources is a two-sided coin. From the one hand, it enhances Africa’s development and from the other hand it fuels China’s growth. Is thus China’s expansion in Africa attributed at the expense of African economies or is it a mutual cooperation? Alden (2007: 8) reports about the “resource-based” China’s diplomacy in Africa, while Taylor (2009: 19) notes that China has a “singular focus on resource acquisition and commercial opportunism”. However, China’s rhetoric considers the China-Africa relations as an equal partnership opposed to the traditional African post-colonial relation to Europe. Nevertheless, some authors recognize China’s strategy in Africa as neo-colonialist (Zhao 2014). In addition, Africa’s trade deficit opposed to China’s surplus enhances the argument. The global commodity price slump of 2014 reduced the total value of China-Africa trade from $215 bil. in 2014 to $148 bil. in 2017. The impact was remarkable at the decline of African exports to China, whereas Chinese exports to Africa remained steady. It is thus obvious that the African producing capacity reduced, implying also reductions in the African employment, income and purchasing power. In turn, Chinese exports increased. How ready is then Africa to pursue its sovereign growth brand with trade balance and community-based added value?
The Belt and Road initiative in Ethiopia

China’s immense presence in the Horn of Africa has expanded its trade network connecting Asia, Africa and Europe as part of the South-South cooperation and the BRI. The region’s resources, the opportunities presented to African countries in becoming hubs for manufacturing and the financing of infrastructure projects signify for China a strong foothold in the Horn of Africa (African Economic Outlook 2016: 26). Within the BRI, Ethiopia, China’s close ally, stands as a host of Chinese diplomatic and economic activity in Sub-Saharan Africa. Being a diplomatic hub, Addis Ababa attracts more foreign representation than other African capitals hosting also the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). After the financing of the construction of the Africa Union building in Addis Ababa in 2012, China officially expressed its willingness to develop multidimensional relations at all levels with Ethiopia and the rest African continent. Ziso (2018: 17) notes that Ethiopia is a very crucial case study in the discussion of the internationalization of Chinese capital in sub-Saharan Africa. Indeed, China has become a significant partner of Ethiopia in the sectors of trade, development finance, investment and technical cooperation, with higher figures in trade and FDIs.

According to various authors and investment observatories, Ethiopia ranks among the top five partners of China - Nigeria, Angola, South Africa, Zambia and Sudan (Raine 2009: 43, Ziso 2018: 4, Brookings Institution). Ziso (2018: 18) characterizes Ethiopia though as ‘the odd one out’ due to China’s infrastructure and manufacturing investments. In the rest African countries, China is mostly engaged in resource extraction - oil in Nigeria, Angola and Sudan, copper in Zambia, minerals and metals in South Africa. It is worth to mention that Chinese investments and construction in Ethiopia amounted to a total of $23,85 bil. between 2005 and 2018 (China Global Investment Tracker). In 2010, 580 Chinese companies with 1,065 investment projects were registered in Ethiopia with estimated capital investment of $2,2 bil. (Raine 2009: 43).

The China-Ethiopia partnership in terms of trade volumes boosted the growth and exports of both countries with China gaining though the main benefit. The trade volume for imports and exports between China and Ethiopia reached the amount of $100 mil. already in 2002, of which Chinese exports amounted to $96 mil. and Ethiopia’s imports to $3,7 mil. Their total trade volume raised to $700 mil. in 2006 - Ethiopia’s exports growing to over $120 mil. - and over $1 bil. in 2009 (Adem 2002), ranking China as the second largest trading partner for Ethiopia almost equal to the EU, leaving however Ethiopia with a large trade deficit towards both of them. Hackenesch (2013) reports that China grants Ethiopia duty and quota free exports for about 440 products, but
Ethiopia’s deficit is still significant. In 2016, Ethiopia’s trade imports from China amounted to €5,1 bil., while its exports amounted to €370 mil. (EC DG Trade 2017). Remarkably, Ethiopia’s deficit appears smaller with the EU compared to China - Ethiopia’s imports from the EU28 in 2016 amounted to €2,39 bil., while its exports to €776 mil. Moreover, the flooding of the Ethiopian - including the rest African - markets with Chinese imported low-cost manufactures crowd-out African local producers (Giovannetti, Sanfilippo 2009). At last, trade - and budget - deficits are often covered by China’s BRI debt diplomacy with China being accused to gain political influence through loan distribution in corrupt and autocratic regimes (Horta 2019: 16). Such controversial aspects of China’s BRI in Ethiopia raise questions whether the Ethiopian growth brand is consolidated on firm fundamentals or rather a fallacy?

Ethiopia is a special case among African countries, because it seeks throughout its political history to emulate development models, but in the end it seems to follow its own economic growth brand model. Ethiopia’s first such model in the mid-nineteenth century was Russia, then followed Japan and after the Second World War, United Kingdom and other Western states (Clapham 2006). Ethiopia’s developmental state as described by Clapham (2018, 2006) remains ‘deeply entrenched to its statehood’ mainly due to the dominance of the state, which commands the economy, the military and the security apparatus. This governance model resembles China’s development path, which is since the new millennium, Ethiopia’s new emulation model of growth. Both countries share a common vision for the state apparatus and their structural economic transformation. Following the steps of South Korea and Taiwan, Meles Zenawi governance (1991-2012) introduced the development of special economic zones in Ethiopia according to the successful East Asian export-led growth brand strategy, which is still adopted by the ruling coalition party of the Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). Sixty percent of Ethiopia’s FDI is attributed to Chinese manufacturing, which differentiates it from the resource-based Chinese FDI in other African countries (Geda, Meskel 2009: 13). Fei (2018: 9) notes that by the end of 2016, 19 special economic zones were either under operation, construction, or planning in Ethiopia.

However, the country’s famous industrial parks in the outskirts of Addis Ababa and Hawassa engage high-scale Chinese managers and low-wage Ethiopians. The NYU Stern report of the Center for Business and Human Rights (2019) notes characteristically that the garment-workers’ $26 wage in Hawassa Industrial Park is the lowest base wage in any garment producing country! This salary is hardly enough for the workers’ basic
nutrition needs. Moreover, their productivity remains significantly low, while they are hardly provided with any training and capacity-building opportunities (Giannecchini, Taylor 2018). Given that the public servants’ wage amounts to a minimum of 420 birr per month ($14), the unskilled manufacturing workers remain with limited alternatives. The report further mentions that ‘restive workers have protested by stopping work or quitting altogether’, which is a strong indication for the working conditions of Chinese manufacturing employers.

**Ethiopia’s development challenges**

Ethiopia’s investment growth strategy faces severe impediments due to the country’s ethnic diversity. Its federal-based constitution introduced by Meles Zenawi offered autonomy to the country’s 85 different ethnic groups in nine regional governments and two administrative areas, which are in reality semi-states within a unified territory. During the previous governance of Hailemariam Desalegn (2012-2018), peaceful manifestations against the Addis Ababa expansion were massively suppressed by the Tigray ethnic group, which constitutes 6% of the country’s total population and still retains considerable influence on the ruling party’s future. The construction of Chinese industrial parks and the expansion of Addis Ababa federal governance over the Oromia federal government resulted to land grabbing and population displacement. A social and political upheaval, which expanded to the Amhara federal government led to the county’s state of emergency (2016-17). Oromo political leaders were imprisoned and accused of supposedly ‘terrorism acts’ and according to Human Rights Watch (2018) between October 2016 and August 2017 - during the country’s state of emergency - security forces arrested more than 20,000 people, killed about 600 and committed various human rights violations.

In order to change the nation’s ethnic hostility, Ethiopia’s new Prime Minister Dr. Abiy Ahmed has been selected internally within EPRDF in spring 2018 - and not elected - as a representative of the so far underrepresented Oromo, being himself an Oromo. The Oromo, which are the most represented ethnic group in the country, stand for 35% of Ethiopia’s total population. A teacher of the Greek school in Addis Ababa reported to the author that Ethiopians are not ready for democracy yet. “Abiy Ahmed has made quite a lot of changes in a short period of time, but ethnic conflicts are still immense. Ethnic groups want their autonomy, but they are mostly farmers with low educational level. Demonstrations lead very often to violence”. The representative of the Ethio-Hellenic Business Chamber, commented to the author that
“Ethiopians are characterized by pride, stubbornness and lack of democracy. They are not trained to democracy; even the last president, Abiy Ahmed was elected within the EPRDF without national elections. The situation in the country was so tense, that a more open and communicative person to the public was needed for the country’s representation. It was, however, a positive sign that many political prisoners were let free after the change of the government”.

An Ethiopian scholar (Gebresenbet 2014: 4) notes that the state is securitizing development by constructing poverty as an existential threat. Apparently, it is meant that the discourse of rapid development taking place in the Ethiopian parliament seems as a question of survival in order to combat poverty. But how has the Ethiopian community benefitted from the country’s growth and investments? The Oakland Institute and Human Rights Watch criticize the impact of FDI’s to Ethiopia’s growth due to the increased food insecurity that has resulted from the government’s villagization program and the inadequate employment resulting from large-scale foreign investments in the Lower Omo Valley and Gambella regions (Mousseau, Moore 2013: 7). The authors report that 1,5 mil. people were relocated between 2010-13 (Mousseau, Moore 2013). The so-called “voluntary” villagization program, which remains attractive to foreign investors, concerns the land of displaced pastoralists. Out of the country’s total population, 10% constitutes pastoralists, who mostly live and possess large parts of the national parks of the country. The confiscation of their lands in order to create development programs, wildlife parks as well as cotton and sugar construction farms has resulted to their displacement, especially in the Afar region, where the land was confiscated along the main river basin (Alao 2007: 107).

These evictions are accompanied by minimal or no compensation and human rights abuses such as harassments, rapes, killings, tortures and arbitrary detentions of local populations (Human Rights Watch 2015). A representative of the sugar industry business in Ethiopia notes to the author that the conflicts with the pastoralists in the Omo valley are a major issue. “From the one hand, local communities want to use the new technologies, smart phones, GPS and Western style cloths, but from the other hand, their displacement due to the sugar processing industries is a matter of death or survival to them. Pastoralists just want water and food for their animals, because through them they can ensure their livelihoods”. Indeed, the Lower Omo Valley provides home and shelter to 200,000 indigenous people, whose food security is based on their own food crop production. However, Ethiopia’s yearly sugar production of 300,000 tons relies in the construction of two sugar-processing factories, one of which is located in the Omo Valley. The China Development Bank
provided $500 mil. financing for the construction of these two sugar-processing factories along with the state-run Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, which financed the Ethiopian Sugar Corporation (Fraser, Mousseau 2019: 9). Moreover, the Export-Import Bank of India is financing $640 mil. for Ethiopia’s sugar industry countrywide under the condition that 75% of this loan would be used for goods and services imported from India. Of worth noting also, the Industrial Commercial Bank of China financed in 2010 loans of $500 mil. for the construction of the Gibe III Dam, which is located in the Omo river. A recent report by the Oakland Institute notes that major donors including the World Bank, African Development Bank and European Investment Bank all initially refused to fund the dam as it violated their social and environmental safeguard policies (Fraser, Mousseau 2019: 8). The World Bank, however, financed indirectly the project by providing $684 mil. for the construction of the power lines that will eventually distribute power from the Gibe III Dam to Kenya (World Bank 2012).

**China-Ethiopia win-win brand strategy**

Africa’s opportunity to pursue its competitive identity relies on China’s increasing interest in the continent. Chinese presence in Africa will continue to rise further in the following years favoring the South-South cooperation versus the North-South axis. China’s election of Qu Dongyu as head of UN’s Food and Security Organization (FAO) is an indication of China’s future influence over global politics and economics. Being part of this global transition, Africa faces new challenges, which will determine its approach towards its partnerships, alliances and branding strategy. Food insecurity is not any more only Africa’s problem, when the Middle East, one of the world’s top oil supplier, secures its nutrition through investments in the African continent (Huliaras, Kalantzakos 2017). Other challenges ahead for Africa, such as its poor infrastructure, limited road network, long distances, customs regulations, low-tech transport vehicles and delays at border controls make trading with the continent very difficult (Atkin, Donaldson 2015). Nevertheless, projections show that the African continent is expected to enjoy the fastest urbanization of any region in the world (McKinsey 2017) and the infrastructure investment needs will grow significantly (Global Infrastructure Outlook 2017). Moreover, Africa’s rapid population expansion - perhaps the most rapid than any other region in the world - shapes already the China-Africa population exchange. Indicatively, Africa’s population in 2017 was 1,2 bil., up from 477 million in 1980, and forecasts show a rise of up to 2 bil. by 2040 and 2,5 bil. by 2050 (UNCTAD 2018: 17), meaning that one out of thee people in the world will be of African origin. The increasing
Chinese presence in Africa will thus influence the China-Africa population exchange in the future for employment, education and family reasons.

The World Bank indicated in 2010 that investment needs for infrastructure in Africa accounted to $93 bil. per year, while Africa spent $45 bil. In 2018, the African Development Bank (AfDB) estimated Africa’s annual financing needs for infrastructure between $130-170 bil. Thus, the African continent will need to spend an estimated $6 tril. over the next 20 years to build, upgrade and maintain its infrastructure and achieve its development goals (Global Infrastructure Outlook 2017). Chinese president Xi Jinping announced $60 bil. financial support to the African continent following the 2018 FOCAC Beijing Summit. Is it enough for a more balanced China-Africa partnership in the future? Sure is that the China-Africa cooperation will further enhance Africa’s infrastructure as well as the continent’s development - and Africa will continue to fuel China’s economy through its natural resources. The African continent gathers most of the Chinese investments in oil with the Chinese national companies (CNPC, Sinopec, CNOOC) planning to invest $15 bil. until 2023 (Bloomberg 2019). However, China’s support to Africa’s economic diversification in order to secure its resilience against the volatility of the global economy, extreme weather shocks and the climate change will prove whether China’s intentions aim towards a global sustainable brand strategy.

Ethiopia is a case of particular importance for China’s BRI brand due to its geostrategic position in the Horn of Africa. Ethiopia’s industrialization policy in light manufacturing such as leather, apparel, textiles, agro-processing and its cheap electricity supply present already a competitive advantage for the country’s transformation, which is mostly attributed to China’s BRI. Its transition economy from agriculture to manufacturing implies a domestic social and economic transformation with a rising middle-class and rapid urbanization. Moreover, Ethiopia’s national image of high GDP growth rates and the government’s industrialization strategy need to align with the population’s welfare. In order to build a competitive growth brand identity, a vital question should be addressed, namely how is Ethiopia’s local community benefitting from the country’s growth inputs. Ethiopia needs thus to focus on the elevation of its population out of poverty through new productive employment opportunities. Ethiopia has to maximize its domestic resource mobilization towards sustainable economic transformation through industrialization and agriculture expansion. The diversification of the country’s growth through a broad range of production technologies will enlarge production and outputs. However, the transfer of knowledge and
training by China is crucial for the African working population in order to acquire the necessary competencies and be able to manage their own resources. Moreover, the country’s financial sector should play a key role in directing financing to business, trade growth and exports as well as sufficient foreign exchange. Furthermore, Ethiopia needs to secure its resilience against global commodity price volatility, which decreases the value of its exports. In addition, sufficient power supply and efficient transport links are key aspects for further development. Last but not least, an inclusive growth brand strategy of innovative financing, reinvestment of natural resource revenue and attraction of regional and international investments can effectively increase the government’s revenues. Botswana, for instance, managed to create a successful growth brand model (Anholt 2007) by reinvesting its earnings from diamond production in education, health and infrastructure. By taking advantage of its diamond extraction industry, it diversified its economy and institutions becoming from low-income status an upper-middle-income country (UNCTAD 2017). Ethiopia’s Growth and Transformation Plan II 2015-2020 (GTP II) to reach a lower-middle income status by 2025 needs to ensure strong institutions, resilient democratic structures as well as transparent transactions for the avoidance of capital flight.

According to Anholt (2007) national reputation is of profound importance such as a strongly branded ‘made in Germany’ Mercedes or ‘made in Japan’ Sony. Ethiopia’s industrial parks have enlarged the production capacity of the country and circumvented business impediments through simplified procedures, tax advantages and easy access to financial services, but have they created a ‘made in Ethiopia’ brand? Perhaps not as much as Ethiopia’s coffee brand, which designates the nation as the biggest coffee exporter in Africa creating 60% of the country’s foreign income - about $900 mil. - and 15% employment. Another successful sector, Ethiopia’s travel and tourism economy grew by 48.6% in 2018 experiencing the highest tourism growth in the world offering 2.2 mil. jobs and $7.4 bil. to its economy (World Travel and Tourism Council 2018).

Consequently, Ethiopia’s dynamic growth as part of China’s BRI can develop as a successful brand example for the whole African continent. Addis Ababa is a diplomatic hub attracting the global attention. Remarkably, Ethiopia’s Prime Minister, Abiy Ahmed won the Nobel Peace Prize fairly by negotiating peace in the Horn of Africa setting a brand example for the whole African continent. However, domestic conflicts remain still a challenge for Ethiopia’s competitive identity. Ethnic federalism in Africa is complex and the diverse ethnic groups demand more access to power and growth. China’s business-as-usual
approach has to take that into consideration. China needs thus to facilitate Africa’s natural resource extraction towards inclusive growth and sustainability, as these manifest in the improvement of the living standards and the welfare of Ethiopian and the rest African communities. A successful brand strategy of public diplomacy, intellectual property, competitive identity and reputation needs sustainability and preservation in order to multiply. In fact, the real win-win cooperation for the China-Africa relations will take effect when China manages to disburse the neocolonialism criticism. Hence, the China-Africa partnership will mutually benefit through the emancipation of Africa’s economic resilience, sustainable use of resources and prosperity for local communities. Eventually, China will need to undertake the ethical responsibility that derives out of its rising influence on the African continent.

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ART SESSION

CATOGRAPHY IN ANO SYROS. THE CATS NARRATE

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Abstract – Art session

With the general consensus that cats contribute positively to the promotion - acceptance of the projects in which they participate and as a recognizable and powerful element of the settlement of Ano Syros (Syros island, Greece), an "alternative" mapping of the settlement's landscape with the cats as protagonists is created. Research has been conducted by the authors for the 7th interdisciplinary Seminar of sustainable development, culture and tradition of Syros Institute.

To the reasonable question; why cats? The answer is “because in the settlement of Ano Syros cats are everywhere! Here the cats are not considered as stray animals, they are practically peer roommates with Syros residents and can easily break thresholds between private and public space”.

In this different approach, the cats of the settlement, who are in fact also legitimate, permanent residents, assume the dual role of the observer and of the subject of observation. The cats, with their multi-sensory stimuli, now become the new "eyes" for the rediscovery of the place and therefore landscape descriptions are made from a new perspective. But, also, as a basic living element of the landscape, they form a separate part of its cartography.

A multi-sensory mapping becomes more objective if the cats are regarded as observers, simply because they use all their senses (not just vision) equally well to comprehend their surroundings and they presumably heightened instincts and unbiased emotional intelligence. Having cats as protagonists can offer a pure, more primitive viewpoint. Also, accepting cats as de-facto, equal “roommates”, offers additional opportunities to describe the landscape and more effective opportunities to disseminate information to the general public.

A map with the number of cats has been created on selected routes in Ano Syros, showing their population density. In addition, a map with the most frequented/ preferred posts of some of the most recognizable cats of Ano Syros have been designed. Then, with the help of
photographic snapshots from various landmarks of the settlement and with the cats as protagonists, we create cute narratives of the landscape through their own eyes. This approach through photographic compositions, in which this highly popular visitor-resident is starring, can bring out the local peculiarities with humor and unexpected clarity. Moreover, it can help in understanding the atmosphere of the region, but also to raise awareness of the importance of protecting and promoting the cultural and architectural heritage of the island. As a result it can help with the protection and caring for this precious livestock.

It is essentially a creative game of discovery and exploration of the settlement of Ano Syros, inviting the viewer and, at the same time, potential visitor, to follow, study, discover and, ultimately, fall in love with Ano Syros.

Place marketing comprises a strategically designed process, which depends on the image of the place and of an in-depth knowledge of the place’s identity (Deffner, 2012). Within this context and accepting that cats form an inseparable part of the life and the landscape of the island, together with the dynamics developed, being particularly dear and popular pets, the development of an innovative application which will promote Ano Syros in a joyful and playful way could play a significant role in the place marketing and certainly comprises one of scopes of this work.

**Key words:** cats, Ano Syros, landscape, psycho-geographic mapping, cartography, narration
Abstract – Art session

Contribution

Rhythms have a vital impact on our experience of places, and they could be used to understand the always-coming-into-being of places and continuous place-making process. Lefebvre (2004) argues that rhythms - engendered through embodied practices such as walking, waiting, and looking (Elden, 2004) – sensitise the researcher to the nuances and patterns of everyday life in ways that could not be sufficiently captured through representational data such as interviews (Thrift, 2007). I argue that a study of rhythms will enrich current research in place branding as it allows researchers to attend to temporal and corporeal dimensions in and of places.

Context

In this study, I have chosen to focus on urban street food markets because such spaces reveal interesting rhythmic contestations in the process of place making whereby quotidian rhythms are interspersed with urban rhythms which have implications for place branding. For councils and urban planners, street food markets create an opportunity to rebrand the certain places as they create new uses in spaces and help to change associations related to the particular places. Food place branding synergies (Gyimóthy, 2017) created in these markets can be used to rebrand the traditional markets into new spaces for gastronomical street food experience.

Method and Themes

In this study, I demonstrate how rhythms can be captured through the use of hyper-lapse video method. In particular, I illustrate how a hyper-lapse video technique can be metronomically attuned to the researcher’s corporeal engagement with rhythms as they unfold in time and space. Especially in this hyper-lapse video collage piece, I attempt to show the possible use of video in the analysis of how the urban streets of London are pervaded with polyrhythmic rhythms - i.e. urban rhythms created from multiple pulses, within which the circular rhythms (Edensor, 2010). I also explore how these rhythms interpenetrate and intersect with the linear rhythms of clock time (i.e. setting up of the market, peak time crowd, waiting in the queue, sitting in the market and end of the
market). Besides, I observe how the consumption of street food is corporeally attuned to cyclical rhythms (i.e. hunger) and how these are increasingly being co-opted by commercial rhythms (i.e. trading time).

Vimeo Link: https://vimeo.com/346448834

Password: IPBAconference

**Key words:** street food markets, food place branding synergies, rhythmanalysis
“OVERCITY” PAINTING

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Abstract - Art Session


Today’s places overwhelm us with marketing messages, fancy tools and new attractions to allure more and more target groups. Cities put plenty of effort to be seen and eye-catching.

In this marketing race, they forgot about the consequences or they pretend not to see them. Today, these consequences are incredibly serious and impact the future: increased congestion, pollution, environmental degradation, damage of historical sites, inequality, etc. (Jordan et al. 2018). According to a study on Managing Tourism Growth in Europe evaluating European cities, overtourism might be driven, among others, by the traditional policy focused on promoting volume (Jordan et al., 2018). Drivers of overcrowding are based on the nature of new and existing attractions, improved accessibility, but also marketing efforts (Weber et al., 2017).

A call for rebalancing a ‘growth paradigm’ with a ‘development paradigm’ can be heard where the measure of success is not only centred on visitors’ arrivals measures but on the value that such presence brings to a place (Research for... 2018).

Therefore, more responsible place branding is a necessity because cities today should focus on DOING better instead of just shouting louder.

**Key words:** overtourism, place branding, responsibility, city
RECOLOR: PLACE BRANDING AND ART. THE CASE OF "MONTEFELTRO RENAISSANCE SIGHTS"

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Abstract - Art Session

This presentation elaborates on the nexus between place branding and art-based promotional instruments (see for example Quinn, 2005; Scaramanga, 2012; Brydges & Hracs, 2018), by reporting relevant findings from “RECOLOR” (Reviving and Enhancing artworks and Landscapes Of the Adriatic). This is an Interreg project funded by the European Commission that aims to enhance the tourist potential of some undiscovered urban and natural landscapes in Croatia and Italy. In particular, the project will promote relevant and less-known artworks in order to inspire the creation of itineraries that stimulate cultural tourists to visit natural and urban landscapes that are still outside the main established routes.

Particularly striking is the pilot action designed by the Italian region of Montefeltro (see Giovanardi, 2011), which is one of the six destinations included in the project together with the Italian cities of Cividale del Friuli and Campobasso, the Municipality of Labin, the city of Zadar and the Polytechnic of Sibenik (Croatia). The initiative "Montefeltro Renaissance Sights" has drawn from innovative landscape research tools (see Nesci & Borchia, 2013) to identify some of the still-existing natural areas that were actually depicted by famous Renaissance painters, such as Piero della Francesca, Raffaello (who was born in this region) and Leonardo da Vinci. These surprising artistic landscapes are illustrated to visitors by using a storytelling approach and the live performance of professional actors. Reflections are offered about the opportunities and challenges encountered by place managers in the effort to re-imagine historical regions in a sustainable manner, by using research-based instruments and creativity.

Key words: art, landscape, Interreg, Italy, Croatia
**HATZIGALANOU RECITES MANTAS: REVIVING FRAGMENTS OF STIGMOGRAPHED URBAN DREAMS**

HATZIGALANOU ARIANNA  
*Actress, Director*  
MANTAS NEOKLIS  
*Stigmographer*

**Abstract - Art Session**

The action is based upon the artistic recitation of selected urban stories from Neoklis Mantas’ e-diary (https://stigmography.tumblr.com/), a 5-year blog of strolling within Volos (author’s hometown). Stigmography process is akin to a New-Age flaneurie: the stigmographer walks through the city and captures an image (selective depiction of reality), then s/he edits the photograph (adding idiosyncratic meaning) and tries to explain the dynamic memoir of that instantané through words (storytelling). Some captured and narrated visio-verbal moments of wandering within Volos are going to come to life by the actress Arianna Hatzigalanou and their performance may shed light on the subtle dialogue between Places (Topos) and Myths (Mythos – mythified logos). One can state that through that peculiar contradiction between urban realities and urban meanings, urban imagination emerges and constructs the dreamy road that leads to the “psyche” of the volocean city.

For the performance itself, seven stigmography pieces were chosen by the performer who was born and brought up in Volos. At this stage, the only criterion was the experiential imagination the stories spurred upon the individual. What was later revealed through the narrative order they were put into, was a subtle meeting between a fragmented, ‘vampiral’ She (Place) and a ‘vaporal’, haunted He (Space). Within times of doubt, festivities and endless departures, the city’s insatiable temperament breaks down the senses to lend its body to the imagination. Fragments of urban dreams and nightmares crash into each other, leaving the dust of place tending to space behind. And this incessant and incomplete cycle comes down to an Urban Vampire. Live.

Stigmography Concept/Stories: Neoklis Mantas

Artistic Concept/Direction/Performance: Arianna Hatzigalanou

**Key words:** Stigmography, performance, Topos, Mythos, Urban Vampire, Volos
Abstract - Art Session

The video entitled The Palia of my childhood, Songs and neighborhood ambiances is inscribed in the sound/ videowalk project for mediating a multisensory, embodied and affective representation of urban life. This method has been used in the context of the project entitled “De.Mu.Ci.V.: Designing the Museum for the city of Volos, of the research program “Thalis”-University of Thessaly (financed by the Ministry of Education and the European Union). This project is embedded within the theoretical framework related to the anthropological study of the senses, sound ethnography and the multisensory, holistic approach of urban space as an experienced space by contemporary architectural thought.

The sound/videowalk involves the filming of an itinerary, a route in the city streets that is designed by an inhabitant of the city of Volos. The participant is asked to think of a route that is invested with lived experiences and memories of the worlds defining his everydayness.

Thus, the emergent life-stories are performed in motion: what is said is connected with where it is said. Spoken remembering and reflecting within the synchronized process of place-making /narrating becomes a vehicle of mapping the self in the urban text and texture, which is performed as an ever changing, malleable and fluid narrative.

For the specific videowalk, Anthoula, Eleftheriou, an inhabitant of the Palia, the historic centre of Volos, made an itinerary, starting from her house, around the area of Palia. The video presented concerns Anthoulas’ memories of the neighbourhood songs and ambiances. The videowalk method creates cartographies “from below” that invite us to know the urban space as a multi-layered, multi-voiced and multi-authored inhabited nexus of changing landscapes that become “storyscapes” produced by the humans who are moving within them.

Sound/videowalks constitute a research project of Lecad workshop (http://lecad.arch.uth.gr/en)

**Key words:** soundwalks, urban ambiances, place making, storyscapes
FAREWELL: AN INTERACTIVE SOUNDSCAPE

PAPADOPOULOS SPIROS
Project Coordinator

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Abstract - Art Session

The Project was presented at the “Enclosures – Pass-throughs” event on the 21st of June 2019 at Thessaloniki Concert Hall. A limit, a confrontation, a farewell. Nature and culture are at a breath away, they touch each other through the fence's porches, while among them there are aroused thunders, sounds, screams and echoes of air; It is a composed sound protest, an embodied demonstration, a loud detachment towards a new condition of cohabitation.

The project is conceived for the demolition of the fence around Thessaloniki Concert Hall as a sound protest with an interactive mechanism in order to provide a changing and challenging soundscape. The scene is the open, corrupted fence on the coastal front of the Concert Hall. Upon this deteriorated body, mechanical devices (engine starter relays) are attached and produce an acute metallic sound, while the motion detection sensors activate the sound narratives. The project is structured in three clusters. The fence is the living scene. The relays controlled by arduino microprocessors - the percussion - are the "instruments" that perform the farewell ode, and the visitors, the human bodies, are the multiple interpreters that activate - through motion sensors - and perform this interactive sound work. Their movement triggers different patterns of pre-recorded manifestations or soundscapes and mechanical rhythms that oscillate between noise and harmony. The sound composition alternates in two areas: initially on the skin of the fence and later it is transmitted through speakers to the main outdoor piazza of the Concert Hall.

Keywords: interactive soundscape, performance, microprocessors, noise patterns, boundaries, embodied demonstration

*EscapeLab (www.escapelab.net) is a research laboratory of the Department of Architecture of the University of Thessaly, which aims to explore the interactions between physical and digital reality. It promotes relevant research studies focusing on hybrid landscapes, installations and digital narratives using cutting-edge technologies.
THE URYUPINSK ALPHABET

POLYAKOVA TATIANA

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Abstract - Art Session

The abstract explains the implementation of artistic approaches (sketching) to revealing the identity of a place brand.

Uryupinsk is a small town in the north of the Volgograd region of Russia with a population around 37 000 citizens. The town was founded 400 years ago and became one of the most important trade centers in the South of Russia. Today it is a typical small town with the economy based on manufacturing, negative demographic ratio and a range of social problems mentioned above. During its historical development, Uryupinsk has accumulated and developed a number of unique cultural attributes that are forming the basis of the modern place brand. Arts and local history usually become milestones for bringing cultural values to place branding (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2015).

In summer 2018 I painted a series of watercolour sketches, representing the sights and identical features of Uryupinsk. All the sketches were painted on the location during a week. The idea of the project was introducing the place brand and rethinking the identity of the place through creating watercolor quick paintings, displaying a piece of the city’s branding identity and starting with a letter of the Russian alphabet each. As a result, 28 sketches “The Uryupinsk alphabet”, showing unique features of the place identity, were drawn. To create a list of the objects connected with the alphabet letters, the local place branding team was involved. Final sketches were used to produce souvenirs and for designing an alphabet poster to deliver it to local schools for educational purposes. The project was discussed in social media, local and regional mass media and contributed to the brand communications.

Key words: urban sketchers, place branding, brand identity, place branding in Russia, watercolour sketches.