Handbook of Research on

Future Policies and Strategies for Nation Branding

Viktoria Pistikou, Andreas Masouras, and Marcos Komodromos

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Handbook of Research on Future Policies and Strategies for Nation Branding

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The branding policy of the UAE has been in a phase of constant transformation and evolution in terms of its constructive elements. The aim of this chapter is to assess the UAE's evolution from a state whose branding was based upon soft power elements, namely the use of traditional economic tools and global marketing, towards hard power elements, including strengthening its geopolitical and international economic relations perspective through strategic-oriented initiatives. Making full use of its Sovereign Fund's capability and opportunity to invest on strategic economic sectors of third countries (e.g., the USA and the EU member states) as well as enhancing the perception of UAE as a global tourism, logistics, and transportation centre, UAE tends to move beyond the traditional marketing tools initially employed.

As the global energy demand has been growing, the balance of the international system seems to shudder. Energy issues have become pivotal for national strategy. For example, Russia is challenging US primacy by using its energy resources, the US is trying to become an oil and gas net exporter, and China is striving to ensure influence in rich natural resources territories to secure energy supplies for its development. The authors argue that energy issues have set up a new chessboard of power on which countries improve their status, no matter whether they are energy importers or exporters. Such countries as Greece, Cyprus, Turkey, and Egypt are pursuing, without being major energy producers, to brand themselves as ideal regional "energy hubs" to serve national interest. Self-branding is not only a matter of declaration. It is primarily a matter of the energy major players recognizing this branding. It is this recognition that is the decisive moment that the countries concerned tip over the energy chess game by turning their aspirations into something more than an energy supply issue.

Nation branding has been an important communication strategy since the late 1990s, as governments undertook campaigns to promote their country's global image. The practice has been characterized as a multi-dimensional blend of elements that shape national identity within and outside a country. The 1923 Treaty of Lausanne led to international recognition of the Republic of Turkey as the successor of the Ottoman Empire. In 2053, the nation will celebrate its 600th anniversary, and President Erdogan has defined a system called the "Turkey Model" as the foundation for the country's 2053 vision. This chapter discusses Turkey's nation branding for the 2050s and considers the vision of national leaders, the strategy for implementing the plan, and relations with stakeholders. Challenges and opportunities are identified along with a national and regional outlook. Recommendations are provided for any nation interested in structured nation branding.

The aim of this chapter is to explain the effect of nation branding on destination marketing. The study is looking for an answer to this question, What if two nations live in a destination, how should the destination marketing be with the effect of nation branding? For this purpose, in the study, Gökçeada (Imbros) where Turkish and Greek people have lived together for many years, an island, will be an example to the whole world is included. In the literature research about nation branding, there is no study on the marketing of destinations where two or more nations live together. Therefore, this study will be the first study in this field in the world. It is also believed that this study will help other destinations similar to Gökçeada (Imbros) to determine their marketing strategies.

This chapter examines the conceptual evolution of national identity and specificity creation and promotion (nation branding), combining it with theoretical background and developments in the concept of competitiveness and attractiveness and suggesting a new interpretive framework for understanding nation branding policy and strategy. The chapter is divided into specific elliptical steps, with the first one concerning the critical overview of nation branding recent literature, developed towards understanding the main research directions related to competitiveness. Competitiveness and attractiveness are then presented as a dynamic and undivided diptych, which cannot be exhausted in fragmented nation-centric approaches but arises through dynamic processes at the co-evolving levels of spaces, industries, and firms. In conclusion, a systemic contour for understanding space is composed and suggested as a multi-layered continuum, called the "cone of entrepreneurial and innovational dynamics," which can be the substantial basis for articulating an integrated nation branding policy.

Despite the enormous importance of branding in today's highly competitive environment in which tourism businesses operate, the concept of branding in the field of promoting tourist destinations is a relatively new field of academic research. This work aims to explore the concept of city branding and examines the extent to which this can make metropolitan cities in Greece a tourist attraction. A bibliographical search presents cities' characteristics that create their competitive advantage in attracting target groups of tourists.

The chapter proposes an analysis of the phenomenon of nation branding from the point of view of the attribution of an identity to places and the consequent development of a collective imagination related to them. The starting point for this analysis is a historical excursus concerning the formation of a collective imaginary of places. Nation branding is a recent phenomenon, which takes up the legacy of other historical phenomena to propose an imaginary linked to the identity aspects of a nation, synthesising it in a few graphic signs through a brand. The chapter describes this process of the construction of the identity of a place and its visual expression through a brand image. The analysis is limited to the nation recognizability as a tourism destination and does not take under consideration the nation products and economy. The considerations are supported by the analysis of some emblematic case studies of brand image classified according to their graphic characteristics.

This chapter provides a new methodological analysis grid on the topic of the variations of identity characteristics that appear on the webpages of country brands, highlighting the theoretical perspectives, strategies, and ways in which brands are built in the socio-cultural environment by their stakeholders or their legal owners and the valences of the reconstruction or adaptation of brands in the online environment, from the perspective of Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 dynamics, while shaping the core components and the dynamics of the nation brand identity. A corpus of 80 cases of official country brands were analyzed as primary data source by applying a quantitative-qualitative research method of studying and analyzing different forms of communication (the content analysis) on the official websites of place brands (countries) in order to determine a systematic and quantifiable way for measuring the identity characteristics of those brands.

In asset management, the impact of national branding is linked with the capital leverage and the development of resilient and sustain business. Therefore, national branding impacts essential project financing, mainly acting as a driver of interest premium for private market invested capitals. The key objective of this chapter is to present the linkage of national branding with the assets development in critical infrastructures, distribution systems, and large assets such those in transport and energy sector. Adopting a system of system approach, the key areas of the added value to critical infrastructure and assets are presented, and the methodology framework to assess the impact of national branding on assets is depicted. By examples and references to case studies, the need is illustrated to consciously develop world-class brands as part of the overall economic growth and development on a regional scale.

The discount days event has become a global opportunity for marketing and companies' strategies aimed at increasing sales. The main purpose of this chapter is to understand consumer behavior on discount days and suggest how retailers can use those consumer behaviors. Another purpose of this study is to research the effects and results of used new domestic campaign names instead of the name of Black Friday in Turkey. This study measured the effects of the variables of domestic campaign name, perceived usefulness, and the attitude towards the Black Friday discount campaign days, which are thought to affect the repurchase intentions of consumers on this days. The results of analyzed test shows that the use of domestic names in discount activities positively affected both the perceived usefulness and attitudes towards the campaign among Turkish shoppers, but it has been found to have no impact on repurchasing decisions.

The attraction of foreign direct investment (FDI) has increasingly become a strategic priority for competitiveness between countries. The literature highlights the importance that digital platforms, namely websites, have as a promotional marketing toll to attract FDI. Therefore, it is important to understand how EU countries are using digital platforms, namely websites, to present their attractiveness for FDI. The research identifies the factors and arguments that EU countries choose to present and explore on their websites to attract FDI. All the 27 countries FDI (official) websites were analyzed. Results show that main factors presented to attract FDI are quality of life (67%), incentives (67%), talent (63%), and infrastructures information (59%). The research provides an overview of how EU countries are promoting themselves through the websites, as well as a descriptive analysis of what types of competitive arguments are being used and how they are being communicated.

Our nation and state today are going through a difficult period in their life and survival, because the moral principles and values, the principles of democracy, in particular the human principles of mutual respect, respect and empathy for each other, have been damaged. The causes are certainly deeper, and researching, one concludes that the great nursery of democracy is education lags behind in terms of adhering to the principles of education and functional efficiency. The change of orientation of our education towards the inner world of man, the upliftment of the spiritual struggle, and cultivating from the inside out with the skills of emotional intelligence and consciousness will help citizens to reorient themselves and realize that they are part of a nation but at the same time citizens of a global community with broader perceptions, goals, and obligations. The revision of education programs and the introduction in education of emotional intelligence and consciousness will lay the foundations for the creation of a new generation of sensitized and conscious citizens.

Music education as a systematic and complex process of transmitting knowledge and skills, as well as cultivating mental, intellectual, and artistic abilities, referred to a specific cultural result of an apprenticeship system. Music is also inextricably linked with the cultural and national identity of individuals as it offers a sense of self within a social context. It symbolizes and offers an experience of collective, social, and cultural identity. This study, through the analysis of the pertinent literature in a descriptive way, will try to prove that the position of music must be fundamental in education and therefore in the formation of human personality. The main conclusion of the chapter is the significant importance of the expression of children through music, the ability to express their musicality with the help of his body and voice, the perception of the concepts of music, as well as the development of a positive image and attitude towards music.

This chapter develops a strategy for scoring non-narrative or non-descriptive film segments. When developing a soundtrack for a movie, the composer is faced with the challenge of incorporating other tools and elements in order to create clear communication between the soundtrack and what is happening on screen. An effective approach to musical composition is sought for the non-narrative context. The main objective is to ascertain what other elements might be considered to meaningfully associate the screened events and the music tracks and then investigate how these elements may be most effectively scored. The research analyses a specific method for crossing from one modality or style to another, enabling the viewer to relate impressions and stimuli gained through one modality to another for a fully comprehensive experience. A table will demonstrate how the specifications of one modality can be calibrated in terms of another.

The scope of the chapter is to analyze the relationship between the performance and the competitiveness of the public sector in Greece and the image of the country abroad, focusing on the critical importance for the Greek economy sector of investments attraction. Through the comparative evaluation of bureaucracy's and administrative burdens' impact on national entrepreneurship's competitiveness and the analysis of the administrative barriers and obstacles facing the investments' attraction, the performance of the existing investment policy in Greece is analyzed. Based on the evaluation of the administrative obstacles and pitfalls on national entrepreneurship and according to international experience's recent development on administrative simplification, a comprehensive and specialized action plan for the reform of the national investment policy and the emergence of a new international brand name for Greece were realized.

Due to the advent of computers, internet, and social media communication, the marketing of services has changed, and consequently, organizations of any kind need to specify a brand image strategy and position it successfully in customer minds without cultural limitations. A semiotic approach for examining the branding strategy was applied on the websites of some healthcare services organizations which were taken as representative case studies. This research study seeks to point out the significance of the signs, either in the linguistic level or the iconic level of analysis, in order to make easily understandable the main issues of a branding strategy. The quality of services, the high standard of scientific expertise, and the availability of clinical equipment are the dominant issues of the examining branding strategies, whereas patient satisfaction and their further quality of life are completely ignored. A suggested innovative branding approach is shown to help entrepreneurs, branding designers, and marketers of healthcare services recognize the value of patient satisfaction.

National branding supports countries to improve their international reputation, to attract investment, to link their national name with comparative advantages of producing products or services, and to attract buyers and visitors. The globalization of markets has increased the competitiveness of states and political influence in markets, and national branding has become a vital tool. Healthcare within the environment of seamless information and easy patient movement from state to state has led states to strive to convince the public opinion of the medical specialized services their country provides to attract patients for treatment. This chapter sought to examine whether Greece can acquire national branding in medical tourism and in the production of generic medicines. This approach has shown that there is potential, but specific policies need to be pursued to achieve the goal. This chapter reveals that the combination medical tourism and production of generic medicines can be essential elements towards a concrete national branding strategy.

Preface

THE INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH OF THE CONCEPT

Why nations? Why branding? Who gains more and in what terms? Why states seek ways to advertise themselves and how prestige affects politics? Nation branding has been examined from different perspectives, from marketing (Kavaratzis, 2005; Papadopoulos, 2004), to culture (Sophocleous, et.al., 2019) to public relations (Nicoli and Komodromos, 2015) and public diplomacy (Wang, 2006b; Gilboa, 2008; Szondi, 2008). This volume tries to answer some of those questions based on interdisciplinary approaches, that of international relations and marketing and their subfields. But how and why marketing (or branding) can intervene in the field of international relations and its subfields? This question is approached by Fan (2006) by asking his own question: "Nation branding: what is being branded?" Essentially, the answer to the conceptual dimension of nation branding should be sought in this question.

Of course, The concept of branding nation is multidimensional and is not limited to specific fields. This is also one of the main goals of this collective volume: To approach the issue of nation branding from different fields and through different case studies. The reader of this book can find specialised case studies within the collective volume. The authors come from different research fields and together contribute to the approach of the concept of nation branding through a detailed and multidimensional analysis. This is evident also from the different research interests of the editors. But this element makes this collective volume interesting and useful.

Here, we need to clarify something that might seem obvious but at the same time is crucial for our analysis: Our modern complex world operates and develops through nation-states and it is also divided into three groups: allies, foes, and neutral actors. The common element which binds these groups and at the same time defines them is the national interest among these players. Of course, there are many non-state actors who interact in international level, such as markets, firms, institutions, multinationals, civil society as well as many individuals, however, the nation-state remains the dominant actor who defines the range of involvement and influence of the mentioned players, according to its interests and its power. Nation branding is a state's soft power where the "product" is the state itself and the "profit" is the support it gains in order to carry out its objectives. As Browning puts it (2016):

Just as consumers might want to purchase certain branded products because of the reputation and image that the brand conveys, it is hoped that a strong national brand might similarly encourage them to buy products because of their country of origin, or it might encourage investors to unload capital in their country, or entice skilled professionals to seek employment there, or it might enhance the international status and influence of the country in question. (p. 50)

But what exactly is soft power? According to Nye (2004), "Soft power is the ability of a country to persuade others to do what it wants without force or coercion" (Ikenberry, 2004). International relations are based on human behavior that's why sometimes it is difficult to create behavioral patterns in order to explain the motives behind a state's policy. Since human behavior is determined by characteristics such as competition, suspicion, fear and insecurity, international politics can certainly be interpreted by this point of view. However, anarchy, meaning the absence of a higher global authority than nation-states, rather than human nature is responsible for war and insecurity of the international system. Therefore, nation-states have developed a self-help system (Waltz, 1979) in order to maintain their power or seek ways to maximize their power in order to survive (Mearsheimer, 2001). Therefore, states use both hard or soft power in order to promote their interests and nation-branding is an instrument of soft power.

Nevertheless, international relations are the wider context in which nation branding takes place, while international economic relations are those which highlight the importance of this tool in many aspects. According to Kaneva (2011) "Nation branding programs can be directed at both domestic and international audiences, and they are often funded with public money" (p. 118). For example, lets taken into consideration foreign economic policy which aims, among others, to increase influence on other states and international economic organizations, and to allocate the resources for aid as best as possible in order to further provide development assistance. In this case, considering two great powers and donors, the US and the UK, both of them make sure that the recipient countries, apart from the aid, they will also interpret this action as a form of solidarity.

What is the result of this action? In multilateral level donor countries can gain the support of developing countries in order to promote their interests (Dreher et al. 2009; Kilby, 2011), for example US alignment defines the World Bank's disbursements (Kilby, 2009). As Morgenthau (1962), mentioned:

While humanitarian aid is per se nonpolitical, it can indeed perform a political function when it operates within a political context. . . . . Subsistence foreign aid is akin to the humanitarian type in that it seeks to prevent the breakdown of order and the dis-integration of organized society. But it also performs the political function of maintaining the status quo, without, however, as a rule, increasing its viability. . . . It obligates by implication, the recipient toward the giver. . . . The advantage for the giver of prestige aid is threefold: He may receive a specific political advantage in return for the aid. The giver's prestige is enhanced, as it were, by the increase of the recipient's prestige. . . . Prestige aid comes relatively cheap." (p. 304)

EXAMPLES OF CASE STUDIES

China is another good example. Its nation-branding, apart from history, language and culture, is based on infrastructure, through the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB). China's leading role through the AIIB allows it to exercising influence according to its interests (Akcadag Alagoz, 2019; Menegazzi, 2017; Cai, 2018). In particular, among all members, the larger shareholder is China and its capital base aims to improve the prosperity within its region investing in infrastructure (AIIB, 2021). In other words, it could be said that the AIIB is already targeted to anything attached with development through infrastructure, so as China.

Turkey, on the other hand, emerges as the most generous donor, especially in humanitarian aid, focusing on Asia and Africa. Most of the scholars argue that domestic political changes in Turkey created a new strategy towards Africa in addition to the past, where little attention had been given in that region, suggesting that today's presence on the African continent emerged due to the new government's strategy. Providing aid, Turkey "obtained observer status at the African Union" (Bilgic and Nascimento, 2014:1) and along with the Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit Turkey managed to be considered as a strategic partner for the African states (Korkut and Civelekoglu, 2013; Ozkan 2010; Bilgic and Nascimento, 2014).

The role on nation states has not been diminished yet, especially on international economic relations. According to Maris and Sklias (2016:17) "Sovereignty and the centrality of nation-states appear to be unchallenged, although in some cases, they could be contested". Thus, nation branding in international economic relations perhaps entails competitions and may create new challenges among traditional powers and emerging ones.

THE CHALLENGES AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In addition to the macro-analysis that focuses on specific countries, this collective volume also attempts a micro-analysis focused on various services, such as, the field of health, education, but also fields such as cultural diplomacy. According to Iwabuchi (2015):

Although the notion of soft power has gained currency only in the last two decades, serious discussion regarding the uses of culture and media communication to enhance Japan's image in the international arena began as early as in the 1920s and 1930s, when Japan aspired to become an imperial and colonial power equivalent to Euro-American counterparts." (p. 420)

Thus, the broad scope of the concept differs, as do those tools that aid in design, such as the media (Fan, 2010).

This collective volume is useful both in terms of its theoretical background and in terms of its interdisciplinary approach. The case studies have been worked with passion by the authors and they provide the knowledge required for the formation and development of future research.

ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK

The book is organized into 20 chapters. A brief description of each of the chapters follows:

Chapter 1 analyses the macroeconomic indicators of United Arab Emirates and the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic (World Health Organization). Then, the authors study the two aspects of the Logistics Performance Index, the intentional and the domestic aspect, in order to understand the changes that have occurred in the last decade concerning the role of the country in world trade.

Chapter 2 establishes a discussion based on the argument that energy issues have set up a new chessboard of power on which countries improve their status, no matter whether they are energy importers or exporters.

Chapter 3 discusses Turkey's nation branding for the 2050s and considers the vision of national leaders, the strategy for implementing the plan, and relations with stakeholders. Challenges and opportunities are identified along with a national and regional outlook. Recommendations are provided for any nation interested in structured nation branding.

Chapter 4 discusses issues on destination marketing. Specifically, the example of Greece and Turkey is used as case studies.

Chapter 5 examines the conceptual evolution of national identity and specificity creation and promotion (nation branding), combining it with theoretical background and developments in the concept of competitiveness and attractiveness and suggesting a new interpretive framework for understanding nation branding policy and strategy.

Chapter 6 aims to explore the concept of city branding and examines the extent to which this can make metropolitan cities in Greece a tourist attraction. A bibliographical search presents cities' characteristics that create their competitive advantage in attracting target groups of tourists.

Chapter 7 analyses the phenomenon of nation branding from the point of view of the attribution of an identity to places and the consequent development of a collective imagery related to them.

Chapter 8 provides a new methodological analysis grid on the topic of the variations of identity characteristics that appear on the webpages of country brands, highlighting the theoretical perspectives, strategies and ways in which brands are built in the socio-cultural environment by their stakeholders or their legal owners and the valences of the reconstruction or adaptation of brands in the online environment, from the perspective of Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 dynamics, while shaping the core components and the dynamics of the nation brand identity.

Chapter 9 presents the linkage of national branding with the assets development in critical infrastructures, distribution systems and large assets such those in transport and energy sector.

Chapter 10 discusses how consumer behavior affects branding. The discussion focuses on the study of Turkey.

Chapter 11 provides an overview of how EU countries are promoting themselves through the websites, as well as a descriptive analysis of what types of competitive arguments are being used and how they are being communicated.

Chapter 12 addresses the issue of emotional intelligence in education and how it can advance principles and values to promote a Nation.

Chapter 13 discusses how music promotes the idea of nation branding and especially how identity is strengthened through music. The issue is approached through the perspective of education.

Chapter 14 develops a strategy for scoring non-narrative, or non-descriptive film segments. Furthermore, this chapter discusses how music content, especially within filmography, is related to nation branding.

Chapter 15 observes the concept of nation's branding as a strategic asset under the circumstance of the formation of a unique ministry of culture, Cyprus, by examining the certain condition and by recommending research and further steps.

Chapter 16 focuses on how archaeology as a science in secondary education could work as a doorway for cultural approach between the European students. Specifically, how can the archeological practices conduce to the promotion and understanding of archeological culture and heritage among students in Europe.

Chapter 17 examines how the teacher evaluation process can encourage and motivate the strengthening of the nation's promotion. Promoting nation identity is an issue that concerns education. The educational system in Cyprus has always oscillated between related concepts and the conceptual dimension of the "nation".

Chapter 18 analyses the relationship between the performance and the competitiveness of the public sector in Greece and the image of the country abroad, focusing on the critical importance for the Greek economy sector of investments attraction.

Chapter 19 seeks to point out the significance of the signs, either at the linguistic level or at the iconic level of analysis, in order to easily understand the main issues of a branding strategy. The case study focuses on the health services sector.

Chapter 20 discusses whether Greece can acquire National Branding in medical tourism and in the production of generic medicines. This chapter reveals that the combination medical tourism and production of generic medicines can be essential elements towards a concrete National Branding strategy.

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Chapter 1
The Political Economy of UAE Branding From Marketing to Economics and Power

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ABSTRACT

The branding policy of the UAE has been in a phase of constant transformation and evolution in terms of its constructive elements. The aim of this chapter is to assess the UAE's evolution from a state whose branding was based upon soft power elements, namely the use of traditional economic tools and global marketing, towards hard power elements, including strengthening its geopolitical and international economic relations perspective through strategic-oriented initiatives. Making full use of its Sovereign Fund's capability and opportunity to invest on strategic economic sectors of third countries (e.g., the USA and the EU member states) as well as enhancing the perception of UAE as a global tourism, logistics, and transportation centre, UAE tends to move beyond the traditional marketing tools initially employed.

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to analyse the political economy of the United Arab Emirates' (UAE) branding. We will study different aspects of the developing role of UAE in the world economy, such as economics, and political and military power. Firstly, we analyse different aspects of the country's economy. We study the macroeconomic indicators of United Arab Emirates and the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic[1] (World Health Organization). Then, we study the two aspects of the Logistics Performance Index, the intentional and the domestic aspect, in order to understand the changes that have occurred in the last decade concerning the role of the country in world trade. In the same context, we examine the Liner shipping connectivity index, which highlights the important role of UAE as a destination for world

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trade. Moreover, at this section of our analysis, we study the impact of tourism on the economy of the country. Finally, in this section we discuss the increasing role of Sovereign Wealth Funds (SWFs) and their impact on UAE economic policy. In the next section we evaluate the political / military component of the UAE's branding enhancement, such as the country's active role in the Yemen war, the signing of the Peace Deal with the State of Israel, as well as a series of defence pacts, and its participation in international military missions and military alliances. Finally, we present the conclusions of our study.

2. AN EVALUATION OF UAE ECONOMY

In this section of our analysis, we are going to evaluate critical aspects of the economy of the UAE. Firstly, we will analyse the UAE's macroeconomic indicators from 2010 until 2020, in order to understand the macroeconomic path of the last decade after the manifestation of the world economic crisis of 2007-2009, as well as the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic. Then, we will analyse the Logistics Performance Index for the same period on the basis of the available data, in order to understand the role of UAE as a centre of world trade. In parallel, we will examine the impact of the tourism sector on the economy of the country. Finally, in this section we will study the role of SWFs as a tool for strengthening the economic prospects of the country.

In Table 1, we analyse the main macroeconomic indicators of the United Arab Emirates. GDP at current prices has been increasing almost for all the years under review, the only exception being 2020, when UAE is facing the negative impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. As we can see, real GDP growth is positive from 2010 until 2019, following the UAE's negative growth of -5.2% in 2009 (IMF, 2021a). In 2020, the UAE faced negative growth rates for the first time since the 2009 and the world economic crisis of 2007-2009. The negative growth rate of 2020 is higher in comparison with the negative growth rate of 2009. Moreover the inflation rate is low for the entire period under review, the exception being 2015, when the inflation rate stood at 4.1%. One negative aspect of the inflation rate is the negative values for 2019 and 2020, which indicate that before the manifestation of the economic crisis as a result of COVID-19 pandemic, consumption was low.

According to trading economics, the unemployment rate is at low level in all the years under study and is facing a diminishing path. For 2020, there are not yet any available data regarding the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic. UAE has taken certain fiscal measures to confront the negative economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The IMF has developed the policy tracker, in order to study the policy responses to COVID-19. More specifically, the UAE has adopted the following fiscal measures:

The authorities have so far announced about AED 32 billion ($ 8.7 billion or 2.8 percent of GDP) in various fiscal measures. These include: (i.) AED 16 billion ($4.4 billion) approved by the federal government to support the private sector by reducing various government fees, labor and other charges, refunding 50% of bank and financial guarantees to some establishments, and accelerating existing infrastructure projects; (ii.) AED 1.5 billion ($0.4 billion) in measures by the government of Dubai to reduce government fees, provide additional water and electricity subsidies, and simplify business procedures; and (iii.) AED 9 billion ($2.5 billion) announced by the government of Abu Dhabi as part of the ongoing "Ghadan-21" fiscal stimulus program. (IMF, 2021b).

As we can see from the above measures, the UAE is trying to contain the negative implications of the COVID-19 pandemic. These measures could not prevent the economic recession of 2020. The study of the country's current account balance reveals that it has a strong extrovert economy, with a current account surplus as a percentage of GDP for all years under study. The current account surplus underlines the competitiveness of the country's economy, with extremely positive surpluses from 2011 until 2014. UAE still has a current account surplus for 2020, and this fact underlines its capability to overcome the negative effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. Moreover, the fiscal picture of the country seems steady from 2010 until 2019. General government net lending/borrowing as a percentage of GDP was negative for the period 2015-2017 and positive for all the other years. The second period with negative general government net lending/borrowing values was the period 2019-2020. This deterioration is due to the fiscal measures taken by the country in order to deal with the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic. The next macroeconomic indicator under study is general government gross debt as a percentage of GDP. In the period 2010-2018, general government gross debt was around 20%. For the years 2019-2020 we can notice a rapid increase of general government gross debt as a percentage of GDP. The debt of the country remains low, but the country should restrict its growth. Finally, we have added the demographic index of the population of the country. As we can see, the population is rapidly growing, and this is going to affect the economy of the country. The explanation for this rapid growth is strongly correlated with the country's increasing importance in the world economy, and the growing presence of expatriates. Coming to H. Plecher, the tendency of population increase is going to continue in the years because of:

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) have undergone extreme demographic changes over the past decade. With the increasing developments, tourism and global recognition of cities in the UAE like Abu Dhabi and Dubai, it is to no surprise that the total population has grown by about 6 million people over the past decade. However, the majority of the total population of the UAE are expatriates. Any expatriate having lived in the UAE for a minimum of 20 years can apply for a citizenship, consequently, the growing total population is mainly due to the growing number of expatriates who become citizens and the high number of immigrants which gives the UAE the world's highest net migration rate. (Plecher, 2021).

The next index under review is the Logistics Performance Index. This index is going to reveal the country's trade networking and whether the country has strengthened its role in international trade. The index has been developed for the World Bank and comprises two dimensions, International LPI and domestic LPI (Roukanas, 2020). In this article, we are going to focus on both aspects of the Logistics Performance Index. International LPI focuses on six dimensions of logistics:

1. "The efficiency of customs and border management clearance ("Customs").
2. The quality of trade and transport infrastructure (Infrastructure").
3. The ease of arranging competitively priced shipments (Ease of arranging shipments").
4. The competence and quality of logistics services—trucking, forwarding, and customs brokerage ("Quality of logistics services").
5. The ability to track and trace consignments ("Tracking and tracing").
6. The frequency with which shipments reach consignees within scheduled or expected delivery times ("Timeliness")." (The World Bank, 2015a),

Table 1. Macroeconomic indicators of United Arab Emirates

Years	Macroeconomic Indicators								
	GDP, current prices (Billions of U.S. dollars)	Real GDP growth (Annual % change)	GDP per capita, current prices (U.S. dollars per capita	Inflation rate, average consumer prices (Annual % change)	Unemployment rate* (%)	Current account balance, % of GDP	General government net lending/ borrowing (% of GDP)	General government gross debt (% of GDP)	Population (Millions of people)
2010	289.79	1.6	35.06	0.9	3.81	4.2	0.6	19.5	8.26
2011	350.67	6.9	41.19	0.9	3.54	12.4	5.3	21.5	8.51
2012	374.59	4.5	42.72	0.7	3.17	19.5	9.0	21.2	8.77
2013	390.11	5.1	43.2	1.1	2.82	18.8	8.4	16.0	9.03
2014	403.14	4.3	43.34	2.3	2.44	13.5	1.9	14.2	9.3
2015	358.14	5.1	37.38	4.1	2.1	4.9	-3.4	16.7	9.58
2016	357.05	3.1	36.23	1.6	1.64	3.7	-2.8	19.4	9.86
2017	385.61	2.4	38.03	2.0	2.46	7.1	-2.0	21.6	10.14
2018	422.22	1.2	40.48	3.1	2.57	9.6	1.9	20.9	10.43
2019	421.14	1.7	39.18	-1.9	2.64	8.4	-0.8	27.3	10.75
2020	353.9	-6.6	31.95	-1.5	-	3.6	-9.9	36.9	11.08

Source: (IMF, 2021a and *Trading Economics, 2020)

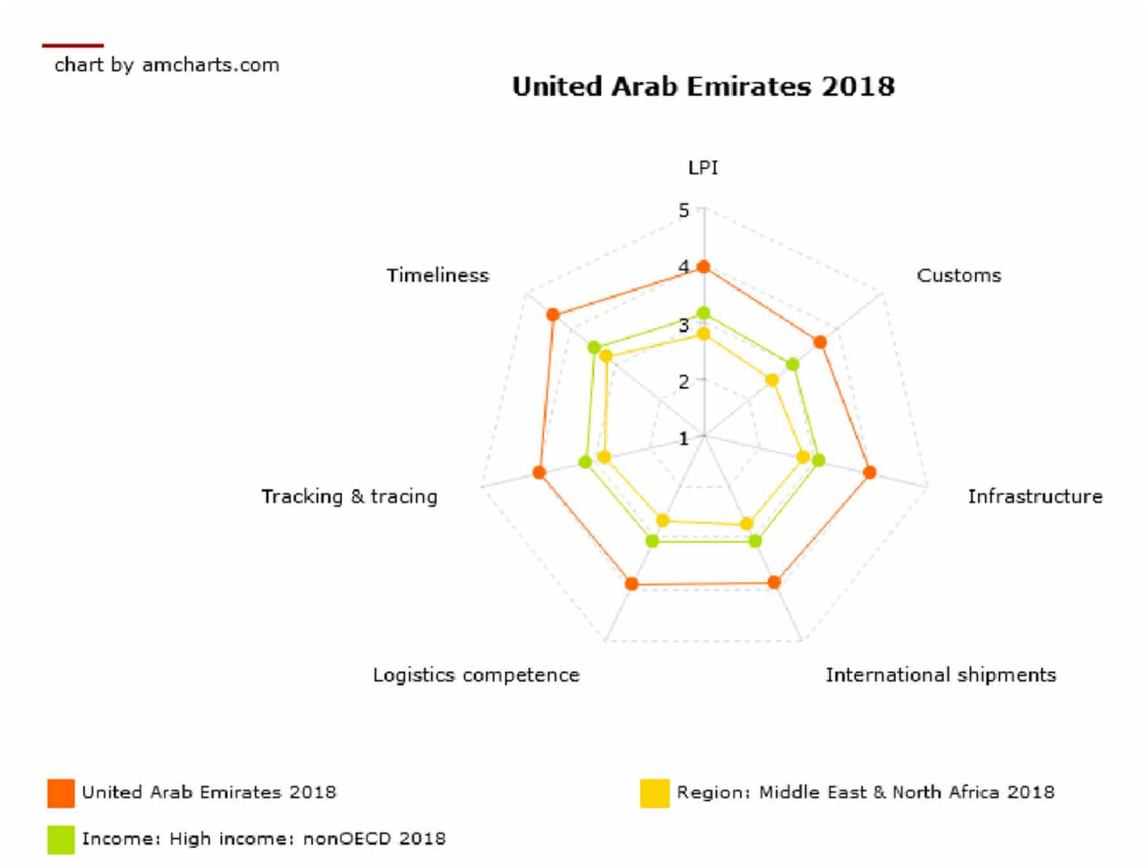
For the period under review, we have available data for 2010 until 2018. According to the available data, there has been an improvement for the country, as its overall score rose from 3.63 at 2010 and to 3.96 at 2018. We can also see the improvement of the country's position in the global rankings of the index. It was at the 24th position in 2010, and achieved its best ranking at 11th position in 2018. We can also observe that the country has been improving its performance in all the aspects of the International Logistics Performance Index during the period under review. The greatest improvements we can see concern the following dimensions: timeliness improved from 3.94 in 2010 to 4.38 in 2018, tracking & tracing from 3.58 in 2010 to 3.86 in 2018, and international shipments from 3.48 in 2010 to 3.85 in 2018.

Table 2. International Logistics Performance Index 2010-2018

Years	Country Score							
	Overall	LPI Rank*	Infrastructure	Logistics Competence	Timeliness	Customs	International Shipments	Tracking & Tracing
2010	3.63	24	3.81	3.53	3.94	3.49	3.48	3.58
2012	3.78	17	3.84	3.74	4.10	3.61	3.59	3.81
2014	3.54	27	3.70	3.50	3.92	3.42	3.20	3.57
2016	3.94	13	4.07	3.82	4.13	3.84	3.89	3.91
2018	3.96	11	4.02	3.92	4.38	3.63	3.85	3.96

Source: (The World Bank, 2015b and *the World Bank, 2015c)

Figure 1. Performance of UAE at International Logistics Performance Index
Source: (The World Bank, 2015b)



In order to understand the country's place in the index we compare the country with non-OECD high-income countries for 2018 and with the region of the country, which is the Middle East and North Africa. As we can see in Figure 1, UAE fares better in all the aspects of the index and in both groups. More specifically, the country fares much better compared to its region than to high-income non-OECD countries.

In Table 3 we study the second dimension of Logistics Performance Index, which is the Domestic LPI. According to the World Bank:

The Domestic LPI looks in detail at the logistics environments in 100 countries. For this measure, surveyed logistics professionals assess the logistics environments in their own countries. This domestic evaluation contains more detailed information on countries' logistics environments, core logistics processes and institutions, and time and distance data. This approach looks at the logistics constraints within countries, not just at the gateways, such as ports or borders. It uses four major determinants of overall logistics performance to measure performance: Infrastructure, Services, Border procedures and time, and Supply chain reliability. (The World Bank, 2015d)

The study of Table 3 on the basis of the available data reveals the Logistics Performance Index for the country at the domestic level. As we can see, the Domestic Logistics Performance Index 2010-2018 shows no substantial improvement during the period under study, and it seems that in the case of the UAE the domestic logistics conditions were already developed in previous decade.

Table 3. Domestic Logistics Performance Index 2010-2018

Indicators	Years				
	2010	2012	2014	2016	2018
Export time and distance / Port or airport supply chain					
Distance (kilometres)	-	166km	51km	70km	89km
Lead time (days)	-	1 days	2 days	2 days	2 days
Cost	-	495US$	559US$	-	-
Export time and distance / Land supply chain					
Distance (kilometres)	-	427km	51km	307km	249km
Lead time (days)	2.46 days	3 days	2 days	3 days	2 days
Cost	-	626US$	417US$	-	-
Import time and distance / Port or airport supply chain					
Distance (kilometres)	-	103km	55km	107km	107km
Lead time (days)	2.03 days	2 days	2 days	2 days	2 days
Cost		618US$	647US$	-	-
Import time and distance / Land supply chain					
Distance (kilometres)	-	455km	82km	265km	119km
Lead time (days)	-	3 days	2 days	2 days	2 days
Cost		743US$	590US$	-	-
Shipments meeting quality criteria (%)	-	85.63%	87.83%	-	-
Number of agencies - exports	2.86	2	3	82.26%	86%
Number of agencies - imports	2.43	2	3	3	3
Number of documents - exports	-	2	2	3	2
Number of documents - imports	-	2	2	3	4
Clearance time without physical inspection (days)	0.74 days	1 days	1 days	3	3
Clearance time with physical inspection (days)	1.37 days	1 days	1 days	1 days	1 days
Physical inspection (%)	4.24%	4.28%	5.35%	1 days	1 days
Multiple inspection (%)	1.3%	1.95%	2.07%	13.98%	10%
Declarations submitted and processed electronically and on-line (%)	-	-	-	3.53%	3%
Importers use a licensed Customs Broker (%)	-	-	-	100%	100%
Able to choose the location of the final clearance (%)	-	-	-	86.67%	71%
Goods released pending customs clearance (%)	-	-	-	33.33%	N/A

Source: (The World Bank, 2015d)

Table 4 presents UAE performance in regard to the Liner Shipping Connectivity index on an annual basis. According to the World Bank:

Table 4. Liner Shipping Connectivity index, (maximum value in 2004=100)

Years	Value
2010	62.65
2011	62.63
2012	61.51
2013	62.71
2014	60.99
2015	60.94
2016	65.23
2017	67.86
2018	72.87
2019	71.48
2020	-

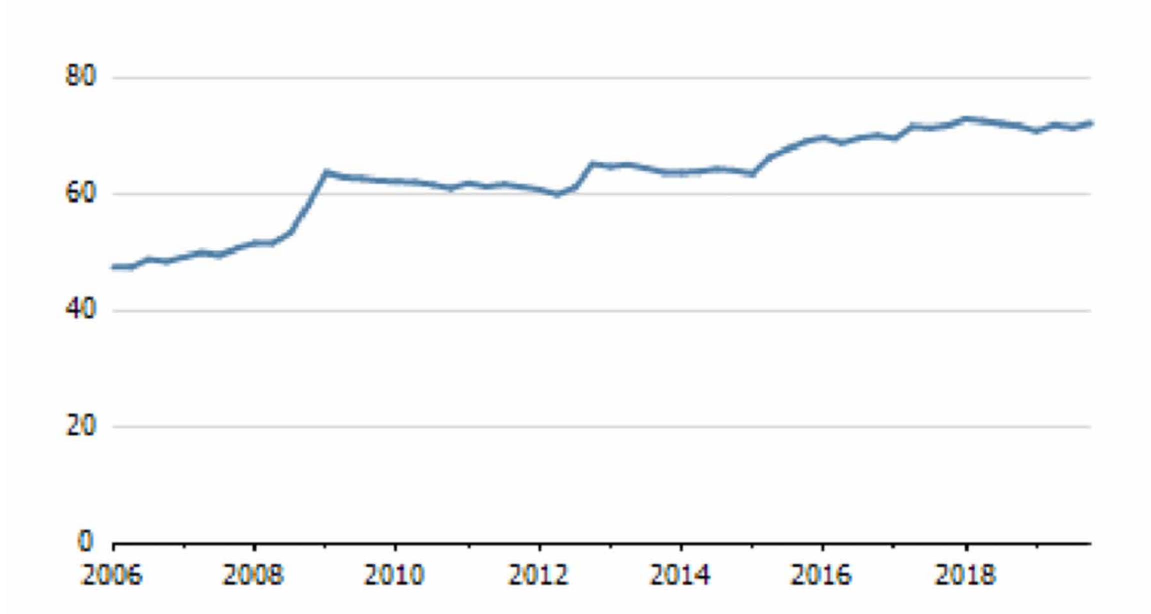
Source: (The World Bank, 2021)

"the Liner Shipping Connectivity Index captures how well countries are connected to global shipping networks. It is computed by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) based on five components of the maritime transport sector: number of ships, their container-carrying capacity, maximum vessel size, number of services, and number of companies that deploy container ships in a country's ports. For each component a country's value is divided by the maximum value of each component in 2004, the five components are averaged for each country, and the average is divided by the maximum average for 2004 and multiplied by 100. The index generates a value of 100 for the country with the highest average index in 2004." (The World Bank, 2021)

As we can see from Table 4 and Figure 2, the UAE follows an upwards path as regards the Liner Shipping Connectivity index. This underlines that UAE plays a more important role in international trade, compared to the previous decade. The value of the index rose from 62.65 in 2010 to 71.48 in 2019. In Figure 3, we can also see the most important ports for 2019, according to UnctadStat.

Table 5 analyses the impact of the tourism sector on the UAE economy before the manifestation of the COVID-19 pandemic. As we can see, there was a rapid increase in international tourist arrivals since 2010, from 7.4 million to a high of 16.7 million in 2019. We can also see extremely positive year-on-year growth rates and, especially, the positive year-on-year change that occurred in 2014. The growth of tourism arrivals has also affected international tourism receipts, which rose from USD 8.6 billion in 2010 to USD 30.7 billion in 2019. The greatest change in real terms can be observed in 2019, when tourism receipts increased by 44% as compared with the previous year. Finally, international tourism exports also follow a positive path, increasing from USD 8.6 billion in 2010 to USD 38.4 billion in 2019.

Figure 2. Liner Shipping Connectivity index, (maximum 2006=100 for China)
Source: (UnctadStat, 2020)



Tourism has been increasing its importance for the UAE economy with each passing year, as in 2010 tourism as percentage of exports stood at only 4%,rising to 11% in 2019.

Moreover, we are going to analyse another critical aspect of the UAE's economic performance. The important role of the sovereign wealth funds in the global economy underlines the importance of states as regards confronting challenges occurring in the global and political economic environment. More specifically, Spyros Roukanas focuses on the following argument concerning SWFs:

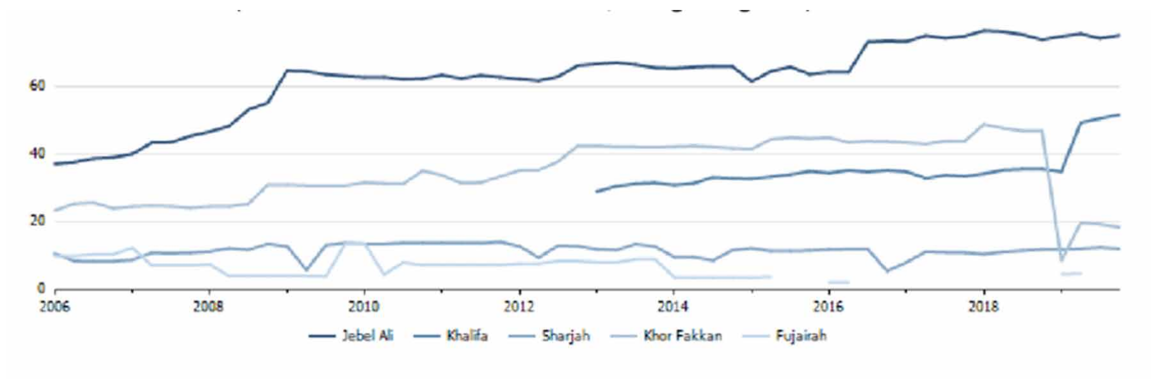
"Certain analysts argue that the state is playing an increasingly limited role in the global economy, whereas markets reign supreme. The economic nationalism approach maintains that the state still plays a dominant role in explaining the international economic and political system. That said, there is an industry that highlights the increasing importance of the state's role and strengthens the case for economic nationalism. Sovereign Wealth Funds represent an industry of increasing importance for the global economy, especially after the 2000s, as their funds under management stood at USD7.372 trillion in June 2016" (Roukanas, 2019, p. 320).

Before discussing SWFs in the UAE, it is appropriate to define the role of SWFs:

a pool of assets owned and managed directly or indirectly by governments to achieve national objectives. (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2016, p. 5).

Table 6 analyses sovereign wealth funds in the UAE, according to Sovereign Wealth Fund Institute. As we can observe, UAE has eight SWFs at the moment, which were, nonetheless, established in different years or decades. The oldest SWF of the country was established in 1976 and it is the SWF with the largest assets, and the highest number of recorded transactions and subsidiaries. The 2000s was the decade of the rapid establishment of new SWFs, showing that the country adopted SWF investment as

Figure 3. Port liner shipping connectivity index - Top 5 ports in 2019
(Maximum 2006=100 for China, Hong Kong SAR)
Source: (UnctadStat, 2020)



an aspect of its economic policy. The total amount of SWF assets under management, according to the latest available data, is USD 8.306 trillion, showing an upwards tendency (Sovereign Wealth Fund Institute, 2021b). The same upwards trend can be observed in the case of assets under management for UAE. More specifically, assets under management rose from USD 1.25 trillion in 2016 to USD 1.79 trillion in 2021 (Statista, 2020). Moreover, the Abu Dhabi Investment Authority is the third largest SWF, as it has assets under management of USD 1.045 trillion in January 2021 (Statista, 2021). As, we can observe from the above analysis, UAE is trying to enhance the role of SWFs as regards both their number and their assets. This is another strong argument that UAE is enhancing its economic performance and, as a result, the prospects of its economy.

Table 5. Tourism Sector Impact

Years	International Tourist Arrivals		International Tourism Receipts		International Tourism Exports	
	Million	Change	USD Billion	Change (% in real terms)	USD Billion	Tourism as % of Exports
2010	7.4	9	8.6	17	8.6	4
2011	8.1	9	9.2	7	9.2	3
2012	9.0	10	10.9	19	10.9	3
2013	10.0	11	12.4	13	12.4	3
2014	13.2	32	15.2	23	15.2	4
2015	14.2	8	17.5	15	21.0	6
2016	14.9	5	19.5	12	23.4	6
2017	15.8	6	21.0	8	25.3	7
2018	15.9	1	21.4	2	25.6	7
2019	16.7	5	30.7	44	38.4	11
2020	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: (UNWTO, 2021)

Table 6. Sovereign Wealth Funds (SWF) of United Arab Emirates

Sovereign Wealth Fund	Year of Establishment	Assets	Recorded Transactions	Subsidiaries
Abu Dhabi Investment Authority (ADIA)	1976	$579,621,120,000	1,108	48
Abu Dhabi Investment Council PJSC (ADIC)	-	0	173	11
Emirates Investment Authority (EIA)	2008	$44,515,182,460	4	-
International Petroleum Investment Company (IPIC)	-	0	47	11
Investment Corporation of Dubai (ICD)	2006	$301,527,000,000	29	19
Mubadala Development Company PJSC	-	0	-	-
Mubadala Investment Company PJSC	2002	$235,011,000,000	214	34
Sharjah Asset Management Holding	-	$793,202,000	-	-

Source: (Sovereign Wealth Fund Institute, 2021a)

3. THE POLITICAL / MILITARY COMPONENT OF THE UAE'S BRANDING ENHANCEMENT: A TENDENCY OR A NEW REALITY?

This part of the article addresses a series of initiatives the UAE has undertaken in order to enhance its presence in the global foreign policy and military arena. These initiatives fall within the following categories:

1. UAE active military intervention, as in the case of the Yemen civil war.
2. Military presence for peacekeeping operations, such as the NATO missions in Kosovo and Afghanistan.
3. A series of peace accords including the ones with Israel, mutual defence pacts such as the one with Greece, and the "Friendship" initiative.

The above initiatives, which are discussed below, demonstrate a clear tendency for the UAE, compared to the traditional extroversion outlook of the UAE, which is based upon soft actions, the main essence of which has been financial activity. At this stage, we observe a parallel activity which enhances the UAE's image as a military force as well as a peace-driven country, actively engaged in geopolitical and geostrategic initiatives, and deploying, where and when necessary, its military forces.

Characteristically, the impressive reinforcement of the UAE's military forces over the past 25 years, which are the best in the region, has played a major role in its latest stance. According to Frank Slijper: "*Roughly 25 per cent of all arms trade are destined for the Middle East, and the UAE has recently be-*

come the world's third largest importer of arms. Indeed, it is the fifth largest arms importer of the last 20 years" (Slijper, 2017, p.4).

UAE is now one of the main importers of major arms for the period 2015-2019 as shown in Table 7:

Table 7. Main importers of major arms 2015-2019

Countries	Global share (%)
Saudi Arabia	12
India	9.2
Egypt	5.8
Australia	4.9
China	4.3
Algeria	4.2
South Korea	3.4
UAE	3.4
Iraq	3.4
Qatar	3.4

Source: (SIPRI Yearbook, 2020, p. 13)

The cases assessed will clearly demonstrate that, according to Peter Salisbury the UAE: "*has emerged as an influential player in regional power politics over the past decade, in a shift from a previously conservative foreign policy focused on self-preservation*" (Salisbury, 2020, p. 2).

It also appears that this regional dimension is not restricted to the Gulf area, but has also been expanding to the Mediterranean Basin as well, indicating that the UAE is undertaking longer-term commitments in terms of its presence and intervention as a stakeholder in the shaping of world politics. The purpose of this article is not to bring forward other issues related to this, such as UAE capabilities, or overstretching of resources. Nevertheless, what is emerging is a new reality rather than a tendency. What may undermine and bring this reality into question will be researched further.

What follows is a tentative account of initiatives brought forward by national and international media as well as research papers for three major issues:

1. The Yemen Civil War intervention;
2. The UAE-Israel Peace Deal;
3. The "Philia" Forum and "Strategic Partnership" with Greece: Presence in the Mediterranean?
4. UAE activation in NATO missions

We argue that the mapping of these initiatives cannot be seen individually or in absolute terms, but rather they have to be contemplated under a comprehensive prism of a structured policy, constituting a shift in UAE foreign policy towards hard power choices, which finally has to be taken into consideration when assessing UAE branding at the international stage. Nonetheless, the coherence and sustainability of this policy have to be seen but, as already mentioned, this is out of the scope of this article.

1) The Yemen Civil War Intervention

In the case of the Yemen Civil War, in 2015 the UAE launched a coalition of nine countries in response to calls for military support. The war dramatically worsened the humanitarian crisis in Yemen and it was only until recently that Saudi Arabia considered withdrawing its military presence. However, despite claims that it has ended its military involvement in the country, there are reports from those documenting the war that state otherwise, accusing the UAE of remaining heavily active in the region (Khalel, 2021).

According to Sheren Khalel:

The UAE's interests in Yemen are varied, but a key goal of the small Gulf nation - –which shares no border with Yemen– is maintaining influence over the Bab-el-Mandeb Strait. The waterway is essential for the passage of about nine percent of the world's seaborne-traded crude oil and refined petroleum. 'It's pretty clear to me as a Yemeni what the UAE's endgame is, and that is to make sure that they have a government in Yemen that is going to make it easy for their oil to travel through Bab-el-Mandeb,' Shireen al-Adeimi, a Yemen-born activist and professor at Michigan State University told MEE. (Khalel, 2021).

2) UAE-Israel Peace Deal

Among a series of peace accords, the UAE struck a deal with Israel, making it the third Arab country to formally recognise Israel (Wemer, 2020).

According to David A. Wemer: "Speaking at an Atlantic Council Front Page Event on August 20th with Kirsten Fontenrose, the director of the Atlantic Council's Scowcroft Middle East Security Initiative, the UAE Foreign Minister Anwar Mohammed Gargash argued that the US-brokered deal between the UAE and Israel will help further efforts to achieve a solution to the Israeli-Palestinian question by removing the prospect of Israeli annexation of the West Bank, which is 'the biggest threat to the two-state solution.' … 'Outside of the annexation issue, closer ties with Israel have been a target for the UAE as it attempts to "rearm its global position". If the UAE truly wants to be a global economic and political player, Gargash explained, "you can't do this while maintaining a sort of exclusive view of the world.' *(Wemer, 2020).*

According to Jonathan H. Ferziger: "*at the signing ceremony of Israel's deals with the UAE and Bahrain, Netanyahu, Trump, and the foreign ministers signed three documents. One was a general declaration by all four proclaiming their commitment to regional peace. The other two were separate bilateral accords between Israel and both of the Gulf states outlining efforts for cementing ties in areas ranging from finance, trade and medical research, to civil aviation, sports, education and Muslim-Jewish interfaith activities"* (Ferziger, 2020).

3) The "Philia" Forum and "Strategic Partnership" With Greece: Presence in the Mediterranean?

According to Angelos Athanasopoulos: "A*t the forum, which was held last week (February 2021) in Athens, Greek Foreign Minister Nikos Dendias hosted his counterparts from Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Cyprus, the UAE and Bahrain. French Foreign Minister Jean-Yves Le Drian participated by videoconference." (Athanasopoulos, 2021)*

The Philia Forum was formed as:

a "partnership" that could act as a "bridge" between Europe and the Middle East, Alexandros Papaioannou, spokesman for the Greek Foreign Ministry, told Arab News. The seven countries issued a joint communique about their common objective to ensure regional peace, stability and prosperity. (Athanasopoulos, 2021)

4) UAE Activation in NATO Missions

In keeping with the UAE's foreign policy agenda, according to NATO:

"during an official visit by the Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg to Abu Dhabi on 2 March 2016, NATO and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) expressed their determination to strengthen cooperation in addressing common security challenges. During talks with his counterparts, Mr. Stoltenberg strongly welcomed the United Arab Emirates' support to NATO-led operations around the world. Meeting with Foreign Minister Sheikh Abdullah bin Zayed Al-Nahyan, he praised the Emirates' contributions to NATO-led missions in Bosnia, Libya and Afghanistan. The Alliance's Secretary General said that the UAE is one of NATO's most active and valuable partners in the framework of the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI) and noted that the practical cooperation developed together helped project security and stability abroad. The Secretary General highlighted the UAE's strong partnership with NATO and avenues for further cooperation. In 2012, the UAE became the first and only country in the Middle East or North Africa to open a mission to NATO.'' (NATO, 2016)

Furthermore, according to Hakan Akbulut's report for the Austrian Institute for International Affairs (2016), the UAE had also been participating in the Istanbul Cooperation Initiative (ICI) from the start.

According to Hakan Akbulut:

The UAE, too, has been participating in the ICI from the very beginning. The fact that the relationship is personally handled by the defence and foreign ministers of the country is illustrative of the significance the Initiative has in UAE eyes. In line with this, the UAE was the first country in the region to open an office with NATO. In practical terms, the UAE and NATO have engaged in consultations and joint exercises relating to maritime security, counter-piracy, and energy security. The cooperation was reinforced and expanded with the IPCP signed in 2016. The UAE has also attended NATO summits (2014, 2016) as an observer. UAE put forward programs in areas such as de-radicalization or intelligence sharing. The UAE also participated in and contributed to NATO operations in Bosnia, Libya and Afghanistan. For instance, UAE special forces operated in Afghanistan for 11 years. As European countries were reducing their engagement in Afghanistan, the UAE also deployed fighter aircraft to the country. Next to Australia, the UAE was the only non-NATO member-country to do so. In Bosnia, the UAE declared its support for air operations early on. Apache choppers were deployed to the region. UAE also provided peacekeepers. In Libya, the UAE was the only Arab country along with Qatar to participate in the military campaign.: (Akbulut, 2016, p. 29)

In 2017, Danish ambassador Merete Juhl said: "*NATO and Europeans really need a reliable and capable partner in the Middle East, like the UAE, to better understand how to deal effectively with challenges internationally but also at home, with refugees and newcomers that represent a new security threat."* (Malek, 2017).

Later, in July 2018, according to Jack Moore: "*NATO officially initiated the UAE into the alliance's Resolute Support Mission, as member states announced an extension of funding for the Afghan security forces. Abu Dhabi had long been involved with helping the international mission in Afghanistan, but the alliance solidified UAE's role at the NATO summit in Brussels where allies have been tangling over defence spending. NATO confirmed that the UAE attended the high-level meeting on Afghanistan at the July 11-12 summit. UAE officials have not confirmed the strength of its role in the mission, nor the funding that it is providing. The UAE was the first Arab country to contribute troops to the NATO-led mission in Afghanistan. The Armed Forces have served alongside American Green Berets in the southern province of Helmand.*" (Moore, 2018).

4. CONCLUSION

The analysis of the political economy of the UAE branding leads to certain useful conclusions. In the second part of this article, we evaluated the economy of UAE. The macroeconomic analysis points to a national economy that follows a steady macroeconomic path through the last decade, but it is also facing the negative implications of COVID-19 pandemic. Then, we studied the international and domestic dimensions of the Logistics Performance Index. UAE improved its performance in all aspects of the International Logistics Performance Index for the period 2010 until 2018 as it was ranked 24th in 2010 and was at the 11th place in 2018. During the same period UAE showed no strong improvement of the Domestic Logistics Performance Index 2010-2018. The above results highlight that the country has consolidated its position in international trade. The next index under study which is the Liner Shipping Connectivity index showed the improvement in the value of the index as it stood at 62.65 in 2010 whereas in 2019 the value of the index was 71.48, with the maximum value being registered in 2004=100. Furthermore, we studied the impact of the tourism sector on the UAE economy. As we observed, tourism is becoming year by year a more important sector for the economy of UAE, as in 2010 tourism as a percentage of exports stood at only 4%, while in 2019 this percentage was 11%. The final part of this section focused on the Sovereign Wealth Funds of the United Arab Emirates. It is obvious that UAE is trying to enhance the role of SWFs as regards both their number and their assets. The above analysis concerning the evaluation of the UAE economy provides us with certain arguments that the UAE has enhanced its economic performance in the last decade and as a result the prospects of its economy. The negative economic implications of the COVID-19 pandemic for the next years may possibly hamper the high economic performance of the country.

The study of the political / military component of the UAE branding enhancement underlines the country's strong integration in military actions which represent a new situation, in terms of hard power. The above cases demonstrate a steady but increasing and intensifying enhancement of the UAE's stance towards global affairs, encompassing active presence in shaping the agenda and proliferating its presence through military means and partnership initiatives, which clearly transcend the pure economic and financial element. UAE is not considered as a stakeholder in the broader regional arena through actual interventions or accords. UAE branding cannot be considered on the basis of traditional financial measurements only. Hard power preferences are now clearly expressed and demonstrated in the field.

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ENDNOTE

1 *"COVID-19 is the disease caused by a new coronavirus called SARS-CoV-2. WHO first learned of this new virus on 31 December 2019, following a report of a cluster of cases of 'viral pneumonia' in Wuhan, People's Republic of China." (World Health Organization, 2020).*

Chapter 2
Branding a Potential Energy Hub as National Interest in the Eastern Mediterranean:
More Than an Energy Supply Issue

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ABSTRACT

As the global energy demand has been growing, the balance of the international system seems to shudder. Energy issues have become pivotal for national strategy. For example, Russia is challenging US primacy by using its energy resources, the US is trying to become an oil and gas net exporter, and China is striving to ensure influence in rich natural resources territories to secure energy supplies for its development. The authors argue that energy issues have set up a new chessboard of power on which countries improve their status, no matter whether they are energy importers or exporters. Such countries as Greece, Cyprus, Turkey, and Egypt are pursuing, without being major energy producers, to brand themselves as ideal regional "energy hubs" to serve national interest. Self-branding is not only a matter of declaration. It is primarily a matter of the energy major players recognizing this branding. It is this recognition that is the decisive moment that the countries concerned tip over the energy chess game by turning their aspirations into something more than an energy supply issue.

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INTRODUCTION

From the time of his presidential election campaign, Donald Trump had put at the epicenter of his priorities the emergence of the US as a primary global oil and gas producing and exporting player (Balafas & Fakiolas, 2020, pp. 95–96). This aspiration was built upon the same branding and marketing characteristics as exactly those traditionally met in business practice. Trump's campaign slogans "America First" and "Make America Great Again", followed suit by his "American Energy Dominance" policy, were consistently pursued until the last months of his presidency (Trump, 2019).

Branding is intertwined with marketing. The authors take the former to denote a process of creating and projecting pre-established and publicly declared perceptions and images to allies, competitors and enemies (Albarran et al., 2006, pp. 234–235). As for marketing, the American Marketing Association defines it as "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" (AMA, 2017). From this angle, the connection between branding and marketing appears to be somehow akin to the relationship between policy and strategy in international relations.

In 2015, for instance, the historical American lift of the 40-year export ban, in the aftermath of the "Shale Revolution" of US oil and gas industry, was not just a market-oriented or production-oriented landmark (BBC, 2015). In the timespan of Trump's presidency, it also became a purely political issue serving an officially asseverated national strategy (The White House, 2017). The Energy Dominance doctrine prescribed a sound and clear "why" the US should be "more resilient against those that use energy to coerce". The "message" was sent, in the first place, to allies and partners that the US would help them "diversify their energy sources" and, in the second place, to challengers such as Russia and China that "target their investments in the developing world to expand influence and gain competitive advantages against the United States". Many times, Trump's declarations were targeting competitors as well, accusing them for market oil prices manipulation, and reminding that US production could operate as counterweight (Koenig, 2018). What is more, Trump's US became a net exporter of natural gas and petroleum, with its LNG supplying more than 38 countries, thereby reducing the global price of oil by 10 percent over the years 2007-2019(US Council of Economic Advisers, 2020). All these achievements, as a whole, were not merely brought about by design. Being market and industry related, they also reflected a broader national security shell echoing multi-directionally to the domestic and the international audience (Schneider & Peeples, 2018).

Trump, however, was not the first who blended politics and economics to brand energy in global politics. Vladimir Putin, Russia's President, had already made his indelible mark in the realm. Shortly after his rise to power, Putin tailored his narrative of turning Russia into an "energy superpower", with a view to restoring its international status and influence (Balzer, 2005). Indeed, as the world entered a new phase after the long period of the US's unipolar moment, Putin's Russia started emerging as a major challenger (The Economist, 2004). Since then, Russia's three main energy resources, oil, gas and nuclear power, combined with a vast network of pipelines, have helped Putin brand and market Russia as a country aspiring to become an energy superpower (Baev, 2007). That is not just an energy market label or a perceptual construction. It is much more. It represents a new measure of national power, that is, a ranking of energy status.

BRANDING ENERGY ISSUES IN THE NAME OF NATIONAL INTEREST: PUTIN'S RUSSIA AND TRUMP'S US

Energy rhetoric includes much more than supply or production issues. Putin has selected the word "superpower", not "super-supplier". Trump did opt for "dominance" setting aside words such as "prime" and "leading". Few would cast doubt on the view that the choice of these words has been made on purpose, not by chance. It is meant to imply national power and influence, in fact to use these words to mark respective states with a brand in the international scene. Figure 1 depicts the basics of the discussion that follows.

Figure 1. In Pursuit of Branding Energy Issues: Putin's Russia and Trump's US
Source: Created by the authors

State | State leader	State Branding	Level	Targeting	Resources (spearhead)	Means	Official Statement
	**Energy Superpower**	International	Market Shares, Importers, Exporters, Partners, Global status rise, Domestic Economy	Oil, Natural Gas, Nuclear power, Pipelines	Investments, Financial Aid, Technology expertise, Military	Russian Federation's Energy Strategy (2003) : Russia's natural resources should be a fundamental element in Moscow's diplomacy and Russia's position in global energy markets should be strengthened.
	**Energy Dominance**	International	Allies, Friends, Rival powers, Market prices manipulation, OPEC, Russia, Domestic oil, gas and coal industry, Global primacy (greatness)	Shale Oil, Shale Gas, LNG Transports	Investments, Financial Aid, Diplomacy, NATO support, Security shell, Military	D.Trump (2017) : "An energy dominant America means self-reliant. It means a secure nation, free from the geopolitical turmoil of other nations who seek to use energy as an economic weapon. [...] An energy dominant America will export to markets around the world, increasing our global leadership and our influence."

In particular, the way Putin's Russia has "weaponized" energy supply issues in Europe, South Caucasus, Central Asia and other regions is already well documented (Collins, 2017). After the annexation of Crimea and the outbreak of the Russian-European crisis, Russia's restrained threat that "*we hope that you will not freeze*" was grounded in the issue of energy supply pointing to the ubiquitous connection between Russia's ample energy resources and its national interest (Surowiecki, 2014). In terms of marketing, the message was not elegant or undernoted; it was sharp and straight to any direction: allies, competitors, disputants.

Trump went even further. He talked about "dominance" striving to asseverate the "energy dominance" doctrine globally. When he chose to oppose the Paris Agreement, he knew that he would step in a great scene, having a capacity for addressing a huge audience, both domestically and internationally (Parker & Davenport, 2016). It was then that he merged US national interest with energy issues and linked this junction to domestic affairs such as coal, oil and gas industry, employment, social welfare and national wealth and progress. A well-cut marketing mix of this sort is mirrored in the following passage publicly stated by Trump shortly after he inaugurated US president: "*American energy will power our ships, our planes and our cities. American hands will bend the steel and pour the concrete that brings this energy into our homes and that exports this incredible, newfound energy all around the world.*" (President Speech, 2017).

Using energy issues as a spearhead of foreign policy was not unknown in US politics. It was US President Richard Nixon who first talked about "energy independence" amid the 1970s oil crises, inaugurating an era in which energy – mainly oil and gas – was considered a politicized commodity (Bordoff, 2017). This practice has been restored and become common place in world politics since Putin set in motion the use of energy as a foreign policy tool and leverage towards friendly and non-friendly states (Newnham, 2011).

Trump was an experienced businessman and television personality before his presidency. He knew very well the value and the expediency of branding. It was not a surprise that, when his rival, Hillary Clinton, talked about green energy policies, he was brandishing bold-faced signs that he would tend to favor the coal industry (Ashton, 2016). This message, combined with his avid support for shale oil and gas industry, became the frontispiece of his "America First" doctrine and policy (Ettinger, 2018).

Russia and the US could undoubtedly support their leaders' narrative. Russia could and should maintain its market shares that were vital for the national economy and essential for the reconstruction of its great power profile. The US, after the shale revolution and the lift of the exports ban, got – at last – a tangible counterweight against OPEC's and Russia's energy leverages. But this time the counterweight was not related to classic forms of power, such as military, economy, diplomacy. It consisted in the direct use of what long considered a privileged power tool of others than the US. By setting forth the strategy of Energy Dominance, the US started moving its chess pieces more dynamically, with a view to resetting up the global energy chessboard.

THE ENERGY RELATED BRANDING

The authors argue that energy related branding is closely linked to a state's broader national status in global politics. However, even a state possessing abundant energy resources is not a given that is capable of branding itself as an energy superpower, for example. Branding embeds and conveys a "package meaning" (Albarran et al., 2006, p. 230). The goal is to successfully create and install a set of perceptions, images and cognitive links to others' minds.

The critical aspect is that this set should not be seen only under a prism of desired or undesired results from the side of branded, but also as being accepted and believable from the side of receivers (Keller, 1998). The package meaning includes several intangible elements and dimensions that, in order to be effective, should be based upon a bedrock of credibility, actuality, tangibility, in a word in terms of branding, authenticity (Marsh & Fawcett, 2011, p. 526). Making a claim to self-brand is just not enough. The claim should be valid, reliable and substantive (Morhart et al., 2015).

From an economic perspective, for instance, Fan notes that: "*The nation brand cannot assert itself, as the tangible sources from which its value is accrued are not in place. It is not sufficient for the country to promote its image enthusiastically to other nations if the economic basis for the nation brand is not there*."(Fan, 2006, p. 12).

Getting back to Putin's "energy superpower" vision, several factors underpinned and enhanced the validity of Russia's self-branding. Russia's vast energy resources were linked to its economic growth and national pride. Its political elites also embraced this vision, as oil prices boomed during the mid-2000s and Russia's foreign policy was seeking special relations with other states defending and reinforcing its privileged role in the energy field (Kuteleva, 2020, p. 88). In line with this narrative, today's Russia does not hesitate to project its military power, as it is observed in the Arctic Region, where its fleet and military bases join forces with its scientific and technological efforts to control the region and integrate it to its energy production complex (Danilova, 2019).

Not only do these moves materialize Russia's energy policy but they also serve the pursuit of its wider nation branding. In fact, Russia's historical background and its broadly recognized national interest to reemerge as a great power in the international system, validate the brand itself, blending reality with lingering aspirations (Rich, 2009). That's why Putin's vision was not considered a utopic baloney. Instead, the energy superpower branding stands upon a solid backdrop, mainly because its vital national interests strongly correlate with its proven energy capabilities, exploitation and supply infrastructure.

On the other hand, a similar claim by another state could not have analogous effects in the international scene. Approximately at the same period that Vladimir Putin was putting on rails his ambitious vision, another Prime Minister, Stephen Harper, proclaimed his country, Canada, as an emerging energy superpower (Taber, 2006). Several scholars, analysts and media commentators turn down the viability of such a claim, pointing to the importance of the "package meaning" (Smith, 2013).

Way, for instance, aptly characterized this claim as "*more representative of a marketing campaign than reality*" (Way, 2009, p. 1). This view is consistent with our analysis of how a state may brand energy issues. States' leadership uses traditional business branding and marketing tools to promote a national vision, interest or narrative, even personal political ambitions. For Canada, branding itself as "superpower" in the global energy chessboard was considered so "*un-Canadian*" that the country itself could not support (Welsh & Hester, 2009).

Likewise, Hester vividly explained that Canada could not stand behind such a package meaning, making direct parallelisms to Russia: "*On this basis, if Russia manages to expand its markets, secure a global reach, and even rebuild its military arsenal, it will become both the first true energy superpower and a military superpower as well. This is as far from Canadian reality as one could imagine. Canada takes pride in working towards consensus. It is a law-abiding nation, and as mentioned, it doesn't use coercion and bullying to impose its will on others. For these reasons, labeling Canada as an energy superpower is counterproductive.*"(Hester, 2007, p. 12).

Finally, Keith critically wrote: "*the superpower myth encourages us to imagine we can do it all, a folly that will result only in achieving little or nothing. It's time we shook it off.*" (Keith, 2014, p. 20). His greatest objection was about the role and the status that Canada should and could seek in global politics. Canada's national interests and capabilities could not sustain such branding as an energy superpower. It is not only a matter of material resources or military strength. Canada's political, economic, social and cultural background and attributes are not compatible to an energy superpower nation brand (Forrester et al., 2015).

The case of Canada indicates the importance of the package meaning that should be embedded in a valid energy related nation branding. It also demonstrates that the latter relies on a variety of interrelated factors far beyond the energy field in itself. Canada doesn't lack energy resources. On the contrary, it is endowed with vast energy potential. It is one of the countries that experienced its own shale revolution, exactly like the US whereas some of its energy resources are not yet fully exploited such as oil sands (Salygin et al., 2019, pp. 5–7). Nonetheless, the brand energy superpower appears unreal and unreasonable for Canada.

ENERGY-RELATED NATIONAL BRANDING WITHOUT ENERGY

Energy in global politics goes far beyond production and supply. This is not a novice observation. Apart from explorations and exploitation, oil and gas upstream, midstream and downstream operations might add much complexity to the attributes of the package meaning. What is interesting is that in some cases of energy related national branding, there exist no energy resources. Other attributes are getting more significant for the reliability of the package meaning, once a state selects an energy-related label to self-brand.

"Energy hub" is such a brand. Being portrayed as a national goal, the energy hub brand may denote and carry properties of political branding and marketing akin to energy dominance and energy superpower.

In general, the energy hub term typically refers to energy transportation. But as integral part of the world's energy markets, it subjects to such lasting prerequisites as resources flows, infrastructures, capital, investment, management, supply diversification, exporters' support, political and military security guarantees, sophisticated and competent infrastructure and geographical location (Barylski, 1995, p. 230).

From a transportation point of view, dimensions such as transnational boundaries, regional particularities of interstate relations, geographical conditions, political economy issues, foreign affairs and security requirements, all come to the forefront and get a pivotal role (Cherp & Jewell, 2014, pp. 418–420). These dimensions are crucial both for states aspiring to become energy hubs but without possessing energy resources and for those performing the role in capitalizing on their own ample energy resources. Obviously, the importance of energy as a commodity in itself comes second to energy as a tool of national branding and marketing.

On the other hand, other market driven considerations are emerging, more complicated and relevant to political issues. An energy hub, mainly for gas, which operates as a price stock exchange, requires sufficient infrastructure, extensive storage capabilities, geographical proximity, diversification of terrestrial (e.g. pipelines) or marine (e.g. LNG ship carriers) transportation routes, an efficient national regulatory framework and, last but not least, an entrenched security environment, domestically and regionally, in land and sea (Haizmann & Consulting, 2017).

In practice, the states that pursue an energy hub role in their region, constitute a slate of candidates competing each other to overbid their own appropriateness for it. Concurrently, they are trying to promote their national agenda. The latter often includes long-term and hard to solve problems such as bilateral disputes, regional instability, controversial ambitions, and conflicting interests of major international players.

As the authors examine subsequently, most of the states that are building up an "energy hub" nation brand bid for the support of major states or non-state actors to achieve an elevated role for themselves in their region, or gain advantages against regional rivals. For the major players, this is an ideally fertile ground to deploy their energy strategies in the global energy chessboard.

The available literature on the aforementioned issues offers plenty of terms that allow researchers not to reinvent the wheel. "Energy Wars", "Pipeline Wars", "Resource Wars", "Energy Races" are just some of the terms that characterize energy related conflicts and disputes across the world (Billon, 2004; Cohen, 2011; Pototskaya, 2020; Walker, 2007).

In this context, broadly speaking, time acts as a catalyst for energy politics internationally. Energy plans and agreements need much time to get prepared before reaching the implementation phase. A long period of negotiations, meetings, interim procedures, bargaining, lobbying, both at the forefront and behind the curtain, takes place before a plan, or even a decided project, gets into the construction stage or becomes operational. A highly indicative case is the 2014 Russian-Chinese deal, which came after almost ten years of negotiations and which it is set to last 30 years (Luhn & Macalister, 2014).

By consequence, long periods of time leave abundant space for another catalytic factor, change, to take place. Changes in such projects are not instant occurrences. They result from multifaceted interactions either at the domestic and the international level or both. A change in a state's government and strategic planning, a random event, or even a new technological advancement, all might trigger groundbreaking shifts. For example, it was both the evolution of the shale oil extraction and the decisions of Trump's US Presidency that led to the Energy Dominance doctrine and the reversal of Obama's green agenda (Bomberg, 2017; Gilje et al., 2016). It was the Bulgarian Prime Minister Boyko Borisov retractions, along with the EU's and the US's regional interference that stalled the agreed construction of the Burgas-Alexandroupolis and the South Stream pipelines (Dąborowski, 2011; Tziampiris, 2010). It was the new and vast exploratory oil discoveries, combined with a booming ethanol industry, that foster Brazil's aspirations to become an international energy player (C. Casey, 2013; Brainard & Martinez-Diaz, 2009, pp. 17–45).

In short, in branding a state as a qualified and effective energy hub, energy itself may take a back-seat role. In the case-studies that follow, the authors demonstrate that as time and change play their crucial part in shaping the broader context, the energy hub nation branding is most likely to result from the interaction of the aligned or incompatible national interests and ambitions of the states involved.

CASE-STUDIES OF ENERGY HUB NATION BRANDING

As the authors mentioned before, the energy hub nation branding encompasses several issues, that are classified as geopolitical, economic, financing and regulatory (Winrow, 2011, pp. 81–82). In the context of global politics, combining these issues with national security, interests and power results in a complicated picture with regard to the conditions under which a state is actually qualified to pursue and achieve the task (Goldthau et al., 2020). As numerous states aspire to brand themselves as energy hubs, it is hard enough to keep track of the conditions or create a list of states meeting the criteria. As a matter of fact, we focus on specific cases of states that have officially declared their intention to claim an energy hub role and persistently develop and market this brand. The purpose is not to evaluate their adequacy, but to map out the steps they have so far taken toward energy hub nation branding. The selected southeastern Mediterranean states display a variety of different attributes that sufficiently provide a fertile ground for a comparative analysis of discrete cases of energy hub nation branding (Giuli, 2021).

The following figure summarizes the main attributes of the case studies.

Turkey

Turkey is a country with few indigenous energy resources. Aspiring to become an energy hub is an intertemporal objective, fully aligned with its foreign policy and grounded in its prominent geographic location (Wigen, 2012). Since the mid-2000s, the objective has moved to the core of Turkey's national interests (Erşen & Çelikpala, 2019, p. 586). Turkey's pursuit of being qualified and recognized internationally as an energy hub has resulted in rich research literature often examining the case under the prism of US, Russian and EU engagement (Tokus, 2010).

Figure 2. Turkey, Cyprus, Egypt, Greece: Building an Energy Hub Nation Brand
Source: Created by the authors

State | State leader	State Branding	Level	Targeting	Interests (Main)	Threats	Resources - Attributes (spearhead)	Official Statement
	Energy Hub	Regional	International Actors (US, Russia, EU), Major Powers	Rise as regional leader, Mediterranean Sea, Aegean Sea, Settle EEZ, Use Mediterranenean Sea for resources exploration	EOZ agreements of Cyprus and Greece, US - Russia antagonism	No significant indigenous energy resources, Pipelines, Nuclear Plants, Geographic Location	R.T.Erdoğan (2020): "We aim to make our country a global energy hub. [...] As Turkey, we have never sought regional tension. The sole purpose of our hydrocarbon exploration efforts in the Eastern Mediterranean is to protect the interests of our country and the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus."
	Energy Hub	Regional	Allies, EU, US, Italy, France, Egypt, Israel, Greece, China, Great Britain, NATO	Security, Sovereignty, National territorial integrity, EEZ security	Turkey, Turkey-Cyprus dispute, Turkish impeachment of the EEZ	Major undersea untapped gas reserves, Geographic location	Y.Lakkotrypis (2013): "At the same time we have been working very hard to position Cyprus as a regional hub, or base, for offshore drilling operations. [...] By that I mean that Cyprus is in an ideal geographical and political position for servicing the offshore drilling not only of Cyprus but also of Israel, Egypt and Lebanon."
	Energy Hub	Regional	Allies, Israel, Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Jordan, Palestine, US, Russia, EU	National economic growth, Regional power and leadership	US - Russia antagonism, Turkey / Cyprus ambitions	Gas liquefaction plants, Giant unexploited resources, Pipelines network, Renewables, Nuclear plants, Geographic location	Abdel-Fattah al-Sisi (2018): "The dream of turning Egypt into a regional energy hub is becoming a reality. [...] Egypt is now one of the few countries in the Mediterranean region that owns facilities fully capable of providing all oil-related services. [...] Egypt will use these facilities to liquefy the imported gas for later export or for use in industry.
	Energy Hub	Regional	Allies, EU, US, Russia, Italy, China, Bulgaria, Israel, Egypt, Cyprus	Economic resurrection, Regional power augmentation, Security, National EEZ, Diversification from Turkish pipelines, Energy interplay participation	Turkey, US - Russia antagonism, Cyprus problem	No significant indigenous energy resources, Geographic location, Maritime lanes, National ports, EU membership, Transnational relations	T.Gerassimos (2019): "It is no secret that the Greek Government is pursuing an extremely ambitious energy agenda in the context of the Paris Agreement, the Green Deal for Europe, and the commitment to a climate-neutral EU by 2050. Our strategic objective is to establish Greece as a regional energy hub in the Balkans and Southeast Europe."

One of the first initiatives taken in that direction was the Baku–Tbilisi–Ceyhan (BTC) pipeline, a project strongly supported by the US and NATO (Balat, 2006; Güvenç & Özel, 2012). The BTC pipeline was considered a strategic project to reduce Russia's influence in the region, upgrade Azerbaijan's and Turkey's role, intercept Georgia's attachment to Russia and China, provide an alternative route to Middle-East supplies and strengthen US-Turkey cooperation (Iqbal & Shah, 2015). It by no means fulfilled Turkey's aspiration to become an energy hub. What is more, its construction and US support did not suspend Turkey's relations with Russia and their cooperation on energy issues. Despite some short periods of tension, Turkey and Russia maintain close energy ties. Ankara being as an energy hub at the crossroads of energy transfer routes and markets, tries to keep its choices open to balance opposing interests.

The Turkish Stream, for instance, which is currently operational having replaced the South Stream pipeline, has ameliorated the Russian-Turkish relations. This arguably prepared the ground for Turkey to intervene in Syria and secure Russia's financial and technological aid for the construction of nuclear plants (Winrow, 2017). Notably, the later cannot be overlooked in terms of the balance of regional power in the eastern Mediterranean. Erdogan's Turkey never hides his ambitions to acquire nuclear weapons, a development destined to reshape power balances and security structures and, thereby, increase the perception of Turkish threat by countries such as Greece and Cyprus or other regional rivals (Sanger & Broad, 2019).

Turkey's energy hub nation branding is indissolubly connected to its struggle to emerge as an undisputable leading regional power (Baltos et al., 2017). Being aware of the fact that its geographical position is pivotal for major actors such as the U.S., Russia, the EU and China, doesn't hesitate to play both ends against the middle on energy related issues, propelling its national interests (Illingworth, 2018).

Turkey is indeed branding itself as an energy hub country, having already become an energy transit state (Leal-Arcas et al., 2015). At the same time, it is aspiring to regional hegemony. This seems to be a double-edged sword for its aspirations because it turns an apparently rational claim into a question of regional and international balance of power (Yilmaz-Bozkus, 2019). As pure energy considerations recede, other aspects of global politics become weightier, and many other actors enter the equation. Clearly, national interests and policy perspectives complicate the situation. Several aspects such as security, multilateral and bilateral disputes or national foreign policies make very difficult their alignment. The two following cases bring out exactly this complexity.

Cyprus

The Cyprus conundrum, also known as the Turkey-Cyprus dispute, is the longest frozen conflict in Europe (Ker-Lindsay, 2015). After more than 50 years of unfruitful resolution efforts, the problem has been aggravated and complicated by the question of energy exploration and exploitation. In 2011, the discovery of vast natural gas reserves in Cyprus's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) was confirmed (Grigoriadis, 2014). The development was liable to turn Cyprus from a net importer into a net exporter.

The first good news came from a US company, Noble Energy, now owned by the American giant Chevron (Reuters Staff, 2020b). The probability of a stronger American support for settling the Cyprus-Turkey conflict and of Cyprus becoming a regional energy hub, came as a matter of course (Mavroyiannis, 2014, p. 58). Parallelly, the country's other advantages, such as the geographic location, EU funding tools, and the construction of a secure regional environment with the engagement of the US and the EU, all started playing their part in supporting the creation of a "*world class*" LNG plant, establishing the fundament for Cyprus to become a regional energy hub (Ellinas, 2013).

Since the 2010s, all Cypriot Presidents, governmental officials and state functionaries have consistently promoted their country's energy hub nation branding. They directly connect this aspiration with the handling of Turkish assertiveness (Theodorou, 2011; Zoupaniotis, 2018). Their awareness of Cyprus's regional status, coupled with Turkey's threat, wisely leads them to implicate every major actor concerned for the region, such as the US, Russia, China, France, Italy, Great Britain, Israel and the EU, in order to secure their cooperation and create a safe shell for achieving their goal (Pedi & Kouskouvelis, 2019).

Turkey's impeachment of the Cypriot Exclusive Economic Zone, as it insists on formally recognizing the pseudo-state of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus is an issue that Cyprus is hardly able to handle on its own (Kliot & Mansfield, 1997; Stergiou, 2016). Furthermore, Turkey considers the Cypriot problem as an integral part of its broader dispute with Greece and the general development of regional energy resources exploitation as a pivotal element of its national interest. Not accidentally, the Turkish President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, showing his strong determination, has recently declared that "*we are determined to do whatever is necessary in political, economic and military terms. […] We invite our interlocutors to get their act together and to avoid mistakes that will lead to their ruin.*"(Fraser & Gatopoulos, 2020).

In short, Cyprus is a characteristic case of a state that, without having a full-fledged exploitation deployment of its own energy resources, brands itself as a potential energy hub, primarily seeking an enhanced regional status and better protection against a direct threat to its territorial integrity and national interests. All these moves or accomplishments clearly point to more than a simple energy supply issue. Cyprus counts on its advantageous attributes and other actors' energy needs or political calculations, hoping to provide tailwinds for its struggle (Stergiou, 2017).

Egypt

Egypt's aspirations to become a regional energy hub dates back to the end of the 1990s(Widdershoven, 2020). With its indigenous energy resources remaining unexplored and unexploited for many years, it capitalized upon infrastructure investments such as the gas liquefaction plants in Idku and Damietta, its pipelines network and its geographical location. In 2015, however, like in Cyprus, a huge gas field was discovered, boosting its ambitions (Reuters Staff, 2020a).

After the East Med Gas Forum became an international organization in January 2020, it is headquartered in Cairo (Matalucci, 2020). This development undeniably strengthens Egypt's efforts to build up its own energy hub nation brand. In addition, Egypt brands its considerable renewable energy progress (wind and solar) and its proximity to the high energy consuming EU (Cauich-López et al., 2019). The relaunch of its nuclear power program has been the result of its close cooperation with Russia whose Rosneft, a leading energy company, holds shares of the Zohr gas field project (Tanchum, 2020).

Natural as it is, Egypt's aspirations are connected to its national interest for economic growth and increased regional influence (Krauss & Walsh, 2019). Nonetheless, double-edged sword consequences are possible in this case as well. In branding itself as a regional energy hub, Egypt may ameliorate its relations with Israel, its historic enemy, but it runs the risk of provoking competition and rivalries with Turkey and Cyprus; to the extent that while they all aspire to the same objective, that is, marketing an energy hub nation brand, they, concurrently quarrel over the delimitation of their maritime zones (Oxford Analytica, 2018).

An analogous situation is also met in the US-Egypt relations. Egypt bids for US support. For a long period they have had close military cooperation, as Washington seeks a powerful pivot in the region (Ali, 2020; Dunne, 2019). Yet, once again demonstrating how energy may be blended with national interest, Russia's active engagement with Egypt, as already mentioned, on the energy front challenges US primacy (Maher, 2018). Although initially the US appears indifferent to developments, subsequently they vividly react to the extension of the Egypt-Russia cooperation to military issues and defense equipment purchases (Salama, 2019).

As a whole, since the giant Zohr gas discovery and a series of multilateral energy agreements, Egypt, being the largest oil producer, has become one of the largest natural gas producers in Africa, and a significant player in renewable energy in the continent, thereby upgrading its economy and its status in the wider region (Fahmy, 2020). Branding itself as a potential regional energy hub seems totally reasonable. But again, when inevitably the national interest and international political issues enter into the equation, complexity starts escalating. Energy subtly remains on the table, but actually the energy chessboard gathers many more players, major or smaller (Berman & Albo, 2020).

Greece

Greece is a net importer of primary energy resources such as crude oil and natural gas. Its limited productive capabilities in coal and solar energy are solely used for its domestic electricity needs (IEA, 2017, pp. 17–40). Since the mid-2000s, when global energy supply issues dynamically came to the fore, Greece has capitalized on its key geographic location, maritime routes and international relations to participate in the energy play, with a view to building up its energy hub nation brand. The case is interesting because Greece starts marketing this brand without having proven energy reserves, infrastructures and financial competence.

The period 2005-2009 found Greece at the geographic center stage of several significant energy infrastructure plans. On one hand, the fact that Russia set out to construct the South Stream gas pipeline and the Burgas-Alexandroupolis oil pipeline brought Greece on the energy diplomacy table (Aleksandrova, 2020). On the other, the completion of the natural gas Interconnector Turkey-Greece–Italy (ITGI) in 2007, along with the plans for the construction of the gas Greece-Bulgaria Interconnector (IGB), both contracted to bring gas to Europe from Azerbaijan, enlisted Greece in a complicated tug of war competition (Ifantis, 2008). Making things complicated, the then proposed Nabucco gas pipeline, originally planned to substitute for the South Stream to reduce EU dependence on Russian gas supplies, engaged Greece in a broader battleground where major players such as Russia, the US and the EU were trying to enforce their moves on the energy chessboard (Prevelakis, 2011).

Greece was found in a clearly enticing situation, trying to find its way between the main antagonists, leverage its advantages, and seize the chance to promote its own national interests. Its effort to brand itself as a potential regional energy hub was put into a broader strategic plan for its foreign policy (Tziampiris, 2010, p. 88). The fundamental difference was that compared to other plans, Russia's proposed pipelines did not only bypass Turkey, Greece's historical enemy in the region. It also upgraded Greece from the level of an energy transit state to one of the energy hub, a prospect fully aligned with country's nation branding (Kim & Blank, 2012).

At the same time, the Russia-Ukraine conflict over gas transmission prices created serious worries about the EU's gas supply, prompting the US to consider alternative energy pipeline projects for Russian transport routes (Földvári, 2008). It was then that while the EU was promoting its energy supply diversification agenda to decrease its dependency on Russian energy supplies, Greece laid the foundations for a "strategic partnership" with Russia focusing on, among others, energy infrastructure development (Fakiolas, 2012). In June 2007, at the Black Sea Economic Cooperation Organization summit in Istanbul, Putin and the Greek Prime Minister Kostas Karamanlis, confirmed their mutual understanding on energy issues (Geropoulos, 2007).

Some months later, in November, Greece and Turkey, traditionally competing against each other, inaugurated a new US supported gas corridor project to Europe, bypassing Russia (Carassava, 2007). Doubtlessly, the deal was a snapshot of the two countries' effort to promote themselves as a potential energy hub in the region. Nonetheless, Russian plans were compatible with Greece's motives to enter the energy play and secure its role and position by pipelines that were not traversing Turkey (Jirušek et al., 2017). From this angle, energy pipelines were more intended to national interest than energy supply (Christou, 2011).

However, the outbreak of the sovereign debt crisis in the late 2000s put on hold Greece's aspirations and changed dramatically the energy chessboard. Russia and Turkey constructed the Turkish Stream gas pipeline, which replaced the then-planned South Stream project. Greece, in turn, became a partner in the Trans Adriatic and Trans Anatolian Natural Gas Pipeline project (TAP-TANAP), designed to transport gas from Azerbaijan through Greece to Italy (Hafner & Tagliapietra, 2015).

The mid-2010s, as the impact of the economic crisis was in part alleviated, found Greece seeking for a renewed energy related role in the region, once again branding itself as a potential energy hub (Deniozos et al., 2019). Today, Greece's maritime routes are once more in the spotlight, as a number of energy project plans are either in progress, such as the Alexandroupolis LNG Terminal and the EU-supported IGB gas pipeline as an extension to the operational Southern Gas Corridor, or in making such as the EastMed pipeline transporting gas from the Levantine Basin to Europe (Knight, 2020; Troulis, 2020).

In this respect, the main problem for Greece's aspirations to market an energy hub nation brand in the Mediterranean Sea, the so-called "Byzantine Lake" at the times of Emperor Justinian, encroaches on similar claims staked out by Turkey, Spain, Italy, Egypt, Israel, Cyprus and Lebanon (Salameh & Chedid, 2020). Alongside goes such major state and non-state actors, as the US, France and Germany, Russia, China and the EU which are still overactive in the energy play (Marketos, 2021).

CONCLUSION

Since the 2000s, energy-related issues have taken a center state on the international scene. They most often form the crux of national foreign policies and strategies. An increasingly rising number of states are striving to ensure access to energy resources, markets and transmission routes in the name of their national interest. What is more, quite inevitably, energy has become not merely a tool of power projection but also a measure of national status. It fuels much antagonism implicating all actors concerned in re-mastering their domestic politics and economics and reordering their security relationships (Balafas & Fakiolas, 2019; Rehman & Abbas, 2020).

In the light of what already discussed, an interesting example is China's rise and its pronounced activity in branding energy issues, with a view to ameliorating its global status (Huang, 2017). Energy supply routes are vital for its development and, thus, regional interactions cannot be investigated without taking this dimension into account (Lim et al., 2017). At the same time, the rise of India and the activation of other state actors, major or smaller, in the name of their national interests, in the south China Sea show that a new chessboard of energy hub branding is in making (Abi-Habib, 2020; Alenezi, 2020).

The Malacca Strait, for instance, holds a pivotal position for China's energy supply and trade maritime routes. Singapore, currently being a significant energy transit state, is trying to brand itself as a secure potential regional energy hub (A. Casey & Sussex, 2012). Likewise, Indonesia and Malaysia, which are China's important suppliers, capitalize on their privileged geographical locations (Vivoda, 2019). Philippines having considerable exporting capabilities in specific energy sectors is pursuing to exploit untapped national oil and gas resources (Crossley et al., 2020; Pop, 2016). Finally, such states as Romania, Poland, Hungary, Colombia, and Bolivia are convincingly said to aspire to brand themselves as potential energy hubs (Godzimirski, 2016; Oxford Analytica, 2015; Szabo & Fabok, 2020; Zamora & Martínez, 2015).

All in all, the aforementioned states share two common characteristics. The first is that they are basically ranked, in ascending order, energy exporter, net energy exporter and energy transit states, with those being in a level down aspiring to switch over a level up. Their second trait is that possessing limited or unexplored and unexploited energy resources, but having a privileged geographical location in terms of territorial or maritime transport routes, they are striving to leverage energy issues, in the name of national interest, to ensure a secure energy shell, in order to ameliorate their international status most often within a fragile and unbalanced regional environment. In terms of discourse, the two traits are articulated in a package meaning narrative that substantiates and projects the particular energy brand of each state.

From this standpoint, an energy-hub brand, being part and parcel a broader national brand, features the adequacy and ability of the so-called branded state to perform and propel this role on the international scene via a combined process of nation branding and marketing (Heaton, 2011).

It is obvious that energy itself is not merely a natural raw resource or commodity. As the authors show, energy-related brands are embedded in broader national brands and as such compete each other in global politics. The brand of energy superpower for Russia entails more of acquiring more market shares. Equally, the US's of energy dominance brand denotes more than energy supply security for itself and its allies.

In the global energy sector, therefore, there exist more than energy supply issues at stake. It is this inference that makes the case-studies and the rest analyzed in the chapter originally interesting "*ab initio*".

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Chessboard: The international scene and the interactions thereof among state and non-state actors.

Energy Dominance: Donald Trump's response to Russia's revisionism after the "shale revolution", targeting OPEC's manipulation of oil production and market prices as well.

Energy Hub: A secure geographical location, inside or outside a sovereign state, where multiple exporters and importers exchange energy products and services while transacting business, dealing, and concluding agreements. The location may include, among others, energy related reserves, refineries, production, transports pipelines, maritime routes, ports.

Energy Hub Nation Branding: The action of articulating and narrating the image, the perception and the message through and by which an energy hub is identified as belonging to a nation.

Energy Superpower: Originally coined by Vladimir Putin to articulate its vision to leverage energy resources, mainly oil and gas, to restore Russia's greatness in global politics.

Marketing Energy Hub Nation Branding: The action of promoting an energy-hub nation brand.

Chapter 3
Turkey's Nation Branding for the 2050s:
Challenges and Opportunities

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ABSTRACT

Nation branding has been an important communication strategy since the late 1990s, as governments undertook campaigns to promote their country's global image. The practice has been characterized as a multi-dimensional blend of elements that shape national identity within and outside a country. The 1923 Treaty of Lausanne led to international recognition of the Republic of Turkey as the successor of the Ottoman Empire. In 2053, the nation will celebrate its 600th anniversary, and President Erdogan has defined a system called the "Turkey Model" as the foundation for the country's 2053 vision. This chapter discusses Turkey's nation branding for the 2050s and considers the vision of national leaders, the strategy for implementing the plan, and relations with stakeholders. Challenges and opportunities are identified along with a national and regional outlook. Recommendations are provided for any nation interested in structured nation branding.

INTRODUCTION

The sections that follow present a critical review of the national branding of Turkey as the country approaches the year 2050. The discussion references the challenges and opportunities that the state is expected to face during this period. In the next section, the theoretical background regarding the branding of the nation is reviewed, as are the basic governing characteristics so that the reader can easily refer to them. It is important that researchers clearly identify the defined variables and the specific frame of reference within which the available theoretical tools are used. Then, the specific case of Turkey is discussed. A general description of the country's past history and current situation is seen as necessary and helpful to better understanding the linkage issues that the nation is promoting in its vision. The chapter then describes the selected targets aligned with Turkey's vision and the strategies that must be implemented.

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Finally, a general reference to the global environment and the outlook for Turkey's national branding is given, along with a generic set of proposals and recommendations for any nation concerning its brand development.

Turkey's expansion in the Middle East over the past decade seems to be taking place in terms of its hard power, as happened in the cases of conflict zones in Syria and northern Iraq, where Turkey sought to downplay its role as the regional protector of other Muslim countries, especially after the decline of the terrorist group, ISIS. However, it is also important and remarkable that Turkey has been applying several means of soft power, including its support of the cultural and tourism industry. It is impressive how Turkish movies, TV series, and news channels and broadcasts have been widely accepted by the people of the Middle East, with Turkey's cultural arm having huge success in leveraging interfaith countries to serve its interests. Among other characteristics of Turkey, which are noted by the branding campaign, are the following (Nas, 2017):

- History: The notion of history is utilized as "a crucial denominator in constituting Turkish national identity".
- Brand: The aim and details of Turkey's brand included the logo, which "was inspired by the original geometry of Kufic calligraphy and that of the art of Kilim tapestry."
- Advertisements: Promotion is available in many foreign languages, such as English, French, German, Italian, and Arabic. There are references to Turkey's cultural heritage, such as Ephesus, Galata Tower, and the Topkapi Palace Museum; the fashion industry; the Turkish Airlines; the health and diet (food) industry; hospitality; and the ability to visit the country throughout the year.

As a further step to improve and strengthen the national brand, it may be necessary for the Turkish authorities to revisit some of the critical characteristics that are used during the campaigns, such as the following (Nas, 2017, pp. 217–219):

- As emphasis is given to the historicity of the Turkish nation, Turkey risks being seen as the "inheritor of previous civilizations in the region".
- The promoted story views Turkey as the nexus of different cultures and civilizations, promoting the nation as a bridge that connects the East and the West.
- It seems that Turkey's Eastern identity is gaining more emphasis and becoming more attractive.
- The logo used in several campaigns consists of different cross-cultural motifs and aims to attract people from the international market "to explore, discover and take part in the mysterious array of meanings and potentials offered by the richness of the motifs."
- All previous campaigns have tried to attract the citizens of the country to assist in forming the brand identity by considering themselves "as the members of the nation, capable of living, working and innovating together, at the same time adjusting their core cultural values to the necessities of modern life."

Literature Review

Before delving deeper into the specific case of Turkey, it is necessary and useful to define several notions that are frequently muddled and can create confusion among stakeholders. In *Principles of Marketing* (Kotler & Armstrong, 2017), brand is defined as a name, term, sign, or symbol (or a combination of these) that identifies the maker or seller of a product. Based on Foley and Kendrick (2006), brand is a "set of promises, associations, images and emotions that companies create to build loyalty with their customers" (p. 3). The mix and implementation of brand marketing strategies and techniques for nations is considered a "relatively new phenomenon" and the driver for nations to make "increasingly conscious efforts to hone their country branding" in recognition of the need to accomplish three main targets: attract tourists, excite investments in the country, and promote exports of local products and services to global markets (Dinnie, 2008, p. 17).

A nation is normally understood as a community of people of the same race and language, and the term country is used to describe a territorial division including a body of people of one or more nationalities that is characterized by relatively large size and independent status. The dominant themes of nation branding include country image, nation brand personality, country reputation and nation brand strength (Hao et al., 2019). It is interesting that nation branding, state branding, and country branding are "interchangeably used," while "the most popular and widely used form is that of nation branding" (Szondi, 2008, p. 5).

The notion of nation branding is different from that of a nation's brand. The term nation branding seems to have originated from the science of management and marketing where efforts to promote products or services are thorough and analytically designed processes; in studies of these efforts, research has thus far yielded significant results. Based on this experience and taking advantage of the interdisciplinarity and diversity in the approach to studying a particular issue, such as the management of a country's branding, it is interesting to explore the progress in this field, which admittedly is still in its very early stages.

Nation branding is exciting because, while there is not much theoretical background on the topic, there is a lot of real-world action. It is complex because it is a larger version of the usual brand-marketing approach, but it is also controversial because it is a highly politicized activity, thus, it deploys different opinions, views, and approaches toward a diversified palette of stakeholders (Dinnie, 2008, p. 13). Nation branding communicates a nation's policies and culture to an international audience; it is the public face of international diplomacy. Moreover, nation branding can be considered "a manifestation of soft power as it represents a desire by the countries concerned to make people want to pay attention to their particular nation state, their achievements, and beliefs in their qualities" (Jordan, 2014, p. 284). It "operates within a world where states seek to discipline narratives in order to secure sectional advantages" and, moreover, the notion of nation branding should be understood "not as transcending the field of geopolitics, but as a (new) strategic tool for the politics of geographical imaginations" (Browning & Oliveira, 2017, p. 496).

Another definition of nation branding refers to the "result of the interpenetration of commercial and public sector interests to communicate national priorities among domestic and international populations for a variety of interrelated purposes" (Aronczyk, 2013, p. 16). In addition, it is interesting that nation, nationality, and nationalism are usually considered "uncomfortable anomalies for theory rather than as lenses to sharpen or view" the subject. Even though there is "ongoing legitimacy of the nation in social and political thought and practice, nationalism is still viewed as pathology instead of cure" (Aronczyk, 2013, p. 27).

Despite the different definitions of nation branding, the term can be seen as a "national brand strategy" that governs a realistic, competitive, and captivating strategic vision of a country as it is created by its main stakeholders to communicate with other countries (Anholt, 1998). Furthermore, it is obvious that different visions and strategies set by the leadership of a nation or country require new, separate approaches to how the state is presented and positioned in the international arena. For that, it is always critical to identify and refer to the people in charge of a nation's image. Such an image should be associated with diverse dimensions, such as the political, economic, social, technological, historical, and cultural (PEST-HC). At the same time, a nation usually does not have only one image, but multiple ones that are related to the time and period in which it is presented as a whole to internal and external players.

Historical Review

The decline and fall of the Ottoman Empire at the beginning of the last century was a major issue of concern for the Western Great Powers against the Great Patient, with the Eastern Question being a field of conflict and convergence at various levels, including politics and culture (Marriott, 1917). The Turkish Republic was established on 29 October 1923 in Ankara when the Lausanne Treaty of 24 July 1923 led to international recognition of the sovereignty of the newly formed Republic of Turkey—the successor state of the Ottoman Empire. After the establishment of the Turkish Republic, a transformation of the basic standards of governing took place, and the term Muslim was replaced by the term Turk, which lacks any reference to religious symbols.

During WWI and WWII, Turkey remained neutral, which has been the country's strategy until today, which has had positive results for the country in the international arena concerning its protection and the defense of its national interests. After WWII, Turkey considered the need to join NATO to protect itself against Stalin's expansive aspirations. Its membership in the Atlantic Alliance aided the country, as well as the West, as they could prevent the Soviets from gaining access to the Mediterranean Sea (Leffler, 1985). From 1945 to 2010, there were several attempted and successful military coups in Turkey (in 1960, 1971, 1980, 1993, 1997, and 2016). It is obvious that such challenges to the democracy have altered the political scene and administrative life and hindered the evolution of Turkey's national branding.

The prevalence of Kemalism as an ideology has been a determining factor in the evolution of the Turkish state and its relations with other states. Inside the country, secularization appeared in different aspects of society, such as law, the judiciary, education, and government institutions having the ability to protect and stabilize the state—both during the Ottoman period and following the creation of the Republic. Efforts to establish the state began during the 17th and 18th centuries, but *laiklik* (secularism) was finally adopted as a key principle of the nation at the establishment of the Republic. At this time, the political elite supported "a secular nationalism as the social bond," which was supposed to "overwrite religious and ethnic divisions and create a sense of coherence and unity" (Dressler, 2010). Ahmad (2004) refers to *laiklik* as "the state's control of religion as opposed to secularism, which implies the separation of state and religion" (p. 208). Turkey is considered distinct from subjects like Europeanness, democratization, Christianity, and modernity; state politicians from the European Union (EU) and Turkey have been involved in the process of moving the country to a higher neoliberal status (Gokariksel & Mitchell, 2005).

Turkey is considered "one of the most (semi-)democratic secular states" in which a separate government department is designated "to propagate, fund and staff a particular version of Islam" (Modood, 2010). The country is the most secular one among other Muslim nations and it follows the French tradition of determining its policies on religion in the form of *laiklik*. In Turkey, *laiklik* is not seen as a clear-cut separation between religion and the state but refers to the management of religion by the state, and it is used as a means for nationalization (Tarhan, 2011). Moreover, the link between national identity and religion (i.e., Islam) has influenced the principle of *laiklik*, since the secular state (the Kemalists) did not follow the general rule, thus they did not entirely disconnect the state from religion. The Kemalists had to create their own religious hierarchy, and the establishment of a religious institution (DIB[1]2) emerged to recognize religion as a means to protect national unity. The Turkish state supported "a modern and more civilized version of Islam" by managing "religious doctrine and practices" (Tarhan, 2011).

It is said that *laiklik* supports national unity and the neutrality of the state vis-à-vis any religion, but this has not happened in most cases in Turkey because Islam is clearly the dominant religion, while other religions and non-Muslim institutions are discriminated against. Non-Muslims and Alevis (a Muslim sect and the religious minority in Turkey) are not treated as equal to Muslims, contrary to what is stated in the constitution. A simple example is seen in schools, where religious education is based on Sunni doctrine, and instruction about all other religions is excluded (Keyman, 2007).

Kemalists in Turkey have been partially successful in managing religious issues, and there is still a difference between legal forms [of religion] and social cultural norms. Islam is still considered an "important doctrine and a constitutive part of national identity," which makes secular leaders of the state worried (Tarhan, 2011, p. 17). The basic issues that *laiklik* seems to deal with are "the headscarf ban, the legitimacy of political parties drawing on Islamic rhetoric and the question of Alevi recognition as a socio-religious community different from Sunnism" (Dressler, 2010, p. 122). In Turkey, the empowerment of political Islam happened mainly because it was used as a means for unification and due to the weakening of leftist parties, unions, and organizations. State-managed Islam ended up as "a political, social and cultural means for national security and unity" (Tahran, 2011, p. 24). In 1997, the National Security Council in Turkey declared that political Islam was "more dangerous than Kurdish nationalism" (Ahmad, 2004, p. 172). In 2005, the headscarf ban was brought to the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR), and the court upheld the ban on the grounds that Turkey's political concerns legitimated the interference with women's freedom of religion.

It is critical to highlight the main stance that Turkish policy has established since President Erdogan's administration, starting from his role in the municipality of Istanbul (1994–1998), then as Prime Minister and President of Justice and Development Party (abbreviated officially AK Parti in Turkish as an acronym AKP) (2003–2014), and most recently as president since 2014 (TCCB, 2020). In the modern period that began after Erdogan's first election as Prime Minister in 2003—in which the ruling AKP set the political agenda—political Islam seemed to fill the gaps that were created during the previous 80 years, since the beginning of Kemalism. Based on the latest strategic approach, called "strategic depth," which was declared and followed by Ahmet Davutoglu, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs (2009–2014) and later Prime Minister of Turkey (2014–2016), there are three geopolitical spheres of influence for Turkey that consist of cyclical zones that meet and form the geopolitical basis of the nation's foreign policy strategy in its quest to strengthen its global position (Davutoglu, 2001).

With the beginning of the new century, the country clearly feels uncomfortable inside its current borders. Its leaders—both politicians and militarists—have already expressed that the country seeks its "rights" to get what it "deserves" based on its previous history.

Turkish Nation Branding

After the liquidity crisis in Turkey in 2001, followed by the collapse of the Istanbul Stock Exchange and the devaluation of the Turkish pound by up to 35%, the subsequent rise to power of the AKP in 2002 was expected, with economic growth in the country following, and highlighting the country's strong dynamism. The economic recovery has given Turkey significant momentum and contributed to the strengthening of its image, which has greatly helped foreign policy by using economic diplomacy as an additional weapon in its quiver. The international image of the country has changed, and it is no longer just another bastion for the West against the former Soviet threat—and now the Russian one—and the Islamic fundamentalist threat from the East.

Turkey's image has been shaped according to regional power; it is a self-illuminated and capable country that can cope with any difficulties it faces from external threats. For example, the country has disengaged from the International Monetary Fund's (IMF's) supervision. The current picture of the country shows that the national currency has lost almost 90% of its value against the dollar over the last three years, while the country depleted its net international reserves in a desperate effort to defend its local currency. Turkey's overleveraged nonfinancial companies, already drowning in foreign exchange liabilities totaling some US$300 billion continue to pay the price. However, President Erdogan does not show any intention to sign a bailout deal with the IMF despite the country's need for it. It appears that the concerns for President Erdogan are not just related to ideology but also to the IMF's conditions and their potential "to undermine his hyper centralized style of governance" (Erdemir & Lechner, 2020).

In the early 2000s, the Ministry of Economy in Turkey started a state-supported program called "Turquality" (see http://www.turquality.com) to promote the image and brand of Turkey, with a vision of "creating global Turkish brands" and "increasing brand awareness in Turkey." In addition, Turkish authorities have supported other campaigns in recent years in order to enhance Turkey's brand name abroad (Nas, 2017). A short summary of the history of these campaigns is provided here:

- 2004: "Go With the Rhythm, Enjoy Turkey."
- 2005: "Turkey Welcomes You."
- 2006: "Mediterranean and More."
- 2007: "What a Feeling."
- 2008: "More Is Always on the Way."
- 2014: "Turkey: Discover the Potential."
- 2020: The Minister of Culture and Tourism, Mehmet Nuri Ersoy, has revealed Turkey's tourism strategy for 2023.

The Vision

Based on the latest developments over the past few years, it is clear that Turkey is a rising power in the Eurasian region. At the time of the establishment of its democracy in 1923, the population was about 13 million (Shorter, 1985). It reached 84.5 million in 2020, growing with an average annual rate of 1–2%. In 2053, the total population of Turkey is expected to approach 100 million (Turkish Statistics Institution, 2020).

The year 2053 will be the 600th anniversary of the fall of Istanbul to the Ottoman Turks, and President Erdogan has said that a system, which he defines as the "Turkey Model," will lay the foundations of the country's 2053 vision. Specifically, during his speech in September 2020, Erdogan stated that "you cannot find anywhere else such genuine democracy, a fair development objective, a long-established ideal of right and justice which are built on the concept of human values" (Duvar, 2020).

The Strategy

A sequence of actions is required for the proper design and implementation of nation branding. Moreover, it is critical to identifying and describing the following:

1. Purpose: It is necessary to understand and define what Turkey's national brand will be so it can better serve the country's aspirations. Globally, nation branding should serve as a national web or nexus for Turkey to diversify its products in each category (i.e., PEST-HC).
2. Target Group: As nation branding includes the promotion of the nation's image in the global environment, it is necessary and helpful to understand the different target groups that are of interest and a priority for Turkey.
3. Message: Turkey must decide not only on the concept and message itself, but also on the way that the communication of a single image (brand) would be transferred to the selected target groups in different countries.

The Implementation

It has already been indicated that there should be a strategy for different PEST-HC dimensions. Details for each category are provided below.

Political

There are declared and undeclared strategies that Turkey applies in different regions during different periods. It is well-known that the defense of national interests occurs through various forms, including diplomacy. Turkey aims to achieve all EU membership conditions and become an influential EU member state by 2023 (Karakas, 2013). Second, it will continue to strive for regional integration in the form of security and economic cooperation. Third, it will seek to play an influential role in regional conflict resolution. Fourth, it will vigorously participate in all global arenas. Fifth, it will play a determining role in international organizations and become one of the top-ten largest economies in the world. To achieve this, Turkey must make progress in all directions and in every field, take an interest in every issue related to global stability, and contribute accordingly.

Economic

Turkey's economic goals include (IMF, 2019) (Gul, 2010):

- Become one of the top-ten world economies by 2023 by achieving a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of US$2 trillion and per capita income of US$25,000.
- Increase annual Turkish exports to US$500 billion and foreign trade volume to US$1 trillion by 2023. Add income by applying duties on ocean trade through the Straits of Bosphorus and Dardanelles.
- Increase the employment rate by 10 points to a working population of 30 million and reduce the unemployment rate to 5% by 2023.
- Install a 20,000 megawatt (MW) capacity of wind energy, 600 MW capacity of geothermal energy, and three operating nuclear power plants with an installed capacity of 14,700 MW.
- Reduce energy consumption to 20% below 2010 levels through improved efficiency.

Social

Turkey's social goals are (Sumer, Shear and Yener, 2019):

- Ensure that the Turkish people will be able to exercise their religious obligations both inside and outside the country's borders.
- Improve the national health system and access to it for all Turkish citizens. This is expected to require 100% participation in the health insurance system.

Technological

The main technological roadmap for industrial development, prepared and published by the Ministry of Industry and Technology (OECD, 2020), is as follows:

- The target for the ratio of the manufacturing industry in GDP is 21% in 2023.
- The country aims to increase the added value generated by the industry per worker by 25% to US$35,000.
- Manufacturing industry exports are expected to increase by 34% to US$210 billion.
- The share of medium-high and high-technology products in manufacturing industry exports is expected to increase to 44.2% and 5.8%, respectively.
- The ratio of research and development (R&D) expenditures in GDP, which was 1% in 2017, is expected to increase to 1.8% by 2023.
- The country aims to increase the number of Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) R&D human resources and researchers to 300,000 and 200,000, respectively, in 2023. It is expected that 23 companies from Turkey's 2,500 company list that made the most R&D expenditures will be included in the Leadership Table in R&D (R&D Scoreboard) prepared by the EU.
- Professional software development capabilities are expected to exceed 500,000 persons by 2023.

Historical and Cultural

As per Turkey's tourism strategy for 2023, prepared by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT, 2007), the country has several unique opportunities for different types of tourism that are gathered under the category of alternative tourism. In addition to coastal tourism, this includes health and thermal tourism, winter sports, mountain climbing and layout tourism, adventure trips, plateau tourism, ecotourism, conference and expo tourism, cruise ship and yacht tourism, golf tourism, and others. Regarding the vision for culture and tourism, it is stated that,

with the adoption of the sustainable tourism approach, the tourism and travel industry will be brought to a leading position for leveraging rates of employment, and it will be ensured that Turkey becomes a world brand in tourism and a major destination on the list of the top-five countries receiving the highest number of tourists and tourism revenue by 2023 (MCT, 2007).

In particular, the aim for Turkey is to become the fifth largest tourist destination in the world, being able to host 50 million visitors per year.

As a general historical and cultural parameter, the ideological movement of Pan-Turkism emerged during the same period as the rise of nationalism at the beginning of the last century. Pan-Turkism does not seem to have lost its influence and persists through the existence of the modern state, with changes in its intensity depending on the prevailing conditions in the environment (Özdoğan, 2002). Meanwhile, "the Pan-Turkish political myths had been already present in the ideological climate of Turkey" from the first generation of Pan-Turkists (Kibris, 2019, p. 10).

It appears that Turkey is promoted as "an Eastern civilization in terms of its core values, which is capable of adjusting its historical significance and inheritance to the modern world, and thus has a lot to offer to the contemporary societies across the globe with its potential" (Nas, 2017, p. 219). It is important for the protection and improvement of Turkey's national branding to analyze and understand the continuously changing external environment. Changes that take place on the global scale are rapid. This affects the available means that can change the type of management of a key issue, such as that of the nation's branding. It is necessary to constantly critically analyze the data so that the design of the correct message and image of the nation can take place and ultimately contribute the most to the nation's vision. Communication requires a donor and a recipient at each stage; thus, the characteristics, preferences, and particularities should be fully understood in order to form the most appropriate message and image.

CONCLUSION

The world has already become highly interconnected through "flows of information, resources, goods and services, people and ideas, and this implies that changes occurring in one part of the world are likely to have a ripple effect on others" (Europe Environmental Agency, 2020). In the new technological era, image and branding are expected to continue to play a critical role in the awareness and construction of strong images and identities, for countries and for nations. The megatrends that are expected to have an influence around the globe, including nation branding, can be summarized as follows (PWC, 2016):

- Demographic Shifts and an Aging World: High population growth in several areas versus declines in others affect everything from shifts in economic power to resource scarcity and changes in societal norms. Finding new education and employment opportunities is a critical question to address, and further research is required.
- Labor Market Shifts: Increasing automation will affect the global workforce, as 14% of the current global workforce is estimated to be impacted by 2030. Skills mismatch refers to the gap between what employers demand versus what education provides.
- Rapid Urbanization: People in search of jobs and career advancement will shift toward cities. UNESCO predicts that, by 2030, nearly 5 billion (61%) of the world's 8.1 billion people will live in cities, while by 2050, the world's urban population will have increased by some 44%.
- Immigration: As immigration continues to increase, more barriers to mobility to high-income destinations will be applied, while national policies regarding immigration are getting stricter, particularly affecting those who intend to move to high-income countries.
- Economic Shifts: A realignment of global business activity is transitioning BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India, and China) and other countries from centers of labor and production to consumption-oriented economies. There has been a dependence on emerging markets for economic growth, with a high increase in the number of middle-class citizens over the past 20 years in regions such as

BRIC countries. Demand in emerging economies versus supply in developed economies creates a discrepancy between supply and demand when it comes to talent.

- Technology and the Internet of Things (IoT): Breakthroughs in disciplines such as artificial intelligence, nanotechnology, and other frontiers of R&D are increasing productive potential and opening up new investment opportunities.

In terms of geopolitics and international relations, the world will continue to be multi-polar, thus more risk and uncertainty will be the main components of policies and societies. The US competes against not only Russia but also other actors, such as China and the EU.

Branding is only one of the available categories of a marketing strategy. Nation branding is workable and successful in terms of what it is expected to contribute only if other national factors are aligned in the same direction, toward a common vision. According to Bhardwaj (2019), branding "is not a mere term; it is a philosophy that influences a great number of target customers and when it comes to calling a nation, a Brand, the effect is massive as compared to a product or service as a Brand" (p. 11). Likewise, van Ham (2001) indicates that the modern world of international relations and geopolitics has been gradually shifting to the post-modern world of images and influences. Thus, it is clearly understood that nation branding can further evolve and be used by governments and related stakeholders, as the power of the image and identity can be a multiplying factor for a nation's competitiveness in the global arena.

In general, it would be useful to distinguish between long-term and short-term options that a nation and/or a country can consider. For that, there is a detailed roadmap with some basic guidelines, however, this is not an exhaustive list:

- **Short and Medium Term:**
    1. "Dream" a proper vision for the nation. As already indicated, this is strongly related to the leadership of the nation.
    2. Design and implement the right communication strategy so that nation branding can then be designed and further specified to contribute to the nation's vision.
    3. Different policies for each PEST-HC category need to be designed by the state and the involved partners. For that, the role of government is very important; making the right decisions and avoiding any obstacles raised by any stakeholder/group is imperative.
    4. The government and authorities need to intervene in state and local regulations to make sure that the milestones set are in line with prevailing global conditions.
    5. Reorganize the structure and necessity for autonomous nation-branding planning and nation-branding division at a higher hierarchical level. Responsibilities and authorization should be not be scattered, but need to be solid and concentrated to one place, division, team, or person.
    6. With a group of experts who are knowledgeable and aware of nation-branding-related issues, train policymakers and make them familiar with experts in nation-branding areas so they can cope with any plan needed.
    7. Build an effective response network with officers; it is imperative that any effort to hand emergency plans down from the top without developing a base of local support will deteriorate. Any such network should involve effective state and local officers for dealing with nation-branding problems, and it is as vital to the nation's security as a new missile system.
- **Long-Term:**

1. Develop and implement a nation-branding doctrine, which is seen as necessary for the future, that is aligned with the vision for the nation and/or the country.
2. A comprehensive policy on different sectors must be developed.
3. Lead and establish an industry related to the IoT that can eventually deal with the fourth industrial revolution that is expected to seriously affect almost all sectors and industries, including culture.

There are also several obstacles to an effective and successful nation branding approach, such as:

- Different economic interests of producing vs. consuming nation-states.
- Conflicts between stakeholders.
- Policy differences within the same sector of each industry.
- Conflicts over the allocation of budgets and resources.
- Other economic interests.
- Competing institutional and industrial interests.
- Policymakers and government officials involved in nation-branding planning may not have the same clear support of their supervisors and authorities, nor are they free to operate in secrecy. They have to work out energy problems in the context of international obligations and other regulations that did not previously exist.

Turkey must revisit its vision and targets and redesign its strategies to come closer to the main scope. For that, a rebranding of the nation might be a requirement for which all the related parameters need to be examined and considered. As nation branding is a very serious and critical matter, it goes without saying that the correct and qualified people should be involved in all stages: analysis, design, execution, and monitoring. In this rapidly changing environment, Turkey seems to be exercising both the harsh form of power it possesses—being a military-occupied country with foreign military interventions in other countries in the wider region—as well as forms of soft power. Among the latter, significant weight seems to have been given to the case of nation branding. The multiple characteristics that seem to make up the concept of a national brand enable a multilevel strategy of promoting the nation in the international arena that will ultimately aim to strengthen and defend the national interests of the country and Turkish citizens everywhere. Geography and history are significantly linked, giving the nation its required resources to use and on which to build. However, continuous efforts need to be made to further cultivate its image.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Aim: A desired outcome that needs to be met.

Culture: Beliefs, ideas, habits, and behaviors of a group or society that have been created .

Leader: A person that can shape a new story for the nation and motivate others to perform at their best in order to achieve high levels of efficiency for the common aim.

Nation Branding: Nation state's efforts to promote the nation internationally by using proper means and techniques in order to maximize the benefits that the nation state can get back.

Stakeholder: A person, a group or organization with an interest or concern in a particular case.

Strategy: An action plan in order to achieve a valuable target that was set by taking into consideration both internal resources and external factors.

Vision: A dream that can capture the future and make it more visible to follow it.

ENDNOTES

1 The Diyanel Isleri Baskanligi (DIB) is the Turkish Ministry of Religious Affairs.

Chapter 4
One Island, Two Nations

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this chapter is to explain the effect of nation branding on destination marketing. The study is looking for an answer to this question, What if two nations live in a destination, how should the destination marketing be with the effect of nation branding? For this purpose, in the study, Gökçeada (Imbros) where Turkish and Greek people have lived together for many years, an island, will be an example to the whole world is included. In the literature research about nation branding, there is no study on the marketing of destinations where two or more nations live together. Therefore, this study will be the first study in this field in the world. It is also believed that this study will help other destinations similar to Gökçeada (Imbros) to determine their marketing strategies.

INTRODUCTION

According to the American Marketing Association (AMA); "A brand is a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or service as distinct from those of other sellers" (www.ama.org). As it can be understood from the definition brand is term which identifies and differentiates itself from competitors with the features it has (Rojas-Méndez, 2013).

The first stage in the brand building process is to find out what consumers know about the brand and what it represents. If the current situation and the position of the brand is unknown, it will not be known that how it will be brought to the position it should be. The brand should be considered as an investment for the future. Because while a brand is being created, a long-time value is created in people's mind (Karabulut, 2018).

Cities, destinations, nations and countries can become brands just like goods, services and corporations. Branding is a holistic progress that affects a whole place (Rainisto, 2003). Based on their unique identities, many countries have branded consciously and systematically for centuries (Giannopoulos et al., 2011).

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During branding process companies and countries show parallelism with each other. While companies have logos, jargons, culture and employees, countries have flag, languages, culture and citizens. But the concept of nation brand is much more controversial and complex than the conceprt of corporation brand. Controversy originates from the conflicting perspectives and ideas due to the strong influence of countires' public and international relation policies. Complexity originates from multiple levels, dimesions and disciplines which contribute to nation branding that goes beyond traditional products and corporate branding. Complexity is distinct. Because countries have population, history, foreign customers, visitors and investors as well as their physical characteristics (Rojas-Méndez, 2013).

Countires should attach importance to nation branding in order to become prominent at international level. Unless a country represents something special and different, that country has little chance of competing with other countries successfully (Giannopoulos et al., 2011).

Branding is also important in terms of destination marketing. Morgan and Pitchard (2000), stated that campaigning for tourists in tourism market would be based on hearts and minds instead of excessive prices and branding would be the key to the success. Just as customers show more interest and trust in branded products, interest in branded nations is more intense than in non-branded nations. The success of the countries that manage a correct branding process, increases significantly in destination marketing.

This section, in which the relationship between nation branding and destination marketing is described is designed as below. First, the concepts of nation brand and nation branding are explained. Then destination marketing is mentioned. Finally, a case study about the subject is included. The subject of the case study is Gökçeada (Imbros) which is a binational island.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Natıon Brand

The word nation is derived from the Latin word "natio" and means "people". It refers to a tribe with a common origin, language and traditions (Viktorin et al., 2018). Nations are real or imagined social structures that contain people coexisting with a collective sense of national identity (Rojas-Méndez, 2013).

Studies on the branding of nations began to emerge in the late 1990s. Kotler, SomkidJatusripitak and SuvitMaeforee published a book called "The Marketing of Nations" in 1997 (Viktorin et al., 2018). Later, Anholt mentioned nationbranding in his work in 1998 for the first time (Nguyen&ÖzçaglarToulouse, 2021). In his work, Anholt coined the termination brand in order to measure and increase the reputation of a country by focusing on different characteristics and examined how a nation created its own brand (Anholt, 1998; Viktorin et al., 2018).

Today, differences of opinion arise in determining the scope of the nation brand. The concepts of nation brand and destination brand, place brand and country brand are confused. There is even a lack of a common definition of what nation branding means. In the literature, the terms "nation" and "country" are often used interchangeably, although they are different (Fan, 2006; Hao et al., 2019). Nation branding helps a state protect its national business activities, increase the value of national brands, raise the living standards of its citizens and increase national welfare. These economy-based goals are characteristics that are similar to nation branding and place branding. However, unlike place branding, which prioritizes the import of foreign economic assets (tourists, factories, skilled workers, etc.), nation branding also targets the export of domestic tangible and intangible goods and services. Nation branding also differs from place marketing in its need to take political activities into account (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002; Gudjonsson 2005; Rodner & Kerrigan, 2018; Nguyen & Özçaglar Toulouse, 2021).

When the definitions on nation branding are examined, issues such as the renewal of national identities, the development of national competition, the acquisition and protection of economic and cultural benefits at domestic and abroad, the development and enrichment of national image and reputation come to the feature. The purpose of nation branding is the positive change of nations' attitudes, behaviors, nation images and national identities by using branding techniques (Karabulut, 2018).

States aim to achieve political, economic and cultural successes by nation branding activities. Some of the reasons for the increased interest in the concept of Nationbrand; can be counted as attracting limited international foreign resources in order to increase a country's product exports, enabling foreign tourists to visit, increasing foreign direct investments and enabling more foreign students to enroll in schools. These factors also affect the intense competition between countries (Rojas-Méndez, 2013; Balçıner, 2019). By nation brand activities, countries, aim to create a positive image, strengthen and develop it, eliminate negative images, establish and maintain good relations with foreign states, increase dignity and reputation, and create climates that will facilitate the achievement of political, economic and cultural goals (Köksoy, 2015: 50). National branding creates a sustainable advantage that challenges to existing or pre-existing national or regional stereotypes. In this context, nationbrand identity should be handled with a strategic approach that will effectively communicate with various target audience / stakeholder groups in a way that creates positive perceptions (Hassan & Mahrous 2019).

A nationbrand, representsand encompasses a wide variety of factors and relationships rather than offering a tangible productor service (Fan, 2006):

- Place-geography, naturalresources, touristattractions
- People – race, ethnicgroups
- History
- Culture
- Language
- Politicalandeconomicsystems
- Socialinstitutions
- Infrastructure
- Famouspeople
- Picture orimage

There are six dimensions that measure the strength and quality of each country's brand image. These dimensions, which are tourism, exports, governance, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, people, are shown in Figure 1 under the name of "the nation brand hexagon". These six dimensions are defined as the sum of people's perceptions about a country in the field of national qualification.

Tourism is the most visible aspect of a country's brand. It is also the largest spending tool and the most competent marketing power. The level of interest in visiting a country, the attractiveness of natural and man-made tourist attractions are related to tourism. The touristic idea of the nation creates a visual image that can influence many other areas of the country's performance. For example, foreign investors may be affected by the countries' tourism image in country choices.

Exports express the public image of products and services from each country and the extent of which consumers seek or avoid of products from each country. In developing countries, products and services

Figure 1. TheNationBrandHexagon
Source: Anholt, (2005)

are often exported as unbranded. This situation shows that the brand's significant potential is not being used for increased market value through the intellectual property. Governments that succeed creating an environment that supports and encourages innovation, creativity and the continuous development of new intellectual property will likely achieve a highly profitable export sector that adds value to the nationalbrand. A strong, distinctive, broad-based and attractive nationalbrand is the most valuable gift that a government can give to its exporters. For example, the influence of "made in Japan" for electronic products or "made in Italy" for fashion is quite high. In today's international trade world, branded export form is one of the most powerful ways to create and maintain a national image.

Governance expresses the public's view about the competence and impartiality of the national government, as well as its stance on global issues such as peace and security, justice, poverty and the environment. Places are judged by the role played by their leaders in the external and internal affairs. Unlike intellectual property policy, "political intellectual property" is another factor that contributes to the nationalbrand. The political intellectual property is the reputation that a country's government has gained for the purpose of creating its own, unique and innovative policy in both domestic and international relations. Because of various reasons, the political intellectual property is one of the most difficult elements of the country's intellectual capital to control, but it has a strong influence on other parts of the hexagon.

Investment and immigration refers to the power to attract people to live, work or study in each country and how people perceive the quality of life and work environment of a country. Because of being as magnets for talent, investment and business ventures, some places grew rapidly in the last century. A reputation for abundant intellectual capital always attracts more and creates a fertile cycle for increased quality and innovation. A strong and consistent nationbrand can help to create positive choices and get on the right lists.

Culture and heritage expresses global perceptions of the heritage of each country and the appreciation of its contemporary culture, including film, music, art, sports and literature. The intellectual capital of the country's heritage, history, culture, and geography is generally well known, but it is channeled into added value for salable assets inefficiently or inadequately. Places that consider growth as a purely economic issue risk developing a two-dimensional brand image that only attracts investors, taxexiles, and money speculators.

People expresses the reputation of the population's other qualities such as openness and friendliness and tolerance. A truly positive change can happen when every ordinary citizen treats as a passionate team ambassador for their home town or city. The nation's human capital is truly the main source of the country's intangible value; People's skills, abilities, values and behaviors are its primary source.

It can be said that corporate branding is the closest branding type to nation branding. The parallelism between corporate branding and nation branding lie in the complex, multi dimensional nature of corporate / nation existence and also in themulti-stakeholder groups that must be recognized by both companies and nations. However, besides these similarities, there are also differences. Table 1 shows the differences between nation brand and corporate brand.

Table 1. Differences between Nation Branding and Corporate Branding

Elements	Nation brand	Corporate brand
Offer	Nothing on offer	Related to the product / sector
Attributes	Too complicated to define in simple terms	Well defined
Benefits	Purely emotional	Mainly emotional
Image	Complicated, diverse and vague	Simple and visible or hidden
Association	Secondary, numerous and diverse	Mainly secondary, fewer and specific
Purpose	To enhance the national reputation	To enhance the reputation and develop Relationships
Dimension	Political, economic, social and cultural	Economic and social
Ownership	Multiple stakeholders unclear	Sole owner
Audience	International, diverse and "significant others"	The general public or targeted

Source: Hassan&Mahrous (2019).

Like any brand, nations have their own individual identities; No country is a like (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003). One of the most important sources of nation branding is national identity and at the same time, the nation identity is represented internationally through the nation brand. Although national identity includes "the demand of certain ethnic / cultural groups in a certain geography to reveal their differences from other groups", it is a form of identity that finds its subject in the nation, its ideology in nationalism and its social organization in the national state". National identity is at the core of nation branding (Özüdoğru & Yüksel, 2019). A nation's brand identity is based on the nation's people, beliefs, and history (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003; Giannopoulos et al., 2011).

Nation branding is based on a nation's positioning itself in a different place compared to other nations, emphasizing the national image. Therefore, the national image is defined by the foreign public and their perception is mostly affected by prejudices, stereotypes, media contents and personal experiences. Therefore, media plays an important role in nation branding (Karabulut, 2018).

Countries that can manage the nation branding process well can obtain soft power and they can execute the policies they want to follow without resorting to hard power (military and economic power).

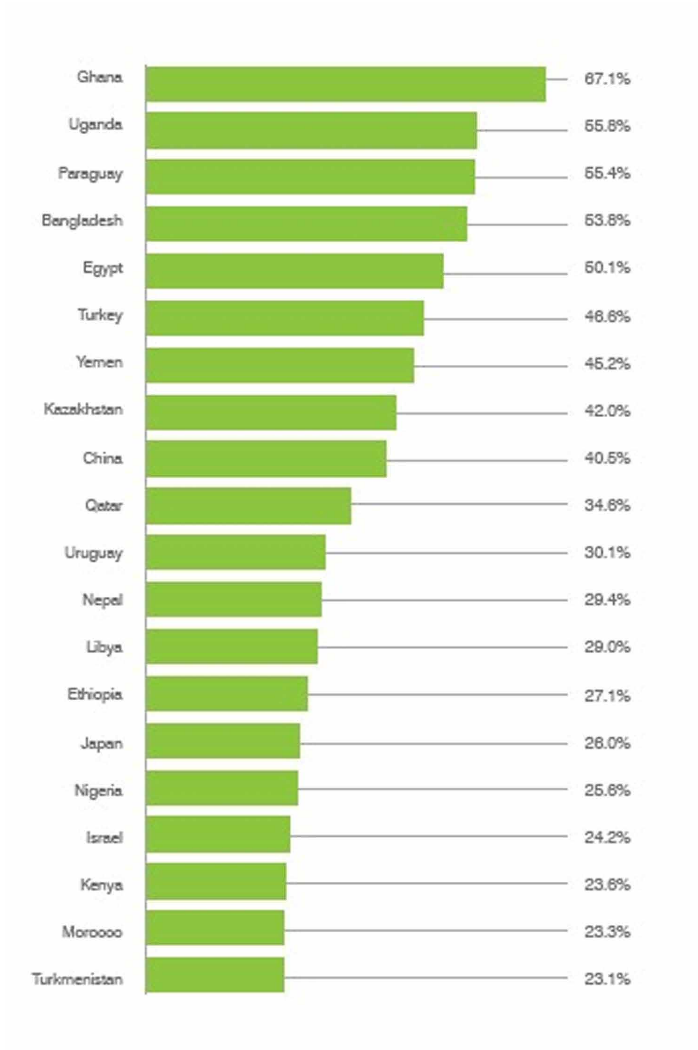
For this reason, all activities carried out for the purpose of nationbranding should be directed and managed in a coordinated manner within theframework of certain techniques and methods (Balçıner, 2019).

The results of Brand Finance's research on nation brands in 2019 are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3. Figure 2 includes the most valuable nation brands of 2019, and Figure 3 includes the 20 fastest growing nationbrands.

Figure 2. Top 10 Most Valuable Nation Brands in 2019
Source: Brand Finance Nation Brands (2019).

According to the report, in developing countries' national brand value increased 30 times faster than developed countries'. While the annual average national brand value increase among the world's most valuable 100 nation brands is at level of 0.4% for developed countries, it has been determined as 13.9%

Figure 3. Top 20 Fatest GrowingBrands (Value %) in 2019
Source: Brand Finance Nation Brands (2019).



among developing countries. This means that the national brands of developing economies grow on average 31.3 times faster than the national brands of the developed ones.

DESTINATION MARKETING

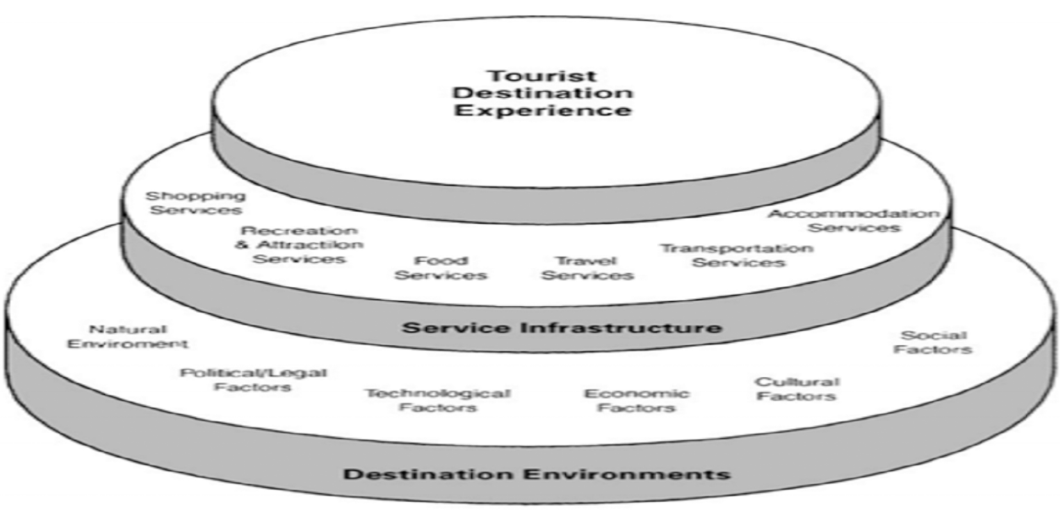
A destination can be a single location, several locations as part of a tour, or even a destination that moves like a cruiseship (Holloway, 1989).

Destinations are often promoted by highlighting primary characteristics such as climate, landscape and culture, and secondary factors such as accommodation, transportation or events (van der Veen, 2008).

Destination characteristics that contribute to a tourist's visit to touristic destinations can be classified in six groups (Buhalis, 2000; Kutvan & Kutvan, 2013; Ünsal, 2020):

- **Attractions** include man-made products, cultural heritage, architecture, special events. Attraction refer to the basic richness and assets of the destination. Attractions are classified as; features within the natural environment such as air, sea, nationalparks; buildings which were not built for touristic purposes such as palaces, ancient cities, and parliament buildings; structures built for touristic purposes such as theme parks, museums; socio-cultural and political richness such as lifestyle, traditions, political management style and special events such as carnivals, festivals and fairs.
- **Accessibility** contains transportation system, vehicles, terminals etc.i Fast, safe, comfortable, economical and alternative transportation networks and vehicle alternatives increase the preference of the destination. Having unlimited attractions is not enough for a destination to be preferred by tourists. Besides the attractions, it must also have accessibility. Otherwise, it will be impossible for the destinations to get the demand they want.
- **Amenities** includes services as catering, accommodation, intermediaries, etc.. In addition to attractiveness and accessibility, destinations should have accommodation, food and beverage businesses, car rental businesses, entertainment, health and other tourist facilities to meet the demands of tourists.
- **Available Packages** mean the tours planned beforehand by tour operators, tourist guides etc. Tours which are planned by travel agents allow tourists to travel to the destination with less cost and effort such as destination tours, sightseeing tours, dailytours, etc.
- **Activities** are all activities that affect the tourists' preferences before the visit and make them have a pleasant time during their visit.
- **Ancillary Services** refers to the communication tools and services that tourists may need during their stay at the destination, such as health, banking, currency exchange, internet and telephone.

Figure 4. A conceptual model of the destination
Source: Murphy, Pritchard & Smith (2000).



Murphy et al. (2000) state that the destination as a product consists of three main parts. These items are destination enviroments, service infrastructure and tourist destination experience. Destination environments includes natural environment, political / legal factors, technological factors, economic factors, cultural factors and social factors. Destination environments provide a perception about the destination. Service infrastructure consists of shopping service, recreation & attraction services, food services, travel services, transportation services and accommodation services. As it is seen, service infrastructure includes the goods and services purchased by tourists during their stay in a destination. Each moment experienced in the destination enviroments and service infrastructure causes the tourist to comment on the overall quality of travel. The more positive these encounters are, the stronger the sense of quality. As a result of the destination enviroments and service infrastructure, a tourist destination experience occurs.

Today, marketing of an entire country as a single destination or as a single tourist product is not preferred. Because the risk of this situation is high and the resources cannot be used efficiently. Instead, a marketing idea based on certain regions and cities of the countries has been adopted (Kavacık et al., 2012; Çakır, 2020).

There are some factors to be taken into consideration for a successful destination marketing (Yüncü, 2015; Çakır, 2020):

- It is necessary to create the right service and feature mix for destination marketing.
- An attractive image must be created for the target market.
- Goods and services should be presented in a way that is accessible to tourists.
- Effective promotion activities should be carried out to create the destination value and image and to make potential visitors aware of the distinct advantages of the destination.

Touristic products are the products that are consumed as soon as they are produced. With this feature, they differ from tangible goods. Because of being described as touristic products, destinations are intangible products that are consumed as soon as they are produced. For this reason, an experience that does not exist, is sold in destination marketing. Therefore, marketing plays a very important role in tourism to convey the uniqueness and image of the destination to the consumer (van der Veen, 2008).

Destination Marketing Components

The tough competition environment in the tourism sector does not only affect touristic products or facilities. Destinations also compete in a tough competition process to attract more tourists (especially selective tourists) and to be preferred more. In addition to this, it is a fact that new destinations, like new products, are entering the market rapidly and existing destinations are strengthening their competitive structures with new strategies. In order to come out of this tough competitive environment successfully, destinations must focus on marketing efforts. Three important issues should not be overlooked in order to be successful in the marketing activities of a destination; destination positioning, destination image and destination branding.

Destination Positioning is trying to imprint the brand on the minds of customers (Dinnie, 2016). Destination positioning is the most critical element of all future endeavors of a region for its tourist attraction and economic development. With destination positioning, tourists can distinguish the destination from other destinations, so the customers can choose the most attractive one. Therefore, correct positioning distinguishes a destination from competing destinations in terms of attributes that are meaningful to customers and gives that destination a competitive advantage. For a destination to be successful, it must be positioned in the mind of the consumer by revealing the perception of the consumer (Saqib, 2019).

These steps must be followed when positioning a destination (Anderson&Venicze, 2000):

- Determining the target markets
- Determining the special requests and needs of customers (visitors / tourists) in the target market
- Analyzing the qualities and perceived images of current and potential competitors in the target market segment
- Comparison of the location of the destination and its competitors' location based on each metric preferred by customers (visitors / tourists)
- Determination of a single location for the target market that offers a combination of benefits not provided by competitors
- Establishing a marketing program to convince customers (visitors / tourists) to choose the destinations
- Continuing to evaluate existing and potential target markets and competitors to continue the marketing studies

Destination marketers should not think that any positioning will exist forever. Consumers, technology, economy, competitors, in short, as conditions change, destinations should also renew their positioning (Kotler, 2005).

Destination Image, is a destination marketing component that has a strong impact on tourist behavior. Destination marketers provide sustainable tourism demand for the destination by impressing potential tourists with their destination image. Destination image is the impression represented in a tourist's mind as a result of perceived characteristics associated with a destination (Wang & Hsu, 2010; Griffin et al., 2017). The sum of the beliefs, ideas, impressions and expectations that a tourist has about a destination creates the destination image (Ecthner & Ritchie, 1993). Previous experience and visits are important in the formation of a destination image. However, it is not enough. In addition to previous experiences and visits, advertising and promotions about the destination, travel agencies, airlines, tour operators, news sources, magazines, books, films, e-mail, social media and interviews with people who traveled to the destination or have information about the destination are also effective in creating the destination image. For example, Braveheart movie had a great effect on visiting Scotland as a touristic destination. The number of the visitors to the Wallace Monument increased by 300% after the film was released. Political or military conflicts at the destination or in the region are also effective in building the destination image. Demographic characteristics of tourists such as age, gender, education, socialclass, belief, political opinion and income can also affect the destination image. In addition to these, the motivations of tourists before and after the travel significantly affect the destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Şahbaz & Kılıçlar, 2009; Severt & Hahm, 2020). Destination marketers should give the image they want to visualize in the eyes of the target audience at the right time, in the right place and with the right communication tools (Vatan & Zengin, 2019). Because the destination image has an impact on the pre-travel purchase decision of the tourist. With the destination image, marketers aim to make the tourist realize, choose and travel to that destination. However, the process is not limited to this. Studies on the image of the destination continue during the time that the tourist is at the destination. Because if the tourist is satisfied with the spent time in the destination and his experience, it will cause him to exhibit positive behavior (such as word of mouth) after the trip and to show the intention to visit again (Chen & Tsai, 2007: 1116). Studies show that the destination image separates destinations from each other and is an integral and effective part of the consumer's decision process (van der Veen, 2008).

Destination Branding, like product branding, is the name, slogan, symbol, logo etc. that distinguish it from others.

1. A set of marketing activities that support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word, sign or other graphic that easily identifies and differentiates a target,
2. Consistently conveying the expectation of an unforgettable travel experience uniquely associated with the destination,
3. Serving to rein force and strengthen the emotional bond between the visitor and the destination,
4. Reduce consumer call costs and perceived risk, and

along with all these, it is a set of marketing activities aimed to create an image that affects consumers' decision to visit the aforesaid destination rather than an alternative destination (Richie & Richie, 1998; Blain et al., 2005; Giannopoulos et al., 2011).

While the destination branding activities are being carried out; firstly, brand identity must be created. While creating brand identity; elements such as symbol / logo, slogan, music, colour must be determined.

Symbol / logo, enables a brand to be remembered by the consumer (Palmer, 2004).

A *slogan* is a group of words that define the brand and convince the consumer. It makes easier for the consumer to understand the purpose of the brand. Repeating the same slogan helps the created brand image to settle in the subconscious. Therefore, they have an important place in the branding of destinations (Cop & Çiftçi, 2007; Ural, 2009).

Music consists of repeating slogans and brand names. Portofino, the port city in Italy, where international cultural and artistic events are held with the slogan "Port of Art", has made a great impact all over the world with the song "I found my love in Portofino" and made Portofino a tourism destination (Göret Özdemir, 2013).

Color should be preferred to use a consistent color scheme to aid brand recognition (Cop & Çiftçi, 2007).

CASE STUDY; GÖKÇEADA (IMBROS)

Gökçeada (Imbros), where the world's oldest civilizations reign, is described as the island of Poseidon, the god of the sea, in Homer's Iliad. Gökçeada (Imbros) is a North Aegean island where different cultures, nations and religions meet (Bucak & Turan, 2016). Gokceada is the largest island of Turkey and located in the west of the country. Arrive on the island is provided only by sea. There is an airport but it is not active. Transportation to the island is provided by ferries departing from Kabatepe Port. Although the number of ferry service decreases in the winter months, it increases in the summer months according to the density of the tourists.

There are ten villages on the island. Some of these villages have a Greek population in the majority. Since there is a multicultural structure on the island, there are sanctuaries that belong to different religions. Mosques, churches and monasteries are visited by both members of the congregation and tourists throughout the year. Apart from sanctuaries, rock graves, laundries, Iskiter Castle, Yeni Bademli Tumulus are also places visited by tourists. Gökçeada (Imbros) is an interesting tourist destination with its natural beauties as well as its historical places. Natural beauties such as Salt Lake, Kaşkaval Cape, Marmaros Waterfall are visited by tourists who visit the island. The first and only underwater park of Turkey is in Gökçeada (Imbros). There are underwater cave entrances and rich fish beds in Gökçeada Underwater Park. It is also home to many sea creatures including the Mediterranean Monk Seal (www.gokceada.bel.tr). The island that frequently visited by those who want to camp, is also an important tourist destination for domestic and foreign tourists doing water sports. Aydıncık (Kefalos) Beach, which is a place preferred by Bulgarian surfers, is very popular for windsurfing and kite surfing due to its geographical location due to the heavy winds. Along from surfing, diving is also one of the water sports make intensely on the island.

Gökçeada (Imbros), where the sunsets lastest in Turkey, arouses curiosity in tourists, even with this feature. Due to the characteristics of Gökçeada (Imbros), all tourists don't come to the island for the same purpose. The reasons for tourists to choose the island; surfing, diving in the first and only underwater park in Turkey, regaining health (it is believed that the salt lake heals), having a quiet holiday. However, the only thing they all wondered while coming to the island and even added to their reasons for choosing the island and caused them to leave from the island with admiration is the multicultural structure of the island.

The most important feature of culture is communication. Because cultures can not develop, sustain, expand and be successful without communication (McQuail, 2003; Vatter, 2014). The secret of this multicultural structure on the island for centuries is that the people of two nations living on the island keep in touch with each other and create a common island culture. On the island, where two nations have lived together as a brotherhood for years, the people of both nations respect each other's beliefs, lifestyles, political views, traditions and cultures, and are also influenced by each other. This influence has created a common island culture.

Because of having similar life styles and living on the same island, two nations' common values come to forefront. For example, "mastic-gum pudding" is served in almost every cafe (whether it is a Turkish or a Greek owner) on the island. Because this dessert has an important place in the cuisine of both countries and this common product is sold as the traditional product of the island. Similarly, appetizers sold in restaurants are a mixture of two cultures. For example, along with many appetizers from Anatolia, "saganaki - σαγανάκι" which was brought from Greece is served as an appetizer in many restaurants. Coffee is indispensable for both nations. In addition to "Turkish Coffe", "Frappe", which is important part for Greek cuisine, is another product sold in cafes on the island. Even Greek islanders continue their habits in Greece and in the island and gather in the cafes in the square of the island in the mornings and enjoy their coffee. This common lifestyle was built centuries ago.

Another island product that tourists coming to Gökçeada (Imbros) hear before coming to the island is "efibadem kurabiyesi - efialmond cookie". This cookie is sold in a patisserie run by a Turkish islander on the island. The patisserie owner told that he loved the almond cookie made by his Greek neighbors when he was a child, and when he opened the patisserie years later, he learned how to make this cookie from a Greek woman named Efterpi. Thus, the name of the cookie emerged. The bakery owner named the cookie Efi in order to keep the memory of Madame Efi. He added the word almond to indicate that the cookie made by almond. A product belonging to Gökçeada (Imbros) has emerged; Efibadem Kurabiyesi-Efialmond Cookie. The story of Efibadem cookie is like a proof of how the lives of two nations are intertwined (www.hurriyet.com.tr).

Some of the comments made by some tourists who are satisfied with their visit to Gökçeada (Imbros) on Tripadvisor are given below. As seen in the comments, the multicultural structure of the island affects the tourists.

15 September 2020;

It is a very nice place run by Greekladies. As a different flavor, Thessaloniki dessert can be eaten.

18 September 2020;

We couldn't bypass Stenada on all three of our 3-day vacation. We loved the yoghurt dessert called Gliki. Also, their liqueurs and Turkish coffee with mastic was very good. The owners are very courteous and hospitable people. They shared good information and old memories about Bademli with us. We will definitely come again on our next visit.

25 September 2020;

You can feel yourself in a Greek Tavern in the village square on any Greek island. It has been run by the same family members for several generations. When the music becomes sirtaki and rum melodies, ambiance is completed immediately. Teas and desserts are from the village cafe next door. There, the dessert called Tepeköy Tatlısı (it means "glactobureko"), which resembles laz böreği in essence, was delicious.

The dessert mentioned in this review is a Greek dessert "galactobureko". In Turkish cuisine, this dessert is known as "laz böreği" with very little changes. The village cafe mentioned in the comment belongs to a Greek islander. While tea is indispensable for Turks, it is a beverage that Greeks do not drink in daily life. However, it is seen in the comment that a Greek person, who owned the village cafe, serves tea.

Common culture has affected not only the cuisine. In some parts of the island (especially in villages where Greeks live), there are structures called "çamaşırhane - laundry". These laundries, called "yunak" in Anatolia, have been used by the people of both nations for years. Today laundries are on the routes of the tourists who come to the island.

There are important days for both nations living on the island. Turkish and Greek islanders celebrate their own national and religious fesativals on the island.Greek islanders celebrate "Virgin Mary Fair" on 14-15 August every year. Especially on thisdate, tourists from both nations flock to the island. Egg painting events are held together with Turks and Greeks on Easter. Similarly, religious holidays of Turkish - Muslim people are celebrated by Greek people. During Ramadan, Greek people show respect Turkish - Muslim people who fast.

In a study by the author of this chapter and friends (Bil, Ergan &Kandur, 2021), asked some questions to tourists coming to Gökçeada (Imbros) about the island. One of them was "can you specify the touristic features you think are specific to only Gökçeada (Imbros)?". According to the answers given to the question, most of the respondents answered in the form of Greek villages, and then the clean and beautiful sea, goat sand Greek houses. An other question was "what features of the island come to your mind when you think of Gökçeada (Imbros) as a holiday destination?". The answers to this question were respectively sea and bays, calmness of the island, natural beauties and Greek villages (since the study is in the printing phase, the source could not be provided).

Figure 5. "çamaşırhane-laundry" in Gökçeada (Imbros)
Source: www.gokceada17.com

The combination of the hospitable and tolerant structure of Turks and the nation brand based on Anatolian culture and the nation brand built on the unique culture of the Greeks from prehistoric times has created a destination that should be visited.

Figure 6. Virgin Mary Fair, Tepeköy, Gökçeada (Imbros)
Source: www.gokceadarehberim.com

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study examines the effect of nation branding on destination marketing. In the study, an island where two nations live together was chosen as a case study. In this respect, it differs from other studies on nation branding. It is thought that this case study will provide a different perspective and a guide for researchers who will research nation branding. Similar studies can be carried out on destinations that contain more than one nation, such as the island examined in this study in the future. Even in these studies, qualitative and quantitative data collection methods can be studied on subjects other than destination marketing (marketing of touristic products, destination brand image, marketing of gastronomic products, etc.). It is thought that studies such as questionnaires, interviews and focus group studies with tourists, local people, tour operators, hotel managers, etc. will contribute to the literature. In this context, it is hoped that this study will provide a resource for future studies and contribute to the literature.

CONCLUSION

The competitive in tourism sector, which is already difficult with the effect of globalization and developments in the digital age, has become much more difficult with COVID-19. One of the most determining factors when choosing a destination for tourists is interesting features of that destination. Climate, geographical features, activities are also important when choosing a destination. Today there are many similar destinations. For this reason, the assets owned by the destinations which cannot be copied by the competitors should be brought to forefront in marketing studies. For this purpose, promotion efforts should be focused on nationally and internationally. For example, social media channels brought by the digital age should be used actively.

Destinations must position correctly and create a correct brand image while conducting their marketing activities. For this purpose, they should reveal their different features from other destinations. For example, the cultural assets they own. The disappearance of the borders and globalization have made it easier for people to move and live in different geographies. Now, settlements have become places where people from different countries live together. Generally, people who have settled from one country to another adopt a new way of life by adapting to the new culture and lifestyle. On the other hand, some people who belongs to closed societies, establish small neighbourhoods in the cities they have settled and continue their own lifestyles with people from their own nationalities. As in the example of Gökçeada (Imbros), there are few places where the lifestyles of both cultures form a single culture without changing the lifestyles of their nations. Gökçeada (Imbros) is an important example in terms of nation branding and destination marketing. Because people of a different nation living on an island in the Republic of Turkey can continue their lives as they live in their own countries. Acting with this awareness, the people of the island, build the touristic businesses they have established on the island based on this culture. In particular, this is the travel motivation of most Turkish tourists. In the branding process of Turkish and Greek nations, the island example is important for both nations. Turkish state should use the example of Gökçeada (Imbros) in its nation branding studies to show that it is a peaceful and tranquil country that different nations also maintain their lifestyles and cultures in theselands. On the other hand, Greek state, can carry out a nation branding project based on Greek culture which is strong and unique that continues in other countries.

Gökçeada (Imbros) is one of the rare destinations in the world with its bi-national culture that few destinations can have. Although it use this feature in domestic tourism promotions, unfortunately, it can not be introduced much in the field of international tourism. This island culture, which is generally known by local tourists and Greeks whose roots are based on the island, should be introduced in wider area. In this regard, both Turkish and Greek islanders, state institutions, universities, non-governmental organizations should organize joint activities and design projects. Friendly soccer matches, exhibitions etc. between Turkish and Greek islanders living on the island have been organized for years. However, these are not enough. More comprehensive studies should be conducted on this issue. For example, promotional campaigns can be organized with famous people of each nation, who are from Gökçeada (Imbros) in both countries. The island can be mentioned in the promotional campaigns of Turkey for different countires. Both nations have deep-rooted histories. Anatolian and Greek cultures are famous all around the world and have pioneered many civilizations and inspired many artists and scientists. These two nations, which have shared a common fate in the same geography for centuries and have become worldwide brands today, should bring this situation to the fore in the international marketing of Gökçeada (Imbros) as a tourism destination.

The correct and successful nation branding studies and strategies of the countries will bring them success in many areas. For example, they will make significant gains in the tourism sector, which is one of the important sources of income for countries. Just like the trust in branded products, there is trust in branded nations. Branded nations are wondered much more by the people of other nations and as a result they attract more visitors.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Binational: With two nations.

Destination: Place of arrival that has opportunity of accessibility, includes natural and cultural attractions and touristical products.

Destination Brand: It is the name, symbol, design, or combination of these that defines the destination and differentiates it from competing destinations.

Destination Image: The sum of the ideas, thoughts, and feelings that tourists associate with the destination.

Destination Marketing: Destination marketing is the marketing activities carried out to promote the destination in national and international areas, to create a positive image in the target audience, to brand the destination and to gain an advantage over its competitors.

Destination Positioning: Destination Positioning is being imprinted on the customers' mind.

Nation Brand: All perceptions about a nation formed in the minds of international stakeholders.

Nation Brand Hexagon: A hexagon consisting of six dimensions (tourism, exports, governance, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, people) that measures the strength and quality of a country's brand image.

Chapter 5
Nation Branding, in What Context?
Spatial Competitiveness and Attractiveness

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ABSTRACT

This chapter examines the conceptual evolution of national identity and specificity creation and promotion (nation branding), combining it with theoretical background and developments in the concept of competitiveness and attractiveness and suggesting a new interpretive framework for understanding nation branding policy and strategy. The chapter is divided into specific elliptical steps, with the first one concerning the critical overview of nation branding recent literature, developed towards understanding the main research directions related to competitiveness. Competitiveness and attractiveness are then presented as a dynamic and undivided diptych, which cannot be exhausted in fragmented nation-centric approaches but arises through dynamic processes at the co-evolving levels of spaces, industries, and firms. In conclusion, a systemic contour for understanding space is composed and suggested as a multi-layered continuum, called the "cone of entrepreneurial and innovational dynamics," which can be the substantial basis for articulating an integrated nation branding policy.

INTRODUCTION

The study of the development of national identity gradually becomes a field of diffusion of marketing concepts and practices in national economic policies, mainly from a socio-cultural perspective, capable of leading to subtle changes in all correlations concerned and functioning most often as a tool of soft

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power and promotion of national image and interests (Melissen, 2005; Nye, 1990; Pistikou, 2018). These slender adaptations occur because the receivers of these messages of the ensued nation-promotion strategy take as added value the specific culture of the nation they "buy into." It should be noted that brand-building processes require long-lasting adherence since, in the short run, only a little payoff may materialize (Masouras, Komodromos, & Papademetriou, 2019; O'Shaughnessy & Jackson, 2000; Siakalli & Masouras, 2020; Sophocleous, Masouras, & Papademetriou, 2019). To this end, nations need to incorporate an integrated strategic perspective when formulating the nation-brand instead of targeting and supporting ephemeral and meteoric advertising campaigns (Morgan, Pride, & Pritchard, 2002).

Moreover, any typical overview of the terminology followed by theorists and advocates of nation branding, a concept which has prevailed for the development of such nationwide marketing strategies of a country's identity, reveals a relative inadequacy in examining the dimensions relating to the competitiveness of industries and firms other than nations, as well as the corresponding co-produced and co-evolving dynamics of attractiveness. As examined in the subsequent literature review section, that nation branding marketers seem to often treat the national socio-economic system as a "canned" product, excluded from globalization's dynamics. However, from an overarching perspective and via available data, it becomes clear that the current phase of globalization does not lead to the definitive homogenization of the different societies of the planet that is eliminating all their socio-cultural specificities (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Vlados, Deniozos, & Chatzinikolaou, 2018). Globalization does not come to impose a complete cultural and ideological homogenization of all societies and, in this way, the "end of history" (Fukuyama, 1992). On the contrary, it reproduces heterogeneity incessantly, which leads to increased differentiation and allows various local idiosyncrasies to coexist and co-evolve (linguistic, cultural, merit-based, symbolic). Therefore, contemporary global dynamics seem to make up the actual context for integrating the nation branding concept.

With this as a given, this research focuses on the following three theoretical considerations, which reflect the upcoming three sub-sections of the study. Overall, the purpose of this chapter is to distinguish the conceptual evolution of nation branding, to combine it with the study of competitiveness and attractiveness and to arrive at a new theoretical framework for the conception of national economic policy and strategy through an introductory overview of the relevant literature. The questions that will be addressed are the following:

1. What is the recent evolution of nation branding's concept, in what theories it is based on, and why does it matter?
2. If it is significant to understand how nations "self-advertise," then why do the dimensions and scientific documentation of competitiveness (especially an approach that does not just focus on the nation's perspective and side) seem to remain quite under-exploited?
3. If attractiveness is the other side of the same coin of any space's or actor's socio-economic development with competitiveness, what could be a new theoretical framework within which modern nation branding can function to articulate such a strategy?

NATION BRANDING: A LONG HISTORY OF SUBCUTANEOUS STIMULATION OF NATIONAL COMPETITIVENESS?

The concept of a successful "brand" began to take shape mainly in the 1990s, attempting to systematize the idea that the name, symbols, design and other "visual" dimensions that lead the prospective buyers to recognize a product is a process that drives the creation of a sustainable differential advantage for the entire organization (Baker, 1992). In addition to the producer's perspective, the concept of a successful brand also concerns that of the consumer since an organization's symbolic identity combines a set of characteristics and leads to added value in practical, theoretical, and even emotional terms (Lynch & De Chernatony, 2004). In this methodological orientation, the brand is mainly an output that creates a mental vision for current and future recipients of the service and, therefore, marketers should focus on the dimensions that cause this commitment to those who buy into the product (De Chernatony & McDonald, 2003).

In creating a strong brand with vigorous extensions at a cultural and added-value level, nation branding approaches also have appeared, which concern pre-existing stereotypes at the national level imprinted on consumers' beliefs, being therefore institutionally perplexed and present for long historical periods. Significant marketing theorists have analyzed this creation of relatively immutable cultural stereotypes nationwide (Kotler & Keller, 2006; Temporal, 2002). In line with the brand leadership approach, it makes sense that if nations operate within this framework, they need to develop long-term strategies to improve the image and stereotypes that are capable of "selling" mainly to external customers as a lever to raise investment and thus improve their attractiveness (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000).

The foundations of the nation branding field are located mostly in the "Marketing places: Attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states and nations" by Kotler et al. (1993), and in subsequent special issues of scientific journals dedicated to this "sophisticated" scope of national marketing strategy (Lodge, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). Anholt's research (1998, 2007) is also pivotal, leading to a relevant index of how good a nation is (today there are also other corresponding indexes such as the following two that focus on nation branding aspects related to trade and tourism: Bloom Consulting, 2020a, 2020b). According to Olins (2002), the national symbols, names, and other dimensions that make a nation stand out in competition, go quite deep into history, so nation branding is just a modern way of expressing pre-existing trends. A thorough definition that appears from the study of the historical evolution of the concept made by Dinnie (2008, p. 15) is as follows: the nation-brand is "*the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences*."

Two other related concepts that need to be mentioned before analyzing the context in which nation branding theory moves today are public diplomacy and the country-of-origin effect. According to Kerr and Wiseman (2018), nation branding is a form of public diplomacy used to harness significant conceptual content from the science of marketing within states, motivated to enhance national reputation in international relations. At the same time, nation branding also concerns the successful production and export of products and services using the nation's differentiation and diversification, something mentioned in the literature as a country-of-origin effect (Dinnie, 2004; Johnson et al., 2016).

Therefore, nation branding is simultaneously a way to reinforce a state's soft power (Potter, 2008), a geopolitics tool, and an economic and managerial method for improving attractiveness and competitiveness. It revolves around the national context by promoting a specific national "image" and determining whether a country is comparatively more potent in terms of culture, governance, people, exports, tourism, investment, immigration, and other similar directions (Anholt, 2005). Table 1 presents an engaging variety of recent contributions, trying to understand the way scholars approach nation branding as a theoretical notion. For this reason, the first column distinguishes significant definitions, the second introduces elements from relevant research that enrich the related scientific debate, and the third column draws conclusions.

Therefore, nation branding's theory and practice are geared towards strengthening a nation's reputation—seemingly, various nation branding scholars borrow elements from corporate reputation concepts (see, for example, Andrikopoulos & Koronis, 2007). However, most of the time, they do not answer what nation branding implementations structurally stimulate, tending to leave out from the conceptual content and scope the firms' actions within the nation and the co-structured industries and not explicitly referring to both competitiveness and attractiveness enhancement. In this analytical context of the synthetic form of competitiveness and attractiveness, a theoretical misconception and fragmentation of parameters and variables also appear in theorizing competitiveness. In other words, it is common nowadays to treat competitiveness as a macro-target, focusing on the need to stimulate the nation's potential primarily and, secondly, on the competitiveness dimension of different firms and industries.

In this context, although there was an awareness that one could come across approaches that stress the need to strengthen only the nation, we tried to emphasize recent publications that have mostly a conceptual content (Table 1) and deconstruct their main characteristics and where these contribute to the theory. The publications were sorted by employing a semi-systematic and critical evaluation of the literature (Snyder, 2019), while particular attention was paid to the ones related to the need to reinforce competitiveness. Overall, more than 500 articles on nation branding are listed in Scopus in January 2021, with some 400 published after 2010 (set as a general keyword the term "nation branding"). According to the articles (and their focal points) extracted and presented in Table 1, this nation branding study is limited mostly to the factors that start from the literature of marketing, cultural studies, and, at best, within geopolitics' theoretical background. These articles presented seem to not comprehensively examine the field of evolutionary theorizing since they do not study as extensively the micro, meso and macro levels of socio-economic structuration. It cannot be argued that the study of phenomena related to national identity marketing is of no value; it merely does not include the evolutionary dynamics of the levels included in today's multilevel rationale of reinforcing competitiveness and attractiveness. Nation branding corresponds to a subcutaneous—under the first layer of the skin of the factors acknowledged by most nation branding theorists, critics, or advocates—stimulation of national competitiveness and attractiveness that cannot integrate (or at best identify) the multiple levels of space. This problem is present even though nation branding indirectly concerns the area called "competitiveness/attractiveness diptych," a concept used in the past that is also about to be analyzed in the subsequent sections to clarify where a nation branding strategy must focus.

COMPETITIVENESS AND ATTRACTIVENESS AS SYSTEMIC DIPTYCH: A MULTILEVEL CRITICAL EVALUATION BEYOND EXCLUSIVELY FOCUSED NATION-CENTRIC PERSPECTIVES

From an evolutionary perspective to the global economy, and beyond a nation-centric framework, space, economic sectors (or industries) and all the actors involved in the process are interdependent, forming a dynamic whole. At the root of this interdependence, the multilevel or systemic competitiveness within

Table 1. Definitions, contributions, and conclusions from the nation branding scientific literature. Selected articles from 2010 to early 2021

Author	Significant nation branding definition provided	Significant points discussed in nation branding analysis	Conclusion about nation branding
Branding the nation: Towards a better understanding (Fan, 2010)	Nation branding involves creating or altering, monitoring, evaluating, and proactively managing a nation's images; the goal is to enhance its reputation in a targeted foreign audience.	The author develops a conceptual framework to explain the origins and the various meanings of the term, drawing detailed comparisons between nation branding and commercial branding.	Nation branding is not a myth but a way for a nation to achieve a better image by communicating its success to a foreign audience.
Democracy and nation brand(ing): Friends or foes (Kemming & Humborg, 2010)	The idea of the "brand state" reflects various readings from the symbolic entity to branding's organizational principles in governmental action.	Is democracy good or bad for a nation-brand?	In terms of their esteem of other world citizens, thoroughly democratic nations consistently show high scores. This outcome means that no non-democratic procedures are necessary for successful brand management.
The politics of nation branding: Collective identity and public sphere in the neoliberal state (Varga, 2013)	Nation branding refers to an inner-oriented cultural-political measure directed at the national state's people.	Nation branding involves politics that entail constructing symbolic markets, decoupling the nationalist vocabulary from history and cultural context, undermining traditional forms of solidarity and the undemocratic redistribution of definitional authority and public funds.	Nation branding impedes democratic or at least transparent public processes through which it is possible to negotiate collective representations. This outcome is contradictory to the common belief that nation branding is a "public good."
Nation branding: A tool for nationalism? (Jordan, 2014)	Nation branding works in the same manner as traditional public relations; it is a practice undertaken to persuade the public, investors, partners, employees, and other stakeholders to adopt a specific perspective about the nation-state.	Is nation branding a more palatable version of nationalism?	Nation branding may be a vehicle for soft nationalism (but still nationalism), and thus not as innocent as it may sound at first.
Relocation branding: A strategic framework for attracting talent from abroad (Silvanto & Ryan, 2014)	The notion that nations compete for resources such as tourists, skilled migrants, investment, and trade constitutes the basis of nation branding.	This research aims to propose a strategic framework and terminology for nation branding to attract highly skilled workers.	The authors suggest using the term "relocation branding" to describe the practice of using branding strategies to attract talent.
Nation branding, national self-esteem, and the constitution of subjectivity in late modernity (Browning, 2015)	Nation branding tries to evoke emotional ties to a specific nation and what that nation might stand for.	Nation-branding processes always respond to states and state leaders' need to reinforce the sense of ontological security and (self)-esteem of both their citizens and the nation.	If the theories and claims of branding "experts/consultants" spread even further, this may also intensify the sense of disenfranchisement and elitism people experience in various modern policies.
The 4D Model of the country image: An integrative approach from the perspective of communication management (Buhmann & Ingenhoff, 2015)	The nation branding construct refers to both the branding strategy and the consumer's beliefs towards the respective nation.	This conceptual article introduces an integrative country image model based on business studies, social psychology, political science, and communication science.	The country image corresponds to a subjective stakeholder attitude towards a nation and its state, including personal views and general feelings in a functional, normative, esthetic, and sympathetic dimension.
Nation branding and development: Poverty panacea or business as usual? (Browning, 2016)	Nation branding has gained increased currency with multiple countries employing branding consultants, setting up branding commissions and producing branding strategies to enhance their profile and image.	Nation-branding advocates claim that, with globalization converting the world into a single global marketplace, everyone competes for market share with everyone else.	This article argues that nation branding has arisen as increasingly self-reinforcing rhetoric that further normalizes and promotes the so-called "market fundamentalism," based on the inevitabilities of globalization and "neoliberal economics."
The role of cultural diplomacy in nation branding (Hurn, 2016)	Nation branding means designing, planning, and communicating a country's name and identity that builds or manages its reputation and enhances its international profile.	Cultural diplomacy signifies a form of "soft power" (the third pillar of foreign policy) and political and economic diplomacy, having a powerful nation branding manifestation.	Nation branding can function as a blatant propaganda instrument, and, therefore, the significance of cultural diplomacy (nation branding) must be incorporated into a country's training and development.
Having a soul or choosing a face? Nation branding, identity and cosmopolitan imagination (Ståhlberg & Bolin, 2016)	Nation branding is a consumer cosmopolitanism that celebrates cultural diversity within nations and worldwide. Judging by the branding campaigns, the impression is not a deep concern with large political problems.	If national branding includes constructing and promoting national identity, what kind of "identity" might this be?	Nation branding is a practice motivated and pursued by concerns of the market, not by democratic policy. If nation-states still depend on a certain sense of collective solidarity, nation branding does not supply the respective tools for addressing these political concerns.
Nation branding for foreign direct investment: An integrative review and directions for research and strategy (Papadopoulos et al., 2016)	Nation branding aims to foster a positive reputation for the country and its people, set up its brand identity, enhance its products' export, and attract tourists and foreign direct investment.	This paper compares the well-established literature on decision-making and location choice in FDI with studies in the nascent field of nation branding.	This study highlighted possibilities for scholars interested in FDI, nation branding (place marketing), or both.
Nation branding as an emerging field – An institutionalist perspective (Merkelsen & Rasmussen, 2016)	Nation branding is both a theoretical possibility (increasing number of academic papers after the term coined in the mid- 1990s) and a practical necessity (all nations have a brand that needs management in global competition).	It seems that the brand concept is almost void of meaning; however, this feature tends to become an indispensable requisite for setting up nation branding as a field for practical implications and academia.	Despite the ongoing academic productivity, nation branding needs further clarifying and systematizing to reach a normal science-like situation.
The placement of country reputation towards place management (Mariutti, 2017)	Nation branding has arisen as an extension to "place branding" to describe a place's identity, image, and reputation. Researchers associate the concept with political, economic, and diplomatic applications.	This paper traces nation-branding development as a place management recommendation from country reputation studies to align country reputation with place management.	Nine papers have discussed the country's reputation topic since 2005, although none dealt with place management principles. In this context, such theoretical and managerial advancements could help countries achieve sustainable prosperity.
Relationship building in nation branding: The central role of nation brand commitment (Wu, 2017)	A nation-brand is a high-level description of a particular country, including geographic locations, residents, cultures, economic situations, or politics.	Nation branding refers to in-depth relationship building.	Commitment, trustworthiness, cultural values, and cultural distance can form a conceptual model explaining how nation branding influences consumers' traveling and product purchase intentions.

continued on following page

Table 1. Continued

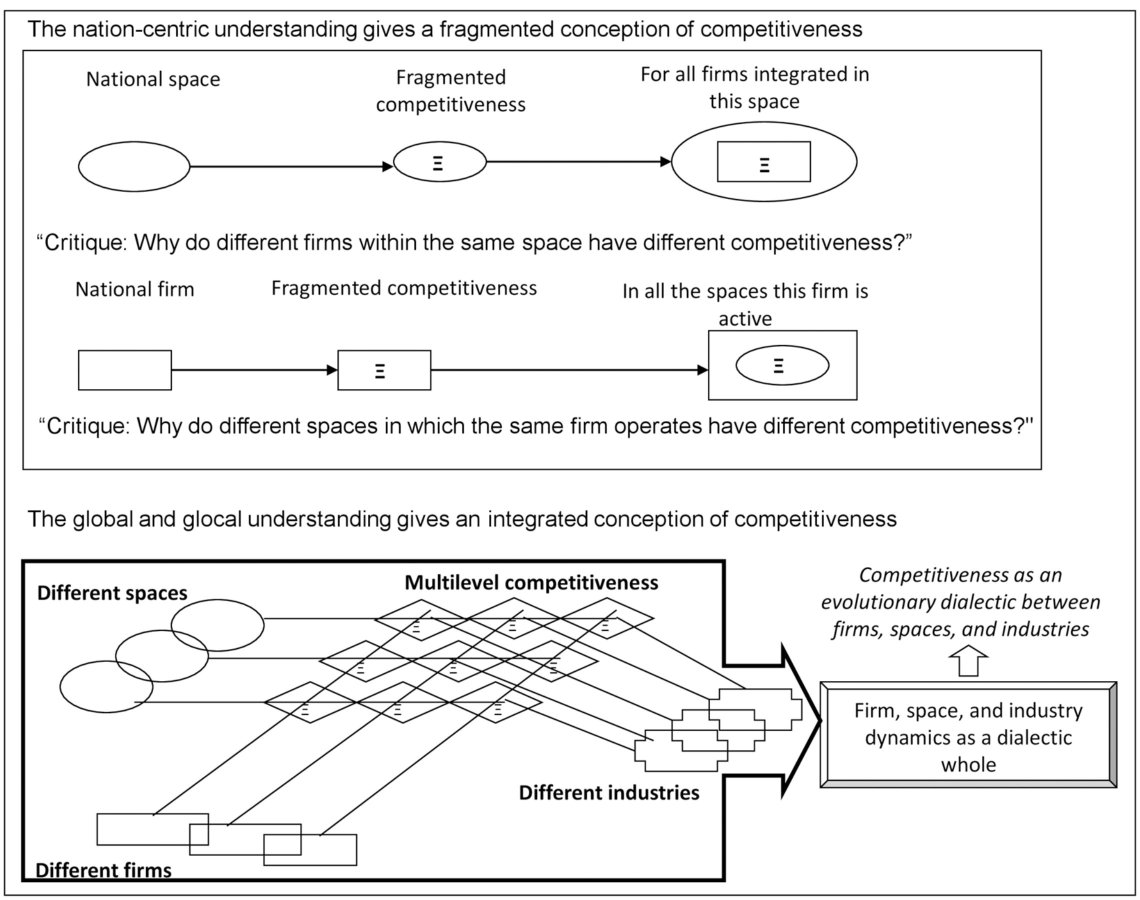
Author	Significant nation branding definition provided	Significant points discussed in nation branding analysis	Conclusion about nation branding
Introduction: Nation branding and competitive identity in world politics (Browning & Oliveira, 2017)	Even though consultants and practitioners strive to distance nation branding from more pejorative labels such as propaganda, an in-depth historical analysis could show that nation branding might not be as distinct as widely asserted.	Modern nation branding programs infuse significant geopolitical narratives and scripts.	Nation branding exists within a world where states try to discipline narratives to secure sectional advantages. Thus, nation branding does not transcend geopolitics but constitutes a (new) strategic instrument for the politics of geographical imaginations.
The less transparent, the more attractive? A critical perspective on transparency and place branding (Mabillard & Vuignier, 2017)	Place branding scholars are interested in attractiveness factors, studying aspects such as investment promotion, company location, and foreign direct investment.	Is a more transparent place more attractive?	While the regulatory framework's transparency can effectively improve a place's attractiveness, the opacity of legal requirements may also attract foreign investors.
Two decades of research on nation branding: A review and future research agenda (Hao et al., 2019)	Nation branding refers to using branding and marketing communications techniques to promote a nation's reputation.	This paper conducts a systematic literature review to synthesize nation branding research.	There is terminological confusion in the literature. Nation brand, nation branding, country brand, country reputation and country image are not interchangeable.
Dissemination and consensual perceptions of nation brands: A framework for future research (Torelli, 2019)	The nation-brand refers to national identity (what the country means for its nationals) or national image (how others perceive the country).	This research suggests a framework for communicating a country's image and understanding nation-brands' nature and resilience.	The factors that affect a nation brand's consensual image can include the country's political and economic power, the widespread adoption of the nation's language and the nation's cultural attractiveness, as expressed in the distribution of movies, music, and other mass-reaching cultural products.
Nation branding: A useful category for international history (Gienow-Hecht, 2019)	Nation branding means improving international credibility, attracting global capital, increasing international political influence, tourism, and investment, enhancing nation-building, keeping talent, and reversing negative conceptions that might occur alongside international rating downgrades.	This study shows that nation branding is a useful theoretical instrument for studying international relations and international history.	Studying nation branding in a historical context can help understand the long-term trajectories of statehood, self-representation, and domestic and international identity management.
Interrogating place brand – a case of two cities (Ojo, 2020)	Nation branding means applying branding and marketing communications methods to reshape a country's international audiences' beliefs.	Country branding, city branding, and region branding are interconnected concepts.	Cities can create influential brands irrespective of the reputation (strong or weak) of their countries of origin. This reverse relationship between the nation-brand and city-brand can also expand the city-brand and place-brand theoretical framework. Also, it is not easy to conceptually separate national identity from place-brand.
Nation branding as a market-shaping strategy: A study on South Korean products in Vietnam (Nguyen & Özçaglar-Toulouse, 2021)	The "nation branding" and "state and market" literature are complementary since the nation branding concept treats external forces as market actors directly or indirectly involved in shaping the domestic market.	This paper examines how the state employs nation branding as a market-shaping strategy, arguing that alternative neoclassical market perspectives neglect the state's degree of embeddedness into markets.	Beyond conventional and simplistic neoclassical assumptions that dominate the marketing field, the state is a powerful institutional actor and, therefore, building a nation-brand can reinforce the nation's attractiveness and competitiveness.
Nation branding in the COVID-19 era: South Korea's pandemic public diplomacy (Lee & Kim, in press)	Nation branding concerns a country's global image, covering political, economic, and cultural dimensions, a context that also is valid for managing the COVID-19 pandemic.	This study addresses the interplay between public diplomacy in the COVID-19 era ("pandemic diplomacy, COVID-19 diplomacy, or coronavirus diplomacy") and nation branding.	A "pandemic public diplomacy" framework refers to state-initiated efforts to communicate material and immaterial resources with foreign publics to mitigate the health threat, foster a positive nation-brand, and contribute to a healthful global environment.

the global process is created (Esser et al., 2013; Peneder, 2017; Vlados & Chatzinikolaou, 2020). Even though competitiveness refers to an organization's ability to perform better in broadly conceived innovational terms than other related organizations, the underlying nation-centric perspective most often dominates the relevant research directions, thereby dichotomizing and sterilizing the competitiveness notion in analytical terms. The concept of competitiveness as a product and characteristic of space or as a firm's dynamic dimension is an increasingly used ineffective distinction, starting from traditional neoclassical or neo-Keynesian macroeconomic or microeconomic inspiration research directions, attributing limited significance to the interdependence between the micro-macro while ignoring the meso-level. This deficiency arises mostly through theoretical domains where the ineffective compartmentalization of conventional neoclassical optic continues and prevails (Barro, 1997; Galbraith, 1987; Ghazinoory et al., 2017; Mazzocchi, 2013; Vlados, 2019). Such conventional approaches, which ignore spatial dynamics in their conceptual outline, can only perpetuate incidental and non-cohesive theoretical explanations, driving their interpretive frameworks to nothing more than simple additive instead of synthesizing rationale.

In contrast, in modern evolutionary economics, the spaces, firms, and industries intersecting them transversely and globally are co-evolving and dialectically correlated forces (Chatzinikolaou & Vlados, 2019; Hanusch & Pyka, 2007; Nelson et al., 2018; Vlados, 2020). In this context, widespread competitiveness measurements are also geared, which tend to attach paramount significance to the national dimension or, more recently, to the regions (Annoni & Dijkstra, 2019; Institute for Management Development, 2017; Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2017). In this methodological orientation and reflection, neither fragmented macro-competitiveness of space nor fragmented micro-competitiveness of firm exists. There are various competitiveness levels in organic interrelation, depending on the diverse types of firms or spaces influenced by the specific industrial and cross-industrial global systems and dynamics. Therefore, in this understanding (and in terms of global development), competitiveness includes evolving and dialectically connected elements between firms, spaces, and industries (see Figure 1).

The nation-centric understanding gives a fragmented conception of competitiveness for both the national space and the national firms. It is misleading to conceive competitiveness as a uni-dimensional

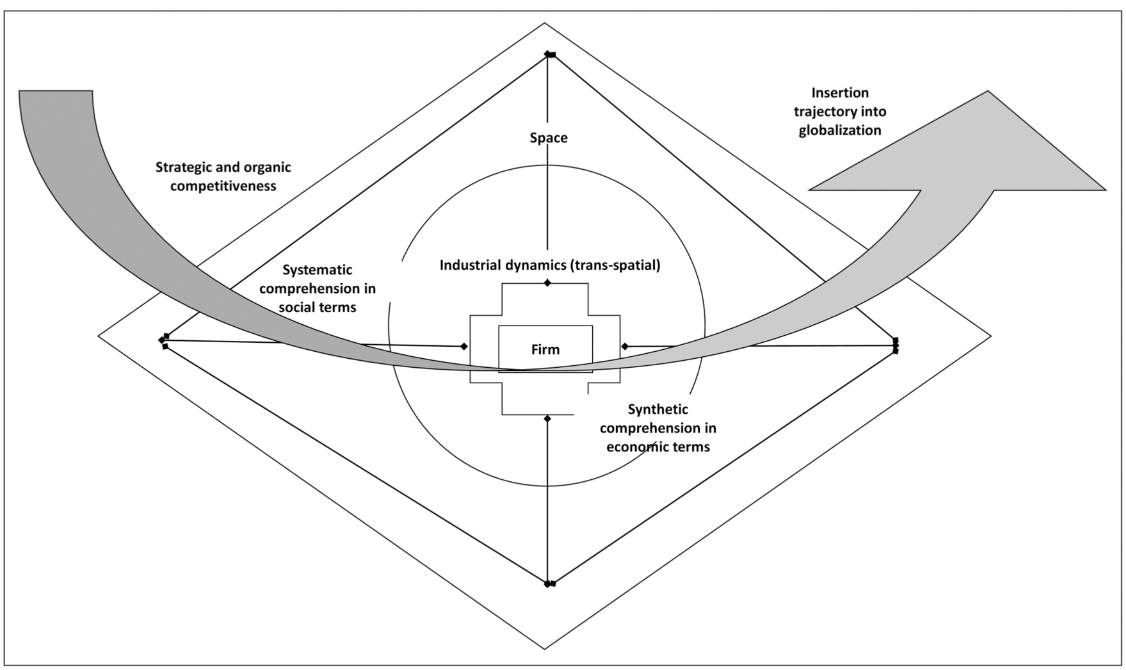
Figure 1. Competitiveness as a dialectical coupling between firms, spaces, and industries
Source: Adjusted from Vlados (2004)



phenomenon, allegedly only the outcome of the firm's action or space's structuration. In other words, no clear answer derives from such analysis to questions such as "Why do different firms within the same space have different competitiveness?" or "Why do different spaces in which the same firm operates have different competitiveness?" In the global understanding of competitiveness, where industries and the meso environment articulate cross-national, inter-national, and multi-national ties, competitiveness is multilevel, consisting of different spaces, firms, and industries. Thus, in this cognizance, competitiveness becomes "organic" because it is always conceived as a scalable entity, based on its systemic constituent parts' continual adjustment. Also, competitiveness is "strategic" because it is never an automatic and predefined dynamic but always occurs under the synthetic influence of actors' specific behaviors, which lead to the structuration and restructuration of the spaces-industries doublets hosting them, continually reproducing heterogeneity relationships at a "glocal" level (Evans et al., 2013; Roudometof, 2014). In terms of "glocalization," locality is not homogenized, as anti-globalizationists argue, but reproduces its evolutionary heterogeneity within an irreversible global system, which maintains its relative homeostasis until high levels of entropy force it into a mutation and essentially evolutionary metamorphosis (Argyres et al., 2012; Georgescu-Roegen, 1971; McEvily & Zaheer, 1999; Passet, 1979; Rodrik, 2011; Schumpeter, 1942).

Here, the new methodological horizon can only be always and simultaneously cross-firm, cross-spatial, and cross-industrial. This co-evolution between the different components that make up the global socio-economic system is the driving force behind the reproduction of heterogeneity (see Figure 2).

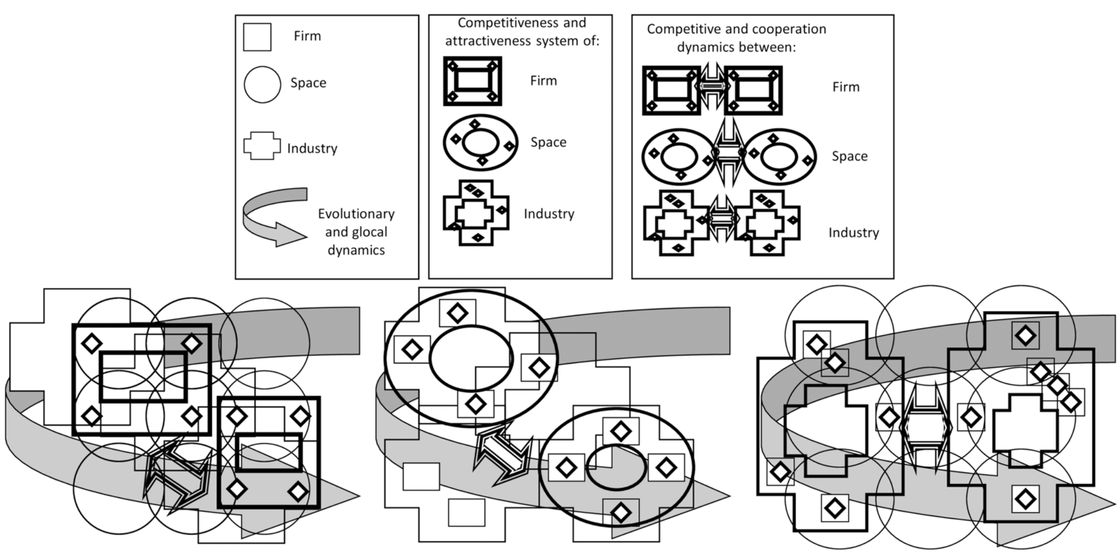
Figure 2. Reproduction of strategic and organic heterogeneity into the global process
Source: Adjusted from Vlados (2004)



In a global pattern of reproduction of strategic/organic competitiveness, all actors adapt and re-adapt dynamically and become gradually integrated (or do not become integrated, resulting in gradual deterioration and annihilation), co-structuring the trajectory of globalization. This dynamic adjustment and re-adjustment of spaces (social superstructure) and firms and industries (the economic base) is the reason for treating the global system as “unitary”: because the actors, both individually and jointly, are the “structurers” of the global socio-economic system. In terms of dialectics, all constituents in today’s complex world economy continuously reproduce theses, antitheses, syntheses and, as a result, the use of isolated and ahistorical analytical patterns is not only insufficient but, increasingly, erroneous and disorienting (Morabito et al., 2018; Sparke, 2018; Vlados et al., 2019). All this requires a transformation of the standard theoretical spectra relating to competitiveness, which are still dominant today. In simple terms, therefore, competitiveness is an indivisible theoretical entity, an organic, strategic, and dialectic concept which no orthodox theory of different specializations of economic science can fully address if it is exhausted and compartmentalized in just one of its dimensions (Hodgson, 2019; Slade-Caffarel, 2019). This is also the point at which nation branding theories fail.

Within this theoretical transformation that now seems necessary, the definition and application of a unified competitiveness framework acquire new content in contemporary globalization. The competitiveness/attractiveness diptych is a crucial theoretical transformation point in this gradual de-rigidification and explanatory re-adjustment. According to a relevant comment made by Michalet (1999), the competitiveness/attractiveness diptych functions as a catalyst for recalibrating the inter-national and multinational economy’s workings. The contributions of the scholars of Paris X (CEREM[1], Nanterre) are fundamental in this repositioned context of competitiveness, which is essentially the other side of the same development coin with attractiveness. CEREM scholars also contributed considerably to the French School of Regulation. In the “École de la Régulation,” it is argued that nationally oriented development

Figure 3. The different competitiveness and attractiveness systems of firms, spaces, and industries co-evolve, forming a unified whole
Source: Adjusted from Vlados (2004)



models derive from the progressive and evolving accumulation regimes in which the matching modes of regulations are developed (Boyer, 1986; Lipietz, 1986). According to Delapierre and Milelli (1995), the structuration of attractiveness on the part of nations (accumulation regimes and each regulation mode in the terminology of the regulation school) has now developed at a much higher level than offering simple incentives for foreign direct investment, utilizing marketing strategies to transform the territory's image as an investment site (or space) and to attract potential investor groups through direct contacts and communication.

On this point, it can be recognized that the two sides of this same reality can no longer be theoretically divided. On the one hand, the competitiveness of a space today must be mainly geared towards attracting the interest of the actors in globalization and, on the other, this attractiveness of space cannot be viable and sustainable if it is not based on a mechanism capable of structuring/restructuring the spatialized competitive advantages that it can effectively offer to these players (Dunning, 1992; Porter, 1990). More specifically, attractiveness is defined as the ability of a space to be a recipient of broadly perceived investment interest at all levels, be it local, regional, national, or global (Ivanov & Nugaev, 2017; Jáč & Vondráčková, 2017; Renczewska, 2012). The co-determination of competitiveness/attractiveness arises in terms of dialectics between firms, spaces, and industries, in three highly interconnected levels: the "seduction of nations" refers to how each national space attracts investment, the "seduction of industries" to how each industry attracts strategic interest, and the "seduction of firms" to how each business attracts resources (see Figure 3).

The integrated theoretical diptych of competitiveness and attractiveness can enhance our interpretive tools and understanding for how the nation can be conceived as a development interest space, far from only rigidly conceptualizing the macro-level. The spaces, firms, and industries are in a constant relationship of interdependence, and all these systems lead to the entire re-adjustment of the socio-economic plexus that hosts them through synchronous relationships of competition and cooperation (Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996; Carayannis et al., 2018). In the last section, a repositioned outline of conceiving the interest-receiving space is presented, capable of enriching how approaches to support the national space's attractiveness should be theoretically placed.

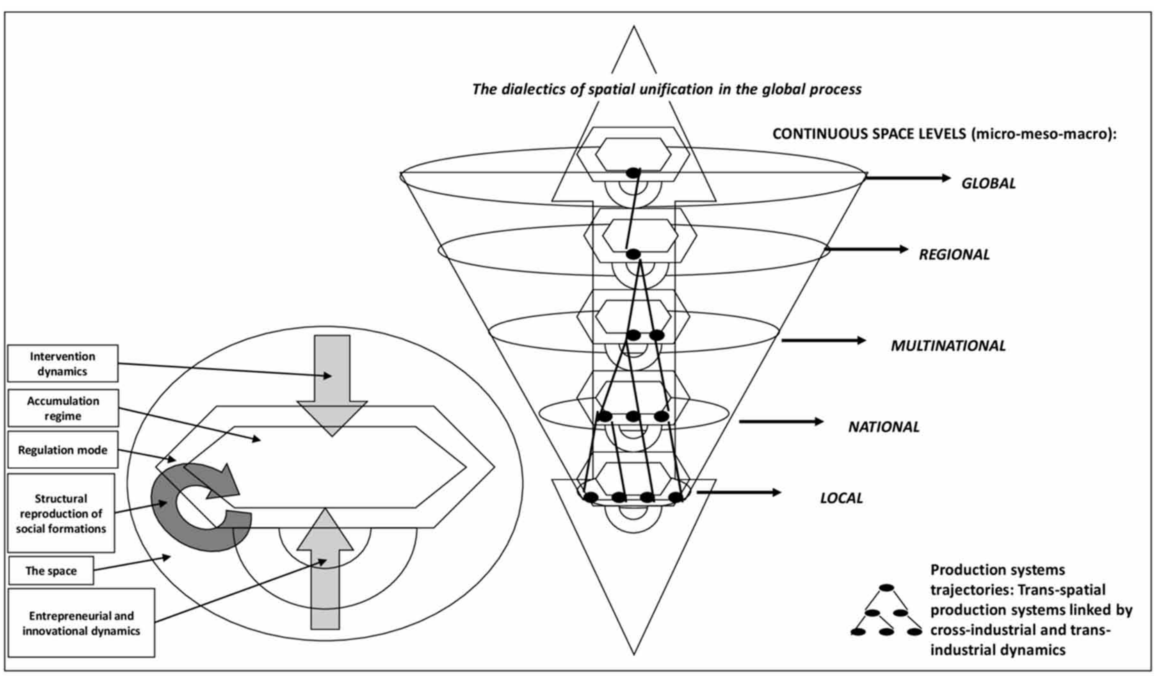
CONCLUSION: THE CONE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL AND INNOVATIONAL DYNAMICS AS A CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF A REPOSITIONED CONCEPTION OF COMPETITIVENESS AND ATTRACTIVENESS

This chapter was structured as a proposal and counterproposal geared around the dimension of "saleable" national identity—what has been referred to as nation branding in the relevant literature for some twenty-five years—having as its primary motive the fact that the concept of competitiveness seemed to be relatively under-exploited within its workings and, consequently, the relative case of attractiveness as a dynamic whole. Presenting the conceptual evolution that is taking place within the literature of nation branding, we were faced with a multitude of contributions that, unsurprisingly, focused primarily on the nation's sphere, from a nation-centric perspective, that is, bypassing industrial and sub-industrial dimensions that unfold within globalization, structured and restructured by the firms' actions and dynamics of entrepreneurship and innovation.

In the introduction of this research, three questions were identified, functioning as the successive steps in building a new theoretical framework to put together the co-evolving dynamics of nation branding and the diptych of competitiveness/attractiveness. This concluding section shows this new study path that unfolds in the field of nation branding, providing in a concise way concrete answers to the opening questions:

1. Regarding the first question, which concerned the "evolution" of nation branding's notion, the central research finding after studying the conceptual enrichment and the term's history concerns primarily the managerial and economic analysis principally oriented at the macro-nationcentric level. It is based on the science of marketing, with broad analytical avenues in geopolitics, diplomacy, cultural studies, and political economy in general. When it comes to the question of whether the study of the concept is of high importance, the increasing popularity of the term and practice of nation branding (most publications appear in the literature after 2010 even though it is an idea of the early 1990s) leads to interpretive enrichment and various case studies. We chose to exclude the latter from the analysis, even though they make up about 50% of the published texts, because this study is conceptual, oriented towards the suggestion of a new theoretical scheme.
2. In the direction of supplying an answer to why the study of competitiveness and attractiveness is lacking as a system for conceptualizing the way socio-economic organisms progress and develop their innovative potential, it seems that there is a fertile ground for enrichment strafed towards the design of economic policy solutions, bearing as an analytical axis the dimension of managing a nation's name, identity, and stereotypes. Competitiveness and attractiveness are demonstrated in the literature as a systemic, co-evolving, and organic diptych, which crosses transversely, receives

Figure 4. The cone of entrepreneurial and innovational dynamics: The continuum of space in the global process
Source: Adjusted from Vlados (2004)



flows from all spaces, industries, and firms, within an irreversible "glocalizing" process, in which the heterogeneity of the participant actors keeps being reproducible (Kindleberger, 1986; Lorenz, 2000; Vlados, Deniozos, Chatzinikolaou, et al., 2018).

3. In this perceptual context, the dimension of nation branding is inevitably subject to the forces of multilevel (micro-meso-macro) systemic competitiveness and attractiveness, which is not limited now to the superficial attraction of foreign investment. It concerns the "seduction" of potential investors (in the broad sense) and the overall and multilevel entrepreneurial and innovational dynamics (see Figure 4).

In this dialectic synthesis and integration that arises at all continuous spatial levels (local, national, multi-national, regional, global), all social configurations are reproduced structurally through cross-industrial (and trans-industrial) dynamics, articulated throughout the development spectrum of space. It starts from the micro, crossing the meso, and reaching the macro, from the smallest to the largest in the form of a "cone" that shows how the cogeneration trajectories of different socio-economic systems should be conceived. Simply put, the nation branding strategy, like marketing, is a subsection of an organization's overall strategy that seems increasingly nowadays to be multilevelly perceived, as is done for example in correlative and evolutionary SWOT analyses and corresponding evolutionary theorizing of the internal and external organizational environment (Hill & Westbrook, 1997; Porter, 1980; Vlados & Chatzinikolaou, 2019).

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Attractiveness: The ability of a space to be a recipient of broadly perceived investment interest at all levels (local, regional, national, global).

Co-Opetition: The combined dynamics of cooperation and competition inherent in each organizational process as a dialectical product (thesis-synthesis-antithesis) at all spatial levels.

Competitiveness: The ability of an organization to perform better in broadly conceived innovational terms than other related organizations at all levels (local, regional, national, global).

Competitiveness/Attractiveness Diptych: The two sides of the same coin of overall socio-economic development dynamics for all organizations and at all levels (micro-meso-macro).

Evolutionary Economics: The heterodox framework for the study of multilevel socio-economic phenomena in the light of continuous mutation and metamorphosis, caused by the inherent dynamics of innovation and crisis within all socio-economic systems and organizations.

Glocalization: Understanding the globalizing phenomenon as subject to the constant evolution of locally established actors, who tend towards homogeneity while reproducing their heterogeneity.

Micro-Meso-Macro: The systemic, integrated, and indivisible conceptualization of space, in a way that is perceived in its evolution within social sciences.

Nation Branding: A nation's ability to create, communicate, and strategize a saleable cultural and merit-based background in international markets and relations.

Organic/Strategic Competitiveness: Strategic/organic competitiveness refers to a firm's ability to perform better than its counterparts, meaning that all entities are made up of constituents that continually adapt and re-adapt ("behave") to outperform their competitors and possibly increase in scale. It is observed through an evolutionary and biological-type perspective by taking into account the firm's co-evolution with the socio-economic spaces in which it operates.

ENDNOTE

1 CEREM (Centre d'Etude et de Recherche sur l'Entreprise Multinationale): Center for Studies and Research on Multinational Enterprises.

Chapter 6
Cities' Branding Development:
Characteristics and Interconnections

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ABSTRACT

Despite the enormous importance of branding in today's highly competitive environment in which tourism businesses operate, the concept of branding in the field of promoting tourist destinations is a relatively new field of academic research. This work aims to explore the concept of city branding and examines the extent to which this can make metropolitan cities in Greece a tourist attraction. A bibliographical search presents cities' characteristics that create their competitive advantage in attracting target groups of tourists.

1. INTRODUCTION

The branding concept has piqued interest as one of the most sought-after topics among academics and professionals. As venues increasingly face global competition both on their external and domestic markets, the application of technical branding in cities is increasing more frequently. Research-based on the branding practices of different geographical entities (i.e., countries, regions, cities) has intensified the challenges of branding the place's multidimensional concept.

Branding as a marketing technique also applies to destinations, because tourism products are homogeneous, and there is a need for individuality to stand out from each other.

Kotler et al. (1999) note that although adopting the marketing mix as proposed by marketing, it distinguishes four strategies for improving the foundations for building a competitive advantage (Fig.1).

- The design (i.e., the place as a character)
- The infrastructure (i.e., the place as a constant environment)

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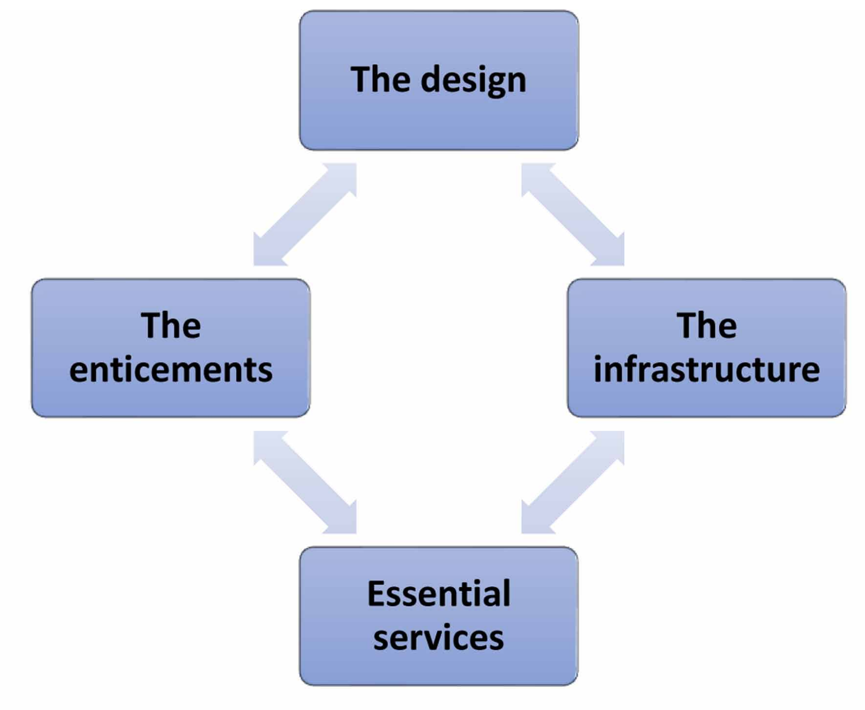
- Essential services (i.e., the place as a service provider)
- The enticements (i.e., the place for fun and relaxation)

Among the conditions that make spot branding a necessity are the growing power of international media, the reduction in the cost of international travel, the rise of consumer power, the threat of local balance, the limited concentration of international investors, and consumers' demand for a diversified cultural set motivated by low-cost global media.

Figure 1. Foundations for building a competitive advantage
(Source: Kotler's et al. 1999)



To be precise, branding, both as a necessity and as a phenomenon, is mainly caused by globalization processes where the market for ideas, culture, reputation, products, services and capital merges into a single global community (Anholt, 2005).

The image of the place as it is shaped by place branding based on specific strategies is interlaced but not identical to its identity. As the place's identity, we mean its specificity and differentiation, making the place have specific characteristics and be unique. It is characteristic that a place is attractive when the branding we have created in our minds about it acquires positive characteristics (Anholt, 2007).

2. PLACE BRANDING

When most people talk about place branding, they do not usually give a name or symbol to a place, because places already have names and symbols. They refer to doing something to enhance the image of the place. Place branding is believed to be a way to make places famous. Simultaneously, the effective branding of a place expresses the culture of the place, leaves impressions to others, reflects these impressions in identity and reflects the changes caused back in the place's culture. The branding of the place is best understood as dialogue, discussion and questioning.

Undoubtedly, this approach redefines the importance of stakeholders for spot branding. The investment that will consolidate the branding site is the investment in many stakeholders' participation in an honest dialogue between them (Karavatzis 2012).

The brand is an asset of the great value of an entity, while at the same time, it can be the tool for its differentiation in today's competitive environment (Lehu, 2004). The brand is an essential factor influencing consumer purchasing decisions, as it is perceived as a high-quality sign (Deliza et al. 1999), while at the same time adding meaning and value to the product/service provided, helping to create an image (Vrontis, 1998). Today, brands provide information about the product and reveal more complex product/service characteristics related to their internal value, prestige, and communication of symbols and values (Moore and Reid, 2008). The importance of branding can be more understood through North and Enslin (2004) study, where they claim that the brand is the product itself for many consumers.

The application of brand theory in tourist destinations is different from products/services, even though in both cases, the purpose of branding is to diversify and increase the product's competitiveness. The difference lies in the fact that destinations incorporate the concepts of culture and identity of each party, making place branding a concept based on ideas of social relationships, shared experiences and traditions, as well as providing a sense of belonging to a society with a particular identity (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). All of the above benefits form a brand image for a place that affects consumers' perceptions of this place, leading them to be more optimistic about the idea of visiting this place (Kemp et al., 2012; Klabi, 2012).

3. CITY BRANDING MANAGEMENT AS A STRATEGIC ENDEVOUR

Cities across Europe are increasing, including marketing techniques and methods in their business practices and intergovernmental philosophy. City branding is the right way to describe city marketing. The implementation of city branding depends mainly on the construction, communication, and management of the city's image, as it is accepted that this image enhances the city's reputation through perceptions and images. Therefore, the object of branding is the starting point for the development of the city's image. The city's branding provides the basis for economic development and serves as a conduit for the city's inhabitants to identify with their city (Karavatzis, 2004). It is, of course, quite complicated and involves several stages. In the beginning, those who work for city branding aim as development tools mainly advertising and promotional strategies to shape the city's image. These strategies are used to date, but at the same time, there is much criticism as to the ineffectiveness of such strategies (e.g., logo design, slogans and advertising campaigns, etc.) to communicate the current image of the city with reality (Govers, 2013).

Karavatzis (2012) stresses that the city's image results from different and often contradictory messages sent by the city and is shaped differently in everyone's mind. As of this, a city is a natural place and a subjective place shaped differently in each citizen's thinking, depending on each individual's perceptions.

Zenker and Erfgen (2014) underline the resident's mutual work in each strategy for managing the city's brand. They consider this to be the most important value to be targeted when considering the local population's inclusion in the participatory process of defining a place brand.

The image of a destination is the key to marketing success. For this reason, the first point to develop a positive image and perceived brand is to seek a full understanding of the nature and perceptions of the images from the various stakeholders to the destination in order to create more encouraging images and thus enhance the economic development of the destination. Building the brand image or changing the current city or destination consists of multiple stages. The stages that usually begin are the exploration and recognition of organic properties that include negative or positive characteristics that have been established for a long time (Hankinson, 2004).

At the same time, most European cities use city marketing to promote the city and enhance their image. City marketing is a vital tool for urban planning and management (Ward, 1998). City marketing is a site design process based on two fundamental options that meet the expectations of the current and the potential **target groups.** Thus, the main concern for a city to achieve all the objectives should be the effective use of sources through site marketing. Marketing's central idea is to solve customer problems by factoring value while creating customer expectation should be under the city's responsibility.

To realize and experience the experience requires creating a "myth", a "narrative" about the place, which is not material production and indeed individual, but a collective process based on knowledge, learning interaction, and religious influences. From tourism and various "intermediate" actors, many participants to local bodies, authorities, and possibly various other collectives and social groups. The effects of new types of activities related to new technologies, innovation and modern forms of governance are also decisive (Ghilardi, 2005).

The image of the city mixes the tangible and non-tangible characteristics associated with the city. The recruits shape the picture we have with the messages the city is trying to communicate. These messages may come from the Media, from culture or with experiences. City branding should focus on presenting an image that reflects the values and ideas of residents and visitors. Karavatzis and Ashworth (2005) stress that city branding should focus on how residents relate to the city and understand its most remarkable physical and symbolic characteristics.

People create an image in their minds based on experiences and the image created by the Mass Media Communication (e.g. films, literature, news, paintings). The primary purpose of city branding must be to create the locals' intellectual images to make changes in the urban landscape, which will offer economic, social and cultural development in the city.

4. CURRENT STATUS OF CITY BRANDING MANAGEMENT (C.B.M.) IN GREECE

Reiser and Crispin (2009) agree with civic engagement in shaping the city's image, as the picture is directly related to how locals relate to the city. After all, this urban regeneration does not exclusively affect the urban environment. It also affects the images and concepts rooted in the city and the city's identity and, of course, the residents because they live and work in the city and are the first to feel these changes.

Several researchers give their direction as to the appropriate strategies for a thriving branding city. Hubbard and Hall (1998) describe the more general business model of city governance. This model's objectives recognize the re-emergence of locations and the transformation of previous production teams into spectacular cities (and for) consumption.

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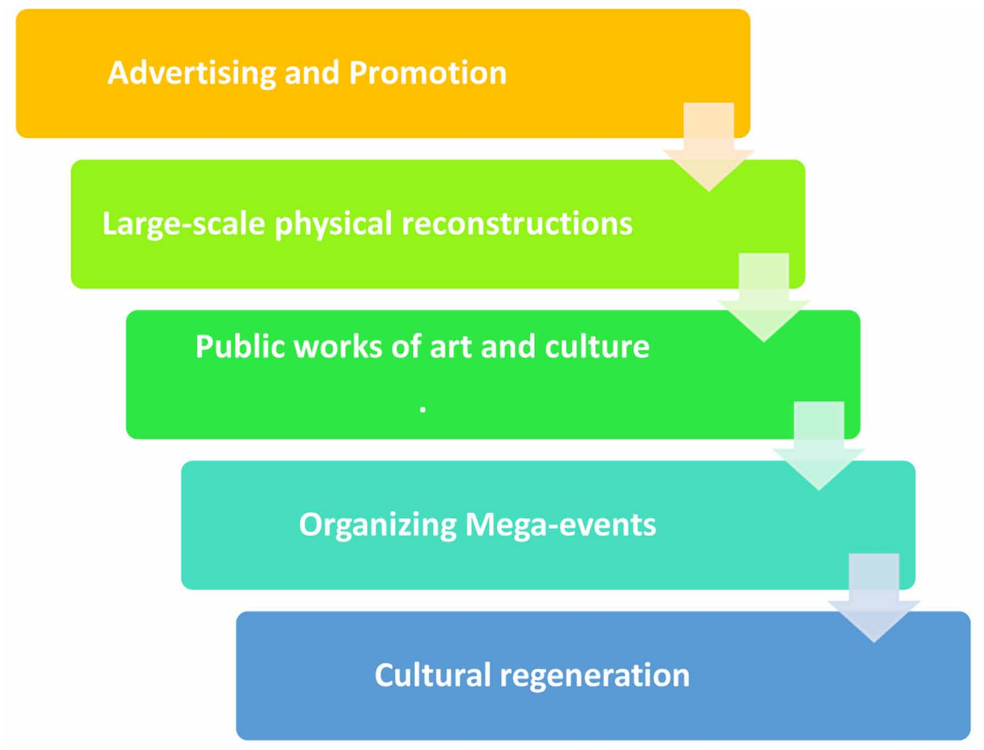
Figure 2. Key polices for the C.B.M.



The achievement of these objectives has led to specific policies, which include:

- Advertising and Promotion
- Large-scale physical reconstructions
- Public works of art and culture
- Organizing Mega-events
- Cultural regeneration

- Public and private cooperation

At the same time, Echtner and Richie (1991) presented two general categories with the necessary characteristics of a destination for the development process of the destination:

- Natural/Functional (e.g., natural beauties, activities and monuments)
- Psychological (e.g., product quality and reputation).

From the above, it is noted that there is a correct and tried and tested way for successful city branding, as there can be change with various alternative tactics.

An essential element for the city's awareness is the branding of a place that refers to policies aimed at defining a competitive, realistic, and attractive strategic perspective for the place implemented by actions related to tourism and culture (Anholt, 2008). In other words, there is a direct correlation between the cultural dimension of the city, at the spatial and a-spatial level, and the branding of place and destination.

The fact that the place's marketing strategies are not a priority of the Greek cities and regions is both an obstacle and an opportunity to include the curricula and the scientific debate's development.

In Greece, city branding efforts are in the initial stage, and those that have been implemented aim mainly to create slogans and logos with promotions to increase tourist arrivals. However, many more actions and activities are needed. The issue lies in the lack of a comprehensive city branding strategy.

5. GEOGRAPHICAL APPROACH AND BRANDING (G.A.B.)

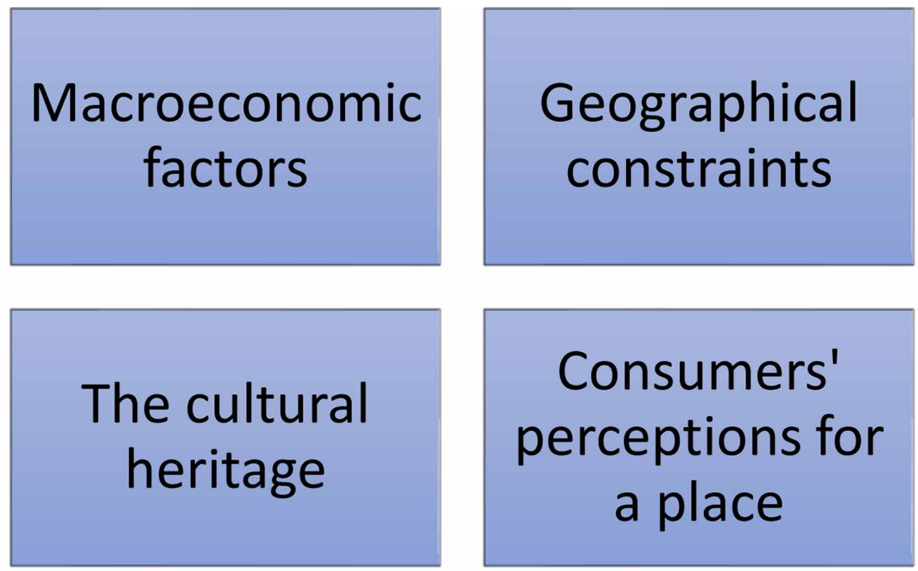
Consumer preferences for products/services are influenced by several factors such as marketing strategies (Alba and Hutchinson, 2007), environmental issues related to product manufacturing (Deliza et al., 1999), consumer demographics (Chaudhuri, 2006), media influence and advertising (Yoo and Donthu, 2005; Alba and Hutchinson, 2007), expectations and satisfaction from a product/service (Dikolli et al., 2006; Kuusik, 2007), influence from relatives/friends, as well as personal values of consumers (Chaudhuri, 2006), the perceived value of the product/service (Verhoef, 2002), the price (Groenholdt et al., 2000), the social benefit associated with the brand (Oliveira-Castro et al., 2008), the aesthetics of the logo (Deliza et al., 1999), and the packaging (Kniazeva and Belk, 2007).

However, in tourist destinations, consumers are affected by different factors, as the concept of tourist destination, as will be considered below, includes parameters related to natural resources, soil geomorphology, climate, characteristics and lifestyle of the local community (Kaplan et al., 2010).

Besides, the brand plays an entirely different role in the case of a destination, as it is based on the concept of the culture of the place and the people living in that society (Aitken and Campelo, 2011), while the characteristics of the part are more challenging to identify as opposed to a product, making the image of the destination more complex than the image of a product (Kaplan et al., 2010; Ramkissoon and Hunkoo, 2011).

According to Balakrishnan (2009), the unique characteristics of the destinations listed below are those that distinguish destinations from products/services (see also Fig.2): (a) the tourism industry depends in no small extent on macroeconomic variables, such as weather, terrorist attacks, political stability; monetary fluctuations, (b) geographical constraints have an impact on access to natural resources, weather, infrastructure, characteristics and lifestyles of residents of the community of destination, (c) the cultural

Figure 3. Unique characteristics of destinations
(Source: Balakrishnan, 2009)



heritage, history and culture of a place cannot be changed, investment and human resources providing the services, (f) the perception of consumers-tourists for a place is influenced by a variety of factors, such as image and promotion by the media, which is why the concept of a destination's brand is complex and changing. The brand of a destination also promotes that destination and extends to its identity concept (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). In this context, the branding of a destination is subject to factors such as tourists' income, the political and social conditions of the country of origin of tourists, the culture and identity of the destination (Kavaratzis, 2012).

Based on the above, the brand of a destination can be defined as the name, symbol, logo or any other graphic element that identifies and differentiates a tourist destination, as that element that communicates to potential tourists the promise of an unforgettable travel experience associated with that destination, while helping to strengthen and promote the recall of pleasant experiences-memories from travel to a destination (Ritchie and Grouch, 2003).

6. A CONCEPTUAL APPROACH TO THE TOURIST DESTINATION

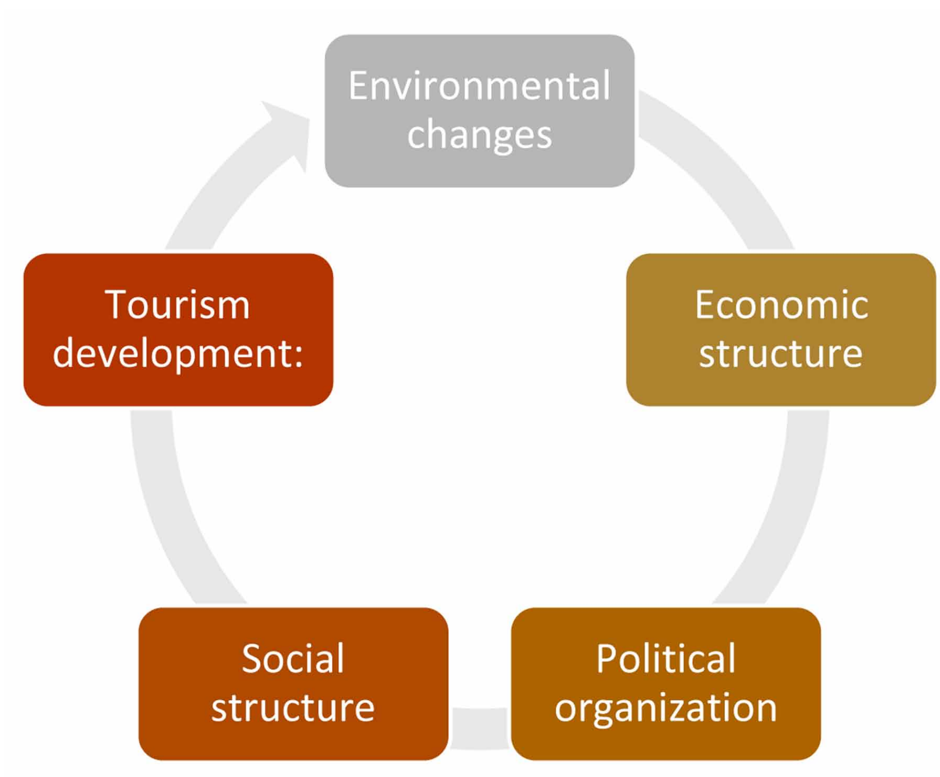
Tourist destinations offer a range of tourist products and services consumed under the destination brand's name, offering tourists experiences. According to Pereira et al. (2012), tourist destinations are destinations where people travel and choose to stay for some time to gain experiences of specific characteristics. What is essential and valuable to point out is that a tourist destination may well be a perceived concept, which is interpreted subjectively by consumers, based on their travel experiences, the purpose of visiting a tourist destination, their cultural background, and their psychographic and demographic characteristics (Pereira et al., 2012).

Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) recognize that a tourist destination can only become a brand destination if its intrinsic and distinctive characteristics are understood, and a specific form of marketing is developed that uses and gives value to those characteristics.

Based on each tourist destination's dominant characteristic element, one can distinguish twelve main types of tourist destinations: urban, coastal, island, coastal, mountainous, lowland, wooded, thermal springs, cultural, religious and archaeological. Apart from the above, however, there are two other distinctions of tourist destinations. These are old and new tourist destinations. Traditional destinations rely on pre-existing facilities but mainly are not built to serve tourists. On the other hand, new tourist destinations are arranged from the outset in such a way that they can then be used exclusively for tourist purposes.

The characteristics of tourist destinations are vital, as they affect both the effects of tourism and destinations' resistance to population pressures. According to various researchers (Chang and Lai, 2009; Howard, 2010; Popp, 2012; Huang et al., 2013) the characteristics of tourist destinations are as follows (see also Fig.3):

Figure 4. Fundamental characteristics of tourist destinations



- **Environmental changes:** relate to detailed characteristics of the tourist destination, such as soil, flora, fauna, sunshine, temperature, rainfall, the existence of mountains, lakes, rivers, etc.
- **Economic structure:** concerns diversification of the economic base, characteristics of the development of the area, economic activities, inputs, investment standards, imports, exports, etc.

- **Political organization** refers to political structure, party organizations, public services, ideological currents, political strategies, political decision-making processes, etc.
- **Social structure**: refers to the demographics of the tourist destination, local culture, social organization standards, availability and quality of social facilities, social behaviour standards, religious associations, moral values, local tradition, language, level of health and safety, etc.
- **Tourism development:** refers to the level and pace of tourism development, the structure of the tourism industry, investments in tourism, tourism training and education, accommodation types and categories, the quality level of hospitality services, the possibilities of entertainment and entertainment, the variety of attractions, the planning and execution of tourism infrastructure projects, etc.

7. TOURISTS MOTIVATIONS FOR DESTINATIONS

It is necessary to clarify what those elements, or else the factors, motivate potential tourists to visit a tourist destination. These factors are the following (Chang and Lai, 2009; Howard, 2010; Popp, 2012; Ben-Dalia et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013):

- **The attractions of the tourist destination:** they are elements that are in its environment and which largely determine the choice of potential tourists to visit it, while at the same time decisively influencing their purchasing behaviour. These enticements divided into four categories.
    1. The first is the natural attractions, including picturesque landscapes, beaches, parks, mountains, lakes, waterfalls, rivers, caves, ecosystems, and climatic conditions.
    2. The second category is the constructed lures, including historical sites, archaeological sites, monuments, classical and modern architecture, zoos, aquariums, recreation areas, ski resorts, organized beaches, large commercial department stores, and public parks, sports centres.
    3. The third category is cultural attractions, including history, folklore, religion, art, theatre, opera, festival and folklore events, museums, galleries, etc.
    4. Finally, the fourth category is social attractions, including the local population's way of life, social contradictions, customs and customs, tradition, language, etc.
- **The facilities and services of a tourist destination:** however attractive a tourist destination is, the chances of developing a tourist destination will be limited if it is not able to offer tourists who visit or who wish to visit it the basic amenities they ask for and wish to have during their temporary stay there. It means that if the tourist destination cannot offer tourists what they want and ask for, then the prospects for developing tourism will be either non-existent or limited.
- **The ease of approaching a tourist destination:** accessible is considered a tourist destination with a frequent and convenient time and distance, transport links with other countries or other cities within the country from which foreign and local tourists channelled at affordable prices.
- **The mental image of the tourist destination:** the mental images that individuals have of various tourist destinations are strong tourist incentives and at the same time have a decisive influence on their purchasing behaviour, even though they are not necessarily based on acquired experience or real events. Both the mental images and the expectations of tourist experiences are closely linked to potential tourists' minds. Most people have already decided whether they are attracted to or

repel a tourist destination through the media. All tourist destinations acquire mental images that are often based more on historical events than on current ones.

For this reason, it should be the primary purpose of marketing a city tourist destination, to enhance, alter or even create intelligent images with the ultimate goal of influencing the expectations of its potential visitors.

- **The cost of visiting the tourist destination:** most tourist destinations offer various products and services aimed at different economic and social class tourists. The cost of visiting a tourist destination is based on individual tourist products and services included in a tourist package. However, reasonable prices for the availability of tourist packages or individual tourist services are a strong incentive for tourists to visit a tourist destination.

Regarding the factors affecting European citizens in the choice of tourist destination, 32% of respondents said that it is the general attractiveness of the environment of a tourist destination, 25% that it is the cultural heritage of the site, 16% that it is fun, 6% gastronomy, also 6% that it is art, 5% festivals and other events (Flash Eurobarometer), 2010). According to the survey results, 57% of European citizens say that they choose tourist destinations that are traditional and well-known, while only 28% choose tourist destinations that are non-traditional and well-known but emerging (Flash Eurobarometer, 2010).

8. CREATE AN IMAGE AND IDENTITY OF THE TOURIST DESTINATION.

From time to time, several definitions have been given for the image of the tourist destination. For example, the image of the tourist destination is defined as 'the impression one or more people have of a destination in which they do not reside', 'the set of beliefs, ideas, impressions and expectations a tourist has for a tourist destination area', 'perceptions of the particular characteristics of the destination, but also the holistic impression constructed by the destination. Therefore, we can argue that the image of the tourist destination is the whole of consumers' perceptions of this destination, as reflected by the correlations made in tourists' memory. Therefore, creating a destination brand means identifying the most relevant links to the tourist destination and strengthening them with the tourist destination and its image.

Based on information processing theories and consumer psychology, Kim and Perdue (2011) stress that tourists see different tourist destinations as a set of characteristics that can be compared and evaluated, based on which individual perception forms an image of the destination, which may increase the chances of choosing that destination if the picture is positive.

According to Hosany et al. (2006) and Kim and Perdue (2011), the image of a tourist destination is formed by individuals' logical and emotional interpretations. It is formed by perceived/cognitive assessments, which relate to personal knowledge and beliefs about the destination and emotional assessments, concerning personal feelings towards the destination.

Consumers create an image of the tourist destination before they even visit it, as well as a set of expectations, based on past experiences, word of mouth communication, media reports on that destination, advertisements, and shared beliefs (Pereira et al., 2012). The demographic and psychological characteristics of tourists also play a role in creating an image of a tourist destination (Kim and Perdue, 2011). At the same time, it is argued that consumers' feelings, ideas and behaviour towards a brand essentially make up the image of that brand, in this case, the brand of the tourist destination (Pereira et al., 2012). Besides, the tourist destination image is linked to tourists' self-image, since the way of life of tourists and their value system is the key to choosing a city destination (Ekinci, 2003).

Finally, it should be stressed that the creation of an image of a tourist destination is part of the promotion and promotion of that destination, namely the marketing of the tourist destination, which aims to increase the number of domestic and international arrivals to the destination (Cox and Wray, 2011). In this light, it should be noted that the marketing of the tourist destination aims, on the one hand, to preserve the 'assets' or otherwise the 'sources' of the tourist destination and, on the other hand, to provide a high level of experience from visiting the destination (Cox and Wray, 2011). Therefore, the marketing of the tourist destination, through and through creating an image, contributes to the development of tourism in the region and ensures the sustainability of the tourist destination's 'assets'.

The image of the tourist destination leads to the creation of a brand for this tourist destination. The benefits of a successful and effective destination brand design are as follows (Aziz and Friedman, 2013): achieving more generous profit margins, creating commercial value, a higher level of visitor-tourist engagement in the tourist destination, less vulnerability to the marketing activities of competing tourist destinations and marketing crises, greater cooperation and support from commercial partners, increased efficiency of marketing communication and finally the creation of a basis for coordinated actions of the private sector.

9. CREATE A BRAND FOR A TOURIST DESTINATION

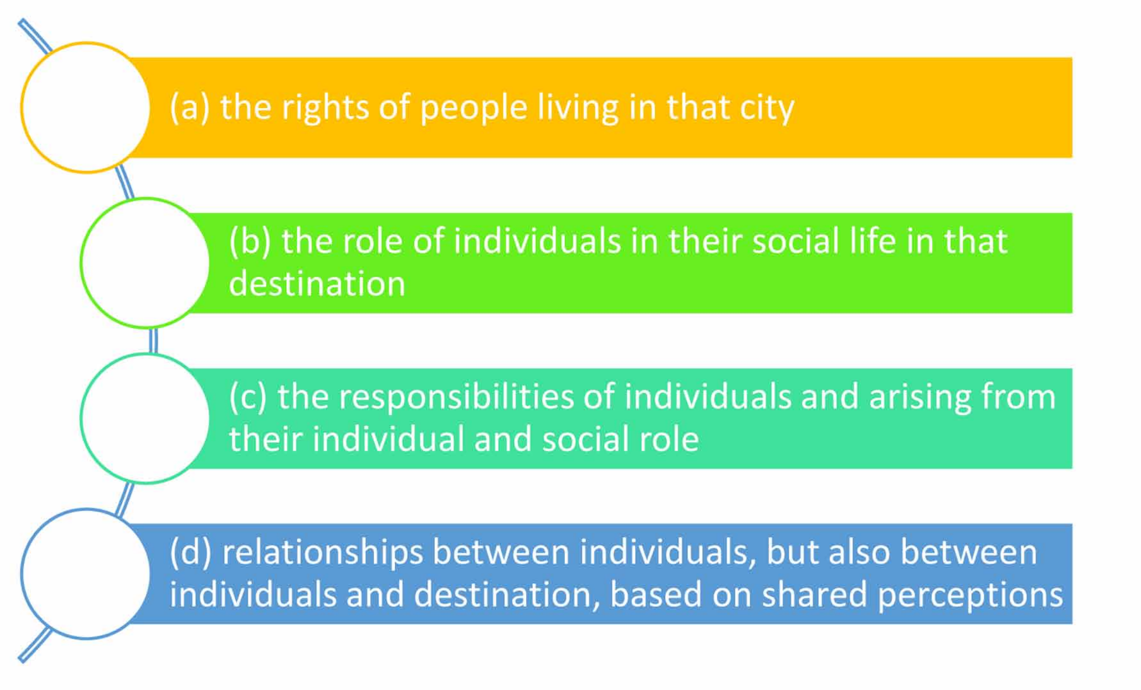
After presenting the tourist destinations' characteristics and creating an image for this destination, their relationship with the city branding concept should be highlighted. Although branding is primarily based on slogans and logos (Deliza et al., 1999), Wheeler et al. (2011) take the view that the emphasis placed on these two elements in the field of branding in tourism is not characterized by ingenuity and creativity, while advertising campaigns based on them are not as effective. In the same context, Gnoth (2007) states that the critical elements of a destination's brand are based on the destination's values as expressed through the political, economic and social life of the inhabitants of that destination.

Consequently, Wheeler et al.'s claim (2011) that a destination's branding requires a holistic approach and does not focus on specific characteristics can be supported. A city brand is a reflection of the complexity of local values, local culture and identity. It means that creating a city brand requires that the destination city inhabitants' history, geography, environment, economy, and characteristics be taken into account.

Trembath et al. (2011) talk about two branding strategies in their research using Australia's example. The authors initially say that destination branding strategy are based on consumers searching for and processing information about potential destinations with their final decision determined based on a favourable attitude towards a destination. However, Tremblath et al. (2011) is considering an alternative approach to creating a destination brand, which emphasizes the prominent position of a tourist destination as a factor in increasing the likelihood of being chosen by tourists.

Aitken and Campelo (2011) argue that the elements that should be taken into account when designing a brand for a city are: (a) the rights of people living in that city, (b) the role of individuals in their social life in that destination, (c) the responsibilities of individuals and arising from their individual and social role, (d) relationships between individuals, but also between individuals and destination, based on shared perceptions of how this destination affects people's attitudes and helps create meanings. Based on the

Figure 5. Elements of a brand design for a City



above, Aitken and Campelo (2011) claim that the dominant feature of city branding is the synthesis of all the factors mentioned above.

10. PROPOSALS FOR PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION

In order for tourist destinations to gain and maintain a competitive advantage, "they should highlight the particular characteristics of the destination and implement an aggressive marketing policy, with long-term planning and always putting the consumer at the heart of this strategy. In this light, the strategy of a marketing plan for a tourist destination should be based on understanding the consumer's needs – tourist, improving the tourist products/services provided and encouraging the dedication of visitors". Also, in light of the aesthetic upgrading of the urban environment, a comprehensive urban development strategy plan includes the following objectives (Integrated Urban Development Plans, 2007 – 2013):

- Improving the urban environment and improving the quality of life of residents
- Exploiting of cultural reserve - Highlighting the identity of the city - Strengthening a tourist product.
- Upgrading infrastructure and sports, culture and entertainment services.
- Promoting integration policies in business and the visibility of the region.
- Strengthening investment activity – Exploitation of new financial instruments

Achieve these objectives, and it is necessary to meet and satisfy certain conditions for an effective process of quality improvement and the application of total quality administration principles in city tourism.

In particular, we have the following:

- Creating of a well-structured and robust directorate, with institutional status, with the necessary means of action (financial and human), will have autonomy with a clear definition of responsibilities and will finally enjoy the support of public authorities, private sector bodies and the local population
- Implementing a partnership approach ranging from the project definition phase to monitoring its implementation will be based on close and coherent cooperation between all actors at the local, regional, national and even international levels. This strategy will enjoy the beneficial effects of cooperation, the multiplier effect of the actions and the economic scale.
- Developing a standard view of tourism development based on consultation between operators, consultation of the local population and an effective system of internal movement of information
- seeking a balanced distribution of the positive effects of urban tourism development between visitors, professionals in the sector, their staff and the local population. It is about creating the conditions for a lucrative game from which to derive added value for all.
- Defining a coherent policy and on-the-spot coordination of tourism services and other services responsible for urban development contributes substantially to visitors' satisfaction (environment, urban development, transport, cleanliness of public spaces, police, etc.).
- Introducing incentives to enhance the creation and encourage the development of private initiatives to improve tourism quality. These incentives will be constructive or repressive and will be able to take various forms (tax exemptions, aid and grants, information and promotion, prizes and prizes, training, etc.)

The challenge that the city is called upon to face as a destination lies in achieving a balance between the development contribution of tourism and its consequences, or more simply, the effective management of tourism development.

Since the early 1990s, the solution to this dilemma has been the concept of sustainable tourism development. The dominant parameters of sustainable tourism development are the following: (a) Specific planning of tourism development, aiming at a balance between society, the economy and the environment, b) Strengthening all measures (local development initiatives, functional links between different sectors of the economy, research, education, marketing) contributing to development feedback processes, (c) A specific institutional framework to promote sustainable tourism development processes and local participation, (d) Promotion of measures and policies contributing to the protection and promotion of the local natural and structured environment, (e) Use of specific and alternative forms of tourism as a critical axis of local tourism development.

Systematic planning for the development of the city and the formation of a city branding for tourists should be based on the following points:

- Recording, classification and evaluation of the tourist resources of the area and the tourist and general infrastructure of the city
- Recording the region's specialized marketing plan and establishing measures and evaluation methods for the effectiveness of the campaign

- Providing market surveys and studies recording demand and trends for the future
- Recording of the composition of human resources and the specific characteristics associated with tourism development

Based on the analysis carried out, and what constitutes city tourism, the strategic planning for the development of the branding of a metropolitan tourist city in Greece should aim at:

- promoting accessibility to the city by the tourists who make up the target group.
- strengthening infrastructure for the movement of tourists within the city
- coordination of the tourism product to promote engagement activities by segmentation of a tourist product and their best possible service
- consolidating the image of the city as a source of its competitive advantage
- creating new poles of ing for tourists to target and exploit existing
- strengthening balanced development (sustainable urban tourism)
- determining the impact of the arrival of tourists and finding ways to reduce them

Finally, based on the review conducted we observe that archaeology-history and overall culture (Xiao and Wall, 2009; Maitland and Newman, 2009; Getz, 2009; Shin, 2010; Richards, 2014), as well as the natural beauty and special features of the city (Movahed, 2002; Laing et al., 2008; Zanjiryan and Zahedi, 2010; Moosivand and Farahani 2013), are two of the leading players playing a dominant role in a city with historical and particular cultural characteristics.

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Chapter 7
The Nation Brand Image: :
Representation of the Identity and Creation of an Image of Places

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ABSTRACT

The chapter proposes an analysis of the phenomenon of nation branding from the point of view of the attribution of an identity to places and the consequent development of a collective imagination related to them. The starting point for this analysis is a historical excursus concerning the formation of a collective imaginary of places. Nation branding is a recent phenomenon, which takes up the legacy of other historical phenomena to propose an imaginary linked to the identity aspects of a nation, synthesising it in a few graphic signs through a brand. The chapter describes this process of the construction of the identity of a place and its visual expression through a brand image. The analysis is limited to the nation recognizability as a tourism destination and does not take under consideration the nation products and economy. The considerations are supported by the analysis of some emblematic case studies of brand image classified according to their graphic characteristics.

INTRODUCTION

The term "nation brand" first appeared in articles by Simon Anholt in 1998. It refers to the association of a brand with a nation or a city, in the same way as it is associated with a company. (Anholt, 1998). The motivations are in fact the same that come into play when a company designs its visual identity: to be recognisable and to communicate its values to the consumers.

The identity of a company or an institution has been defined as the set of the images or ideas or quality of an institution that people have or form going into relationship with them through elements, called contact points, such as trademarks, buildings, products, packaging, printed matter, vehicles, publications, uniforms, promotional activities. (Henrion, 1976).

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What distinguishes a branded product from other products and gives it value is the overall perception developed by consumers regarding its characteristics, the name that identifies it and its meaning, as well as the company associated with that brand. (Kotler, Scott, 2002).

Bauerle (1983) defines brand image as a mental representation, while Costa (1987) defines it as a mental representation in the collective memory of a stereotype or a set of attributes that can influence and change consumer behaviour.

Branding, up to now, has been used to highlight the difference between similar products and to strengthen the identity of a product by focusing on its uniqueness, and hence linking it to the place of origin or production. In recent years, branding, or the art of communicating values to make a product recognizable, has been applied in a completely new way to places, diffusely or limited to individual architectures, events, and installations. The communication in this case is designed to highlight the difference between one place and the others, to promote an identity and to create an interest to attract visitors.

The place thus becomes a product to promote associating it with a strong identity image, in the context of a more general trend motivated by the analysis that in the future will prosper the products that be presented not as goods but as concepts: brand as culture, experience, and lifestyle. (Klein, 2001).

Branding is a process used to charge a product of meanings, transforming it into a living entity with its own poignancy. It is used for planning and realize a coordinated set of actions in respect of a single strategic intent: to promote the sustainable growth of the business by consolidating the brand's reputation and uniqueness. (Pratesi, Mattia, 2006, pp. 36-37).

The Recognition Index, developed by the British researcher Simon Anholt, shows that people respond to the brand of a city in the same way they respond to brands when they want to buy a car or a clothing article. In this process, culture is an added value to be communicated to the public. "In truth, culture plays an essential role in the process of enriching a country's brand image, in driving the process from the initial shorthand of media communications towards a fuller and more durable understanding of the country and its values". (Anholt, 2005, p. 136). Cities with a strong historical and cultural connotation are clearly advantaged in this process (Kears and Philo, 1993).

One of the main strands of territorial branding is in fact the culture / entertainment branding (Evans, 2003) or the propensity to use culture, entertainment, and creativity to improve the physical, economic, and social environment, especially in the cities. This trend, widely diffused all over the world, exploits the cultural, creative and entertainment industries to attract tourists and residents. In this context, are included the contributions about the urban spatial planning (Evans, 2001, Ashworth, 2004), the studies on the creative class (Florida, 2002) and research on the construction of buildings and symbolic places by famous designers and architects to promote the image of a city turning into icons, as in the case of the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF AN IMAGE OF PLACES

Touristic images represent a specific sector of the overall worldview of individuals and are often deeply rooted in the mind of people. They can be defined as spatial images that refer to the potential of a place as a tourist destination.

Regarding the process of image formation of a place, Gunn proposed a scheme with three types of images. The first is the "organic image", due to the accumulation of mental images of a place through life. The second is the "induced image", due to the modification of images through researching prior to the decision to travel or during the travel that may condition the image. The third is a "modified-induced image", due to participation or experience at the destination; reflection and evaluation during the return travel; new accumulation of images. The process is circular, so the end image may be the same or different to the original one. (Gunn. 1972).

The "tourist gaze" (Urry, 1990) is something more than a simple recording of the objective characteristics of a place and can be considered as a set of codes and symbols able to condition the collective imagination influencing the choice of the destination of other travellers.

If we consider nation branding as the construction and diffusion of an identity linked to places, it is not conceptually an entirely new operation, but has its roots in the origins of tourism in the modern sense. In fact, the communication systems whereby the image of a place is conveyed are many and follow both spontaneous and deliberately designed and disseminated processes. "Every nation is a brand and most nations have had their brands made for them. The nation brand could have been developed deliberately or by default, formed form a myriad of different sources, such as word of mouth, education, mass media, travel, product purchases and dealings with its people." (Loo & Davies, 2006, p. 198)

In this sense, if the deliberate graphic creation of a brand that visually identifies a nation is a recent phenomenon, there are places where the creation of an imaginary is an ancient phenomenon, whose roots can be traced back to the era of the Grand Tour travellers. It is possible to define three salient ways in which a strong identity of places has been defined over time, becoming recognisable and attractive to the eyes of the public, based on certain cultural, monumental or landscape characteristics. The three modes, briefly illustrated here, are the written and illustrated diaries of the Grand Tour travellers; the graphic posters of the early twentieth century; and the cinematographic image. Each of these modalities, in different temporal periods, has strongly influenced the choice of travel destination, and has contributed to the definition of stereotypes concerning places that often still condition, positively or negatively, the perception of a vast public that does not have a direct knowledge of them.

Painting and Narrative at the Beginning of Tourism

Since the publication, in 1670, of the guide by Father Richard Lassels, Voyage of Italy or a complete Journey through Italy, Italy became a mandatory destination of the Grand Tour undertaken by the aristocratic youth of half of Europe; the history of those experiences is well known and widely documented by famous diaries and travel notes, which had a strong weight in the construction of the identity of some of those places. This period saw the development of landscape painting, with clearly defined characteristics related to the needs of travelers, who considered the view on the one hand as a tool for documentation and study, on the other hand as a memory and a symbol of the journey itself. (Briganti, 1990).

The journey done, often facing adversities away from the main routes, had to be meticulously documented, and the reported experience could be used as a starting point for the journey of others. The testimonies were of two types: literary narratives of an unforgettable adventure and visual works carried out by painters, architects, sculptors, engravers. These testimonies, of greater or lesser value, had a crucial role in the creation of an image of Italy and antiquity landscape. (De Seta, 2005).

A significant aspect to note is an early standardization of images, which shows how some places or views have become typical, then going to define the imaginary of a place. Analyzing the figurative traditions of landscapes, we realize that many images are repeated, and the existence of this iconographic code helps us to understand the function of these views. The iconographic standardization shows therefore the role of the images not only as a travel document, but also as a testimony of experience, a material and tangible expression of a memory.

Alongside images, the other channel for constructing the identity of places was the written narrative. The pages of Goethe's Journey to Italy published in 1817 or the words of Stendhal had a significant effect on the public if in those years a significant increase in foreign visitors to Italian cities began to be recorded. The era of the Grand Tour ended and began the one of bourgeois tourism, less erudite, but open to a wider public with more leisure time available.

At that time, at the very origins of tourism, a sort of hierarchy of attractions was defined. Standardisation began with the publication of the first modern guidebooks, created by the English writer John Murray in 1836 with the printing of the Red Books, dedicated to the beauties of Holland, Belgium and the Rhineland, in which illustrated and recommended the most picturesque and romantic itineraries. (Giordana, 2004). A few years later, the German Karl Boedeker disseminated throughout Europe the first pocket-size tourist guides with predefined itineraries and splendid illustrations, in which the objective description of places was replaced by a graphic narrative where the construction of a seductive imagery began to take place.

It is precisely this iconographic characteristic that gave great impetus to the arts of reproduction in the nineteenth century, first the lithography, which reproduced the views in high print runs for a public of travelers ever more numerous. Typical views of large fortune were defined for each city, often inserted into the nascent tourist guides, in form of topographical views. The Mediterranean was beginning to understand its potential in promoting himself.

Graphic Promotion

As the tourist demand and offers grew, it became clear that the attractiveness of places had to be built first of all as an opportunity for a travel experience, and then promoted through real communication strategies, in which the appearance of the first advertising images played a fundamental role. Among the first graphic promotion systems, we find luggage labels, which became widespread from the end of the 19th century, in parallel with the evolution of transport systems, and were initially provided in advance by hotels to their customers to mark the voluminous luggage they travelled with. Their enormous success, due on the one hand to the vanity of travellers who could testify their stay in luxury hotels, and on the other hand to the potential for hoteliers to advertise themselves with a minimum of expense thanks to the movement of travellers with the label applied to their luggage, made them a much-demanded tool, and at the same time a field of interesting graphic experimentation. At the beginning, on labels, as on postcards, the prevailing image was the building of the hotel whose activity needed to be promoted, surrounded by frames of various types containing information about the places and services. It was not until the early 20th century that the landscape and cultural context made its entrance, gradually assuming a significant role in defining the imaginary context to which the construction of potential tourist attractions would give increasing importance. The reference to the advertised hotel lost its importance, being reduced to the name next to the city, while graphic designers experimented with graphics and colours. The elements characterising places and landscapes began to be transformed into synthetic signs with a strong visual impact, typical of advertising promotion. (Cirafici and Piscitelli, 2014)

From 1890, following the development of transport and the consequent increase in tourism, railway companies, tourist resorts and various hotels began to print the first travel posters. The subjects were mainly railways or idyllic landscapes depicted in a romantic style. The lithographs of this period were characterised by the harmonious combination of different elements or panoramic views of the region. They often included illustrations of folklore characters and a calendar or a map, usually connected with gilded frames and floral motifs. Soon the custom of putting up posters for advertising purposes spread to all economic sectors, marking a profound change in the relationship between production and use of an image. With the poster, new elements were introduced into the dynamics of the reception of the visual message, which from this moment on developed not so much, or at least not only, around informative aspects, but rather around the power of suggestion and seduction. The affixing of a poster had to fulfil a new task, to capture the attention and seduce those who, by chance and perhaps distractedly, found themselves staring at its elements. What's more, the poster was required to generate needs and therefore its visual impact had to be powerful, immediate, capable of surprising and capturing attention with the power of images much more than with words.

The resulting image was therefore closely linked to the experience that was possible to live in that place from the point of view of the tourist, rather than the traditions and way of life of its inhabitants. It is the point of transition to the tourist dimension of the city, identified by a few graphic elements making it recognizable for a promotional objective, which is prevalent in the last decade of the nineteenth century and the first 30 years of the twentieth century, to be then slowly replaced by new and more powerful images.

Cinematographic Imagination

The strongest imagination of the nineteenth century has been expressed by the cinematographic representation of the city. According to Morin, who dedicated it a famous essay, the represented images are "a constitutive and simultaneous act of the real and the imaginary" (Morin, 1956. Tr. It. 1982, p. 11) and the movie is an imaginary show where "the illusion of reality is inseparable from the awareness that it is actually an illusion." (Ibid, p. 12). This awareness does not preclude to the places described by the cinema to enter the imaginary. From the first movies to the present day, many cities increased the number of visitors after a movie that made them enter the imaginary of a wider public. If we consider the environmental image in accordance with the definition of Lynch as the result of a reciprocal relationship between the observer and the environment (Lynch, 1960), it is evident that the cinematographic representation may have an even greater force than the physical image. In fact, it is already present in it a strong meaning, due to the eye of the director and the screenwriter, while in the real world the observer should look for it. The cinematographic representation of a city highlights not only spatial features, but also features related to the culture and habits of its inhabitants, that in a direct visit may not be perceived as a priority and instead become indissolubly linked to it.

Cinematographic imagination moves the centre of tourist attraction from Europe to the United States, of which it defines strong visual identities. The great American cities, New York first, are so rooted in the imaginary related to the cinema that many people, visiting them for the first time, have the impression of being on a movie set than in a real environment. Cinema and tourism in this sense are increasingly linking in a kind of integrated construction of the sites, where a visit to a country made famous by a movie is becoming an increasingly large segment of the market. (Crouch, Lubbren, 2003).

The allure of American lifestyles and culture is due to movies, television, pop music, that imposed stereotypes all over the world. According to Matthew Fraser, this imaginary has been a strategic resource for the American foreign policy, at the point to define it a soft power. Alongside the military or economic

Figure 1. Hugo D'Alési, promotional poster for Venice, 1896
Source: gallica.bnf.fr / *Bibliothèque nationale de France.*

power, the soft power is "the ability to achieve desired outcomes in international affairs through attraction rather than coercion". (Fraser, 2003, p. 18).

As in the case of advertising, which exploited the success of views to propose an identitary construction of places for promotional purposes, a similar process occurred in the cinema. The goal is the "tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination featured on the cinema screen, video or television" (Busby & Klug, 2001, p. 316).

The pervasiveness of a scenario and its ability to enter the public's imagination has started to be exploited to promote a territory, through a policy of destination placement. To favour the recognisability of the location, it is frequent to resort to the insertion of iconic elements in films, easily recognisable by the public and subsequently object of desire and therefore destination of a visit. Usually they are material icons, such as monuments or particularly evocative landscapes, already known, but sometimes a particular building or monument can undergo the reverse process, becoming an icon after having been known to the public thanks to its inclusion in a film.

BRAND IMAGE AND NATION IDENTITY

We have seen how the image of a country is conditioned by several factors, which act in a spontaneous or deliberate way. Apart from those mentioned above, which are in any case part of the entertainment and travel sector, there are many other factors: political, cultural, environmental, and so on, which can determine the perception of a place in the minds of its inhabitants and non-residents. The image can be positive or negative, and it does not necessarily coincide with the identity of the place.

To design a brand image, it is necessary to first understand which identity elements should be included in the communication strategy, as they best represent the values that a nation wants to present to the public. The importance of the representation of culture within a country's brand is in its uniqueness, which distinguishes and characterizes a nation over all others; filling with meaning a brand that otherwise would be ephemeral. Culture has been described as "the most intangible yet the most distinguishing element of any population and country". (Pant, 2005).

The cultural elements of national identity are wide-ranging, including language, traditions, history, flags, literature, food and drink, sport, architecture, landscape, and many other dimensions that nation branding strategists need to be aware to create and image deeply rooted in the reality and essence of the nation, rather than being merely a creation for advertising and marketing purposes.

A tourism brand must be the result of a system of culture and values expressed through specific visual characteristics. These characteristics describe the identity through the selection and synthesis of the objective, cognitive, emotional elements in a single name or symbol. A tourism brand proves to be effective if it represents a system of culture and values through a set of graphic elements that specifies its identity. The consonance of the brand image enhances the communicative effect of the other actions through a mutual support. The lack of consonance instead generates confusion and uncertainty about the positioning of the territory and consequently of its offers. A territorial brand is also the result of a continuous and dynamic construction process in the mind of the user of the territory. Therefore, it is influenced by experiences, memories and judgments expressed by other users. (Pastore and Bonetti, 2006).

Once the value system representing the nation has been defined, the graphic transcription phase begins, that is, the visual expression through a few signs capable of synthesising the brand vision in an image in the simplest possible way. An effective brand must be easily understandable and memorisable by the public who meet it. It must first allow local citizens to recognise themselves in it, and then allow those who have never visited the place to create a realistic and appealing, although partial, image of it.

Many components come into play in the design of a brand: the name of the brand; the heritage, intended as a narration of former events; codes of expression; graphical characteristics such as a logo, font size and type, colours; positioning of the product in the minds of its target market; status of its positioning in the market; personality expressed by the brand's character; everyday behaviour; emotional, descriptive and qualitative components that an individual associate with the brand; values and social awareness; image that the brand desires and that it presents to consumers; attitude of the brand's consumers towards it; and finally, attitude of the brand towards its consumers, intended as the need for brands to study, include and respect their consumers. (Lehu, 2006).

Often, the process of creation of a nation brand is constrained by existing national iconography as regards its visual manifestation. In any case, the process requires an operation of selection of a few identity elements among the infinite elements available. "It would be impossible to effectively develop a nation-brand identity that drew upon every strand of a country's national identity. External audiences – potential tourists, investors, students, workers, etc. – are not going to be willing to receive gargantuan amounts of information about a country's history, culture and people. Therefore, a key task of those engaged in constructing a nation-brand identity is to be selective in identifying which elements of national identity can usefully serve the stated objectives of the nationbranding campaign". (Dinnie, 2008, p.46).

Graphic transcription can be based on different types of visual configuration, as illustrated in the following examples.

Brand Images Based on Lettering

Many territorial marks do not have a graphic symbol to identify them, but their visual image is based only on lettering. In fact, they are designed through a graphic study carried out only on the letters that compose the name of the nation.

This is the case of perhaps the best-known territorial mark in the world: "I Love New York", defined by its creator, Milton Glaser, the most replicated ephemeral object of the twentieth century. It was created in 1976 on commission of the Department of Commerce of New York, which banned an advertising competition for the development of tourism in the state, and not only in the city, of New York. (Pincas and Loiseau, 2008). The semiotic heart / love metaphor, skilfully exploited by the brand, has entered the common language at a universal level contributing to its enormous diffusion. The reasons for this exceptional mass acceptance can be found in the formal simplicity and visual essentiality of the brand, which allow its message to get straight to the heart, in its most sober form, precisely because it is stripped of all stylistic artifacts.

Another example of very significant branding has been realized in 2004 for the city of Amsterdam with an interesting experience of territorial marketing. The idea was to transform the name into a multipurpose claim developed by the Kessel & Kramer agency: "I am-sterdam". It means that the citizens are Amsterdam, and this affirmation as a brand brings out the pride and sense of belonging to the city. (http://www.iamsterdam.com). In addition to its use in the information campaigns and on the portal in multiple languages, the slogan has become a physical work. The two-meter height and 23-meter-long inscription quickly became an icon of the city. The results of this massive image campaign were an increase in tourism and in recognition in the City Brands Index.

The two brands are comparable as both are based on the feeling of belonging, which in the case of New York is expressed by the love for the nation, while in the case of Amsterdam it goes even further, reaching the identification with the city. In both cases, in fact, the brand speaks first to the citizens who identify themselves in a unique symbol, and then to the visitors who participate in the same experience. The other key word of both brands is experience since love is an experience as well as being part of the city.

Another analogy is in the linguistic rebus that is presented. In the first case the "I" is the only real word, the heart is a symbol subtending the verb to love, while NY are the initials of the state of New York. In the second case "am" is both a verb and part of the word Amsterdam. Finally, simplicity in the colours used, limited to black/white and red. The red is used in the part of the mark to be decoded, the heart for New York, and the lettering part "I am" for Amsterdam. The parts in question are also the most closely linked to the concept of love and belonging, and red is par excellence the colour used in graphics to express emotions and feelings. It is also useful to emphasise the absence of any iconic connotations recalling physical or cultural aspects of the place.

Conceptually similar is the idea behind the brand for Peru created by Futurebrand in 2011 for initiative of the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism of Peru. (https://www.futurebrand.com/our-work/peru). In this case, the belonging has the meaning of inclusion, in a multicultural country open to diversity, in which each person can recognise himself. This idea is reinforced by the pay-off ‘A country for everyone’, which simply and directly expresses the meaning of inclusion. From a graphic point of view, the brand consists of a spiral, evoking the decorative motifs of past civilisations and linking the country to its history, while at the same time expressing multiculturalism and inclusiveness. The colour chosen is red as in the previous examples, most often used as the background of the brand in white.

Figure 2. Characteristics of the brand image of New York

	**Graphical elements**	Word: I Symbol: heart Initials: NY
	Composition	Elements composed in a square
	Colors	Red Black
	Associations	Belonging Love Emotion

Brand Images Based on Iconic Images

Another category, from the point of view of graphic characteristics, is represented by trademarks that make use of a strong visual element, capable of identifying a particularly evocative element of the nation.

A nation’s cultural heritage can be communicated through symbols, emblems, icons and other popular associations, as parts of its identity. Collective identification with these symbols built up over time makes them a rich source of iconic images.

An interesting example of this trend is the branding operation carried out by the UK tourist board, in which a single slogan is applied to the whole kingdom: ‘VisitBritain’ and to the individual states: ‘VisitEngland’, ‘VisitScotland’, ‘VisitIreland’ and ‘VisitGalles’, as well as the main cities. The United Kingdom flag is used as the overall logo, making it recognisable and evocative to both citizens and visitors. Each state has a different symbol linked to its own history, culture and country characteristics.

Figure 3. Characteristics of the brand image of Amsterdam

Graphical elements	Letters
Colours	Red, white
Associations	Belonging, identity, identification

In all cases, for the local people it is an element with a strong symbolic value, traditionally associated with that geographical area so strongly as to become an icon.

England has the Windsor rose, a symbol which was adopted by the royal Tudor dynasty from 1486, Scotland the thistle, Wales the daffodil and Ireland the shamrock. Although some of these symbols may appear unusual, they are all traditionally rooted in the local culture. The thistle, as well as being a characteristic feature of the Scottish landscape, has been used as a heraldic symbol for over 500 years. It first appeared as a royal symbol on silver coins minted by James III in 1470. Today it is used in many emblems of local sports teams and companies. The shamrock as a symbol of Ireland also has ancient origins and is found in iconographic documentation of St Patrick from the 1600s.

The brand image operation is very effective as it groups the states and cities of the United Kingdom under a common identity and a single slogan, which acts as a recognisable element for tourists. It acts like an umbrella brand, endorsing local brands and providing meaning to their positioning. The same slogan is adapted each time to the context to be promoted through an iconic element, to differentiate itself in its uniqueness while remaining linked to the general identity. The invitation to the public is therefore to discover the different souls of the places, their culture and traditions. The communication is based on the value of history, which through symbols rooted in local culture has reached the present day.

A similar example from the point of view of brand image is the New Zealand logo, where we find again a floral symbol, a fern leaf. The silver fern leaf is an iconic element, used on coins, unofficial flags, and as a symbol of many sports teams. It symbolises the change and rebirth of the New Zealand people. For this reason, it was chosen in 1991 as a visual element for the brand image for tourism purposes of the country, whose image is associated above all with its natural beauty. “A country’s unique national assets commonly feature as national symbols to represent the country and its people at home and abroad. NZ’s diverse natural environment is the source of some of its most visible national symbols. Among the most prominent are the fern and the kiwi bird. […] Despite the diversity of images and symbols that internal and external audiences associate with NZ, the fern stands out as warranting special attention due to its

Figure 4. Characteristics of the brand image of Great Britain and England

VisitBritain®	**Graphical elements**	Flag Slogan
	Composition	Square. Text centred
	Colors	Red Blue
	Associations	Identity History Tradition
VisitEngland™	**Graphical elements**	Winsor rose Slogan
	Composition	Circle. Text centred
	Colors	Red
	Associations	Identity History Tradition

prevalence and emergence as an iconic signature of the nation. Thus, the fern was adopted for official nation branding purposes by the country's lead trade and development agency, New Zealand Trade and Enterprise, to unify the values of the country brand and to promote coherence and consistency in the communication of messages about brand NZ. (Florek & Insch, 2008).

The brand does not use colour, but only black and white with positive - negative variations depending on the application. To further reinforce the concept of uniqueness on which the brand relies, a communication campaign was designed with the slogan "100% pure New Zealand".

Figure 5. Characteristics of the brand image of New Zealand

Graphical elements	Fern, Slogan
Colours	Black / white
Associations	Nature, unicity, experience

Brand Images Based on Abstract Images

In other examples, the graphic part of the brand is instead composed of abstract elements, which nevertheless carry meanings associated with the nation, and can be just as evocative as a brand image based on an icon. In this case, the connection between the nation and its image follows almost unconscious emotional paths, often characterised by a strong use of symbolism in colours as well as in shapes. The first territorial brand based on an abstract image, and one of the most successful examples, is the brand of Spain. The logo was commissioned by the *Administración Turística del Estado* to the artist Joan Miró in 1983. The idea was to use a visual symbol to represent the glow of the sun in Spain, but at the same time the many attractions the country could offer to visitors. It is the last work of the artist, who died shortly afterwards, and rather than a brand that was conceived from scratch, it is made from the union of two of his works: *'El sol y la estrella'* of 1968 and the design made for the 1982 World Cup, which represented the sun and Spanish arts. The colours used are red and yellow, both warm colours, associated with the image of the sun, as well as black, also used for the text Espana. The style is typical of the artist's work, evoking feelings of cheerfulness, familiarity and fun, all characteristics associated with tourism in Spain. Since it is the work of an artist, it also evokes the soul of culture and art, which are also reasons often behind the choice of Spain as a destination. The promotional campaign with the payoff: "Smile, you are in Spain", launched in 2005, accentuates this image of a country with many opportunities to visit and enjoy. Despite initial unfavourable reactions, it quickly became one of the most recognisable territorial brands, bringing benefits to the tourism development.

Conceptually similar, although more recent (2004), is the brand for promoting tourism in Brazil. The values to be conveyed through the brand, in the intentions of the Brazilian government, were: cheerfulness as a characteristic of the people and as fun for visitors; the sinuosity of the mountains or the waves of the sea; the brightness of the sun and the sky; the exuberance of the landscape and the local population; the diversity of races, cultures and religions, reflected in the architecture, handicrafts, music and festivals; the modernity of the country and the offer of services and infrastructures.

The construction of the Brazil brand consists of a multicoloured symbol and the textual positioning of the Brazil text and the slogan: “Sensational!”. The shapes are abstract, and the symbolism is linked to the use of colours: green represents forests; yellow represents the sun and brightness; blue evokes the water and the sky; red represents popular festivals and white represents religious festivals. (Mariutti and Giraldi, 2012).

In addition, the motif of sinuosity is expressed in the curves of the graphic elements, the joy in the brightness of the vivid colours that make up the brand, the diversity in the different coloured elements that overlap to create a single graphic sign; the modernity in the abstract forms and in the formal cleanliness of the font used for the name Brazil. From a composing point of view, the name of the country is positioned exactly in the space where all the graphic elements overlap, giving the sense of belonging of all these elements to a single nation. The slogan “Sensational!” reinforces the symbolic meanings and synthesises them in a single word with a strong communicative impact.

Figure 6. Characteristics of the brand image of Spain

Graphical elements	Circles Star Name
Composition	Circle Text centred
Colors	Red Yellow Black
Associations	Sun Fun Art

The Case of Italy

At the end of this overview of examples of brand image now widely known and recognisable by the public, Italy, which was the protagonist of the tourist imagery at the beginning of travel, is absent. In fact, it has not expressed a strong and unique brand image that characterises it on a global level, and so the image has remained linked to many aspects that do not find a concrete visual expression that can summarise them.

Figure 7. Characteristics of the brand image of Brazil

Graphical elements	Abstract forms Name
Composition	Forms overlapped. Text centred
Colors	Red, White Yellow Blue, Green
Associations	Sun Fun Diversity

About the importance of culture in the Italian brand proposal, Anholt writes: "If Italy's image was only communicated through its commercial brands, which are mainly in the fashion and lifestyle arena, it might seem like a shallow, superficial, fun-loving and highly stylish place but without much depth. So, the high awareness of figures like Michelangelo, Dante, Leonardo, Galileo, Vivaldi and Verdi (not to mention Luciano Pavarotti, Roberto Benigni and Andrea Bocelli in more recent times and in a more populist vein) as well as the 'location sub-brands' of Venice, Florence and Rome, provide a profound counterpoint to a very attractive melody". (Anholt, 2005, p. 137).

In terms of brand recognisability, Italy has seen a decline in recent years compared to other countries that have adopted specific policies in this direction. FutureBrand's Country Brand Index 2014-15, an analysis that ranks countries based on the strength of their perception, ranks Italy 18th in the world, showing a continuous loss of positions over the previous 10 years. This is a very important ranking because it defines the appeal of a destination in the eyes of travellers, not just international ones, based on six parameters: Value System; Quality of Life; Business Potential; Heritage and Culture; Tourism; Made In (perception of brands produced in the country). Having risen to 14th place in the 2019 report, Italy has currently lost one position and is ranked 15th in the FutureBrand 2020 report. According to FutureBrand, countries are identified as the sum of their identity and reputation. Not all countries, however, in their view possess the identifying qualities of a brand. This means that not everyone has a strong identity in the international imagination, but those who have it, have more possibilities to be chosen as a destination for tourism, study, or business. Of the 75 States surveyed, only 22 were defined as "Country brands". Looking at the ranking table concerning the six parameters used, we note that Italy, unlike its ranking based on aggregate data, comes first for Tourism (which includes: value for money; attractions; hospitality; desire to spend a holiday there; food) and for Heritage and Culture (which includes: places of historical interest; heritage, art and culture; natural beauty). Regarding the ranking of the most influential cities, however, the only Italian city present is Rome at 17th place in the world ranking in 2015, decreased to 20th in 2019 and now 16th in the 2020 report. (FutureBrand, 2015; 2019; 2020).

The analysis of the HDM model (Hierarchical Decision Model) measures the evolution of a brand based on its positioning in the mind of the consumer. It is clear the association of the Italian brand to art, culture, history (Best Country Brand for Art and Culture), the excellent cuisine, and the friendliness of the people (Best Country Brand for Fine Dining). It is clear then that the distinguishing feature of the Italy brand in the world is the image of a place rich in culture and historical and natural beauty. These qualities should be expressed by a brand image capable of making the country recognisable and attractive by focusing on its cultural heritage with appropriate communication.

As regards visual communication, there is still a lack of a unified and strong image: the Italia brand used by ENIT, the national tourism agency, is not present in the other promotional campaigns, nor is it illustrative of the main aspects to which the image of Italy in the world is linked. Similarly, none of the world-famous Italian cities, from Rome to Venice and Florence, has a strong, recognisable visual image used in tourism promotion campaigns. This is a paradox for a nation that has been one of the first in the world to be known for the imaginary linked to its places.

CONCLUSION

The analysis of tourist collective imagination, of an interdisciplinary nature, is essential for understanding the contemporary tourism phenomenon. It makes it possible to understand when a country became a tourist destination and for which reasons, whether the imagination of travellers has evolved over time and following which changes, and whether the imaginary and stereotypes about that place, either positive or negative, have conditioned its use. The tourism system has a close relationship with the imagery that shapes and directs. The construction of tourism images is dialectical: they are produced and used by the tourism industry and local policies, but they are also produced and adopted by the tourists themselves, who can modify them and feed their diffusion.

An attempt to understand the characteristics of those images that, in the past and today, seem to be evocative and unforgettable for the observer, leads to the common denominator of the emotional charge. For psychology scholars, in the formation of an imaginary from a representation there is always an emotional component, a symbolic charge, the memory of an archetype. According to an interpretation derived from Jung's writings about the archetype and taken up by Gilbert Durant: "Every human thought is a representation, or it passes through symbolic links [...] thus, the imaginary is the obligatory connector through which every human representation constitutes itself". (Durand, 1973, p. 28).

The representation can enter the imagination when it gives to a place a sense that can stimulate the memory of an archetype present in collective memory, and thus becomes a symbol, a strong and immediate recognition element.

This concept is also valid for the brand image of territories. The most successful brands were those which, in reproducing the identity of the place, focused on the emotional aspects of the visit. Regardless of the graphic theme used, the communication was successful when it succeeded in establishing a connection between the identity characteristics of the place and their graphic expression, and in making the public identify with the proposed image, fulfilling the same task as the views or tourist posters of the past.

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Chapter 8
Online Place Branding:
Identity Features and Facts

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ABSTRACT

This chapter provides a new methodological analysis grid on the topic of the variations of identity characteristics that appear on the webpages of country brands, highlighting the theoretical perspectives, strategies, and ways in which brands are built in the socio-cultural environment by their stakeholders or their legal owners and the valences of the reconstruction or adaptation of brands in the online environment, from the perspective of Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 dynamics, while shaping the core components and the dynamics of the nation brand identity. A corpus of 80 cases of official country brands were analyzed as primary data source by applying a quantitative-qualitative research method of studying and analyzing different forms of communication (the content analysis) on the official websites of place brands (countries) in order to determine a systematic and quantifiable way for measuring the identity characteristics of those brands.

INTRODUCTION

The chapter entitled "Online Place Branding. Identity Features and Facts" provides a new methodological analysis grid on this topic, highlighting the theoretical perspectives, strategies and ways in which brands are built in the socio-cultural environment by their stakeholders or their legal owners and the valences of the reconstruction or adaptation of brands in the online environment, from the perspective of Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 dynamics, while shaping the core components and the dynamics of the nation brand identity in the second part of the chapter (i.e., the practical approach of the chapter).

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The variety of concepts and the multidisciplinary perspectives in approaching the brands and the expression of the identity of places in areas such as economics, psychology, public relations, sociology and cultural studies have structured and defined more clearly the topic of the chapter and the methodological choices applied in the practical stage. Individual directions of research have led to important discoveries (Papadopoulos, 2004, Anholt, 2006, 2008, 2010b, Hanna and Rowley, 2008). Moreover, there are a multitude of published studies that provide clues about how branding a place is used (Anholt, 2005b, 2007, 2010a, Skinner and Kubacki, 2007, Govers and Go, 2009).

Theoretically, the academic resources published in the international scientific flow, with the generic theme of place branding, have contributed to the (relative) establishment of generally accepted aspects, such as: (1) places can be subject to the branding process (Kotler and Gertner, 2002, Kerr, 2006); (2) in many ways, places differ from products (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2000, Fan, 2006); and (3) as a consequence, branding a place is a special case of branding that differs from other fields of application (e.g., products or companies), requiring additional theoretical research (Gudjonsson, 2005, Anholt, 2007, Dinnie, 2008) and the development of unique online processes (Simeon, 2001, Florek, Insch and Gnoth, 2006, Pitt et al., 2007, Florek, 2011, Alonso and Bea, 2012).

Thus, the authors followed in the first level of research (i.e., the theoretical and methodological orientation of the chapter), the description of the core concepts (brand, branding, the dynamics and forms of branding associated with consumer products, corporate environment and places, other related structures involved in place branding, such as identity and brand image and the materialized brand frameworks, such as: space, place, online environment, Web 1.0 and Web 2.0) (Briciu and Gulpe, 2018; Briciu, Briciu and Demeter, 2019). Product brands (e.g. cars, food products, clothing, cosmetic products) are easier to manage by brand managers because they are produced, manufactured and their reputation depends on the manufacturers. In this study, we will use the economic approach of treating places as consumer products, from a functional perspective of the brand, from which individuals are seen as 'homo economicus', consumer decisions are based on rational motives, so there are transactions between the brand and the consumer which are more or less tangible.

Even though destination or place branding – which we will define in this study by limiting ourselves to the tourism dimension of it – is a relatively new concept, it is generally considered that there is a general agreement among academics and practitioners that destinations (or places, in general) can be branded in the same way as consumer goods and services.

These concepts are identified and presented in marketing and corporate communication, in the two perspectives of brand management: the positivist and the constructivist (interpretative) paradigms, as theoretical guidelines in explaining the phenomenon of consumption of products, services, culture, spaces, destinations, places, and websites. Following these conceptual and empirical clarifications, a more focused scientific approach is being defined on a specific niche: brands and branding process in general and their presence in the online environment, in particular. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks regarding the definition of brand, place branding and their materialization in the online environment determined and clarified the purpose of the research; it consists in identifying the characteristics of brand presence in the virtual environment and the analysis of the online identity characteristics of place brands.

So, the objective of the study aims to clarify the ways in which the authorities involved in place brand management choose to use new technologies in order to communicate their online identity. In order to complete the practical stage, we have focused on a methodology repository, applying an already validated instrument, scientifically recognized, which could generate standardized and comparable results, from previous research, addressing the online identity of place brands issue.

However, exploring contextualization, which is now mandatory for place brands in the online environment, has imposed a 'technology transfer', a multidisciplinary vision, leading to the integration of more conceptual and methodological frameworks, specific to multiple sectors: political communication, corporate marketing and place branding. In order to achieve the research objective, we have opted for using a descriptive-explanatory type of research, following a nonprobability sampling technique, having a predefined goal based on a corpus consisting of the official websites of the brands. As a quantitative-qualitative alternative, content analysis was chosen as a research method for the communication content, while the work technique consisted of frequency analysis applied to a category/ coding grid, as the research tool, presented in Table 1 from Appendix 1 (Briciu, 2020, p. 218-219).

Background

Brands guarantee that products meet certain standards of quality and reliability and that the manufacturers will be there in case something is not working well on the market. For example, "a brand like Toyota has achieved influence primarily through its economic reputation, garnered over decades, for making very reliable and safe autos at a good price" (Holt, 2006b, p. 356). By following the relation between the determinant factors of brands, the effects that they have on consumers and their economic value, some scholars suggest the following explanation:

Brands differentiate products and represent a promise of value. Brands incite beliefs, evoke emotions and prompt behaviors [...] Brand equity translates into customer preference, loyalty and financial gains. Brands are appraised and traded in the marketplace. Brand equity has been pointed out to include many dimensions, such as performance, social image, value, trustworthiness and identification (Kotler and Gertner, 2002, p. 249-250).

Holt (2006a) considers branding to be "a distinctive mode of capital accumulation [...] generates profits by creating and then exploiting various sorts of social dependency. A brand becomes an economic asset for the firm when people come to count on the brand to contribute to social life, when it is embedded in society and culture" (p. 300). This aspect reflects a form of a Marxist ideological influence, just as economic transactions developed in the U.S.A., after World War II, through an international expansion, introducing the term "coca-colonization", reminding us, under this acceptance – of a false conscience or understanding – of Marx's famous words: "they do not know it, but they are doing it" (Marx and Engels, 1966, p. 88), expressing a form of conditioning, an exact replica of the capitalist system. By rearranging brand dimensions instead of capital types, we introduce value concepts: value in use and value in exchange. While value in use is sought by residents and visitors through their lifestyle and by discovering a place, value in exchange has a role in the growth of the business environment and economic development.

Product brands (e.g. cars, food products, clothing, cosmetic products) are easier to manage by brand managers because they are produced, manufactured and their reputation depends on the manufacturers, seen as a strategic asset of the organization (Sophocleous, Masouras, Papademetriou, 2019). In this paper, we will use the economic approach of treating places as consumer products, from a functional perspective of the brand, from which individuals are seen as "homo economicus", consumer decisions are based on rational motives, so there are transactions between the brand and the consumer which are more or less tangible.

Even though destination or place branding – which we will define in this paper by limiting it to the tourism dimension – is a relatively new concept, it is generally considered that there is "a general agreement among academics and practitioners that destinations (or places, in general) can be branded in the same way as consumer goods and services" (Caldwell and Freire, 2004, p. 50-51). This point of view is accepted and emphasized by another scholar: "a destination brand may be seen to be more closely aligned to a product brand defining the «tourism product»" (Kerr, 2006, p. 280) and considering the complexity of dimensions defining places (including countries), they were identified as "mega-products" (Markowski, 1997 in Florek et al., 2006, p. 277).

It is exactly thanks to these characteristics, that interest in brands and research about them appear, as a combination of various fields of research, practice and strategy which usually aim to suggest pragmatic models concerning the "effects" produced by brands, through quantitative analysis (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). However, more recent studies, supporting the constructivist paradigm, which reflects brand "nature" as "a living entity with a personality with which we can form a relationship and that can change and evolve over time" (Hanby, 1999, p. 12), indicate that the general functioning mechanism of brands is being reconsidered and that the attention is now drawn away from products and manufacturers, to the answers and services offered to the consumer in understanding the formation process of brand value (Muñiz, Jr. and O'Guinn, 2001). Within this community approach, consumers, employees and organisations are thought to be establishing, building and carrying out their own identities and concepts, testing new roles and creating their own identities within and through brand culture.

Concept Variations on Destination, Place and Nation Marketing and Branding

In the Editorial entitled *Definitions of place branding – working towards a resolution,* Anholt (2010b) noted that: „The development from place promotion to place marketing and thence to place brand are all relatively straightforward logical transitions; it is the transition from place brand to place branding that presents the most serious conceptual and practical difficulties" (p. 7). Kerr adopts Anholt's perspective on place branding: "the practice of applying brand strategy and other marketing techniques and disciplines to the economic, social, political and cultural development of cities, regions and countries" (Kerr, 2006, p. 278).

Place branding "enhances the development of a region or a place not only in terms of leisure and tourism, but also in terms of attracting inward investments, enhancing the existing culture and heritage, developing facilities for local residents, and welcoming new residents, employees and skilled migrants" (Hankinson, 2007 in Maheshwari and Vandewalle, 2008, p. 6). In the same sense of the terms, Nicolescu (2008) explains:

Places, as geographical locations, can receive a brand (Ph. Kotler et al., 1999, 2002; K. L. Keller, 1998; G. Hankinson, 2001; M. M. Trueman et al., 2001, Ph. Kotler și D. Gertner, 2002). In this case, we are talking about place branding. As part of place marketing, place branding is especially trying to increase the attractiveness of a place. The concept of place branding is a relatively new umbrella concept that covers the concepts of nation branding, region branding and city branding. The term was first used by S. Anholt in 2001 and has been developed by many specialists, proving to be a powerful tool in recent years, with a growing popularity among both theorists and practitioners. (p. 11)

It is important to note that "branding a country is not the same thing as promoting tourism. The promotion of tourism obviously occupies more common ground with nation-branding than any other aspect of a country's external affairs, but it is merely part of the whole." (Hankinson, 2005 in Kerr, 2006, p. 281).

Also at the level of this discussion, other concepts are found in the academic discourse, synonymous with place branding: thematic branding, regional branding, geographical branding or geo-brands.

Geographic branding refers to the process of branding a place within the strict boundaries of geographical settings (e.g., countries, cities, regions), as "different spatial scales" (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2010, p. 10). Thematic branding refers to the process of branding a place according to specific themes that attract particular market segments (e.g., France - the world capital of gastronomy, Scotland - the homeland of the Gulf). This concept can go beyond geographical branding in terms of significance, allowing more countries or regions to work together if they offer similar experiences.

In the article entitled *Region branding: The case of the Baltic Sea Region*, Andersson (2007) proposes that the term brand be linked to that of the regions in the context of the analysis of the Baltic Sea region, referred to as a 'meta-region' or a 'macro-region' (p. 122). The basic meaning of the concept of region is:

a geographical unit delimited by more or less natural physical barriers and marked by ecological characteristics. For this kind of region to develop into a higher level of maturity, a substantial amount of economic interactions and cultural exchange, political stability, a high level of security and some degree of institutionalization, are needed. A mature region is an acting subject with a distinct identity, actor capability, legitimacy, and structure of decision-making; a region that is able to solve its own conflicts whatever they might be (Andersson, 2007, p. 126).

In the same way, through a sustained effort by 12 prefectures in Japan to identify ways of regional development, the opportunity of regional branding appears, even if "the history of regional brand initiatives is short, and not enough theory has been accumulated" (Ikuta et al., 2007, p. 133).

Freire (2006) supports the idea that it is not only possible, but also desirable to talk about place brands or geo-brands (brands applied to places - countries, regions or cities) (p. 69). The term geo-brand "is not a creation of 'clever' entrepreneurs but it is a result of changes in society. Branding places does not equate with the commercialization of local culture, but with the protection and promotion of diversity. The geo-brand concept can be seen as an intelligent answer for local sustainable development." (Freire, 2005, p. 347), appearing in context of "contemporary society and is probably the strongest tool society will ever have to protect and maintain its identity and fight the trend of modern standardization" (Freire, 2005, p. 348).

Before presenting the main theoretical perspectives and discussions about nation branding, it should be stated the distinction which must be operated between nation and country branding. Without constructing an explanation of the nation-state-country differences or convergences), it can be noted that "nation generally refers to a large group of people of the same race and language, while a country means an area of land occupied by a nation. Although nation and country are used interchangeably in the literature, there is a subtle difference between nation brand/ image and country brand/ image" (Fan, 2006, p. 5).

The theoretical and practical perspectives of *nation branding* are just in formation, as this term was originally proposed by Anholt in 1996 (according to Anholt, 2007), based on his observation that "the reputations of countries are rather like the brand images of companies and products, and equally important" (Anholt, 2007, p. xi), aspect later denied by the author: "Let me be clear: there is no such thing as 'nation branding'. It is a myth, and perhaps a dangerous one." (Anholt, 2010a, p. 1). With only two and a half decades of experience and activity "some practitioners argue (e.g. Olins, 2002) that countries have always branded and re-branded themselves in the course of history, and therefore nation branding is not a novel concept, simply a new term for image management" (Szondi, 2008, p. 3). Even in this form, nation branding, from a historical point of view, can only be seen as a tactical choice, defined by a certain context and not under a more modern formula of definition, as a strategic, planned, holistic and coherent process. Another author discusses about the *national brand* as "meta-brand, which includes a multitude of primary and secondary brands, which researchers recommend managing using the brand portfolio method" (Hassman, 2008, p. 40). The national brand portfolio involves the use of all active brands (according to Figure 1 below): "the national meta-brand, the nation brand (government and policy), sector brands (tourism, export, investments, immigration and culture), regional and urban brands, corporate brands, product brands." (Hassman, 2008, p. 40).

Figure 1. The Nation Brand Portfolio
Source: R. Hassman, 2008, p. 41

In an attempt to unify and standardize the various perspectives, terms, concepts and definitions found in literature, but also through practical examples, Fan (2006, p. 6-7) makes a typology of nation branding. He believes that this type of branding can be approached in various forms, from the simplest to the most complex model built. Thus, he considers that the most basic form of nation branding is that of the image between a product and a country (the effect of the country of origin), because the purpose of using such an image of the country "has the clear purpose of using the nation's image to promote sales and exports." (Fan, 2006, p. 6). As Papadopoulos (2004) noted in his essay published in the first issue of the academic journal *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, a parallel can be drawn between the "country of origin effect" and the process of branding a place. In a similar way for tourism, *export is a sector consisting mainly of private operators independently marketing their own goods and services directly to consumers, but with an 'umbrella ' effect provided by the state. For this reason, export marketing forms another bridge between the state and the private sector, and it is easy to see how expertise in promoting the products of a certain country leads, via the observation that a positive country image provides a powerful brand asset to that country's exports, to the conclusion that the country's image needs management just as a corporation's or product's brand needs management. (Anholt, 2010b, p. 3).*

A second form recognized by Fan (2006) is that of place branding (putting the equal sign between three other concepts like place branding, place marketing, destination marketing, whether it is a city, a region or a country) - defined by promoting a space as a tourist destination and the implications on some related economic segments. A last form, the most complex, is considered by the author "nation branding in its true sense" (Fan, 2006, p. 6), exemplifying the case of Great Britain through the concept of "Cool Britannia" and Germany – "Deutschland Europe", both without any real or positive results.

Therefore, by presenting the dynamic forms of branding in the literature this section of the chapter proposed a synthesis of the main stages in the evolution and development of research in the field of place branding, in the international scientific flow. Terms such as "place marketing" and "place branding" (Hanna and Rowley, 2008, Kavaratzis, 2004, Kotler and Gertner, 2002, Papadopoulos, 2004) were presented. Some studies focus on "city branding" (Kavaratzis, 2005), on "region branding" (Andersson, 2007) or "country branding" (Dinnie, 2008). Tourism and holiday marketing studies tend to use the term "destination branding" (Morgan *et al.*, 2004). The most recent term used is "competitive identity" (Anholt, 2007), in an attempt to avoid negative associations with brands (Kaneva, 2011, p. 121).

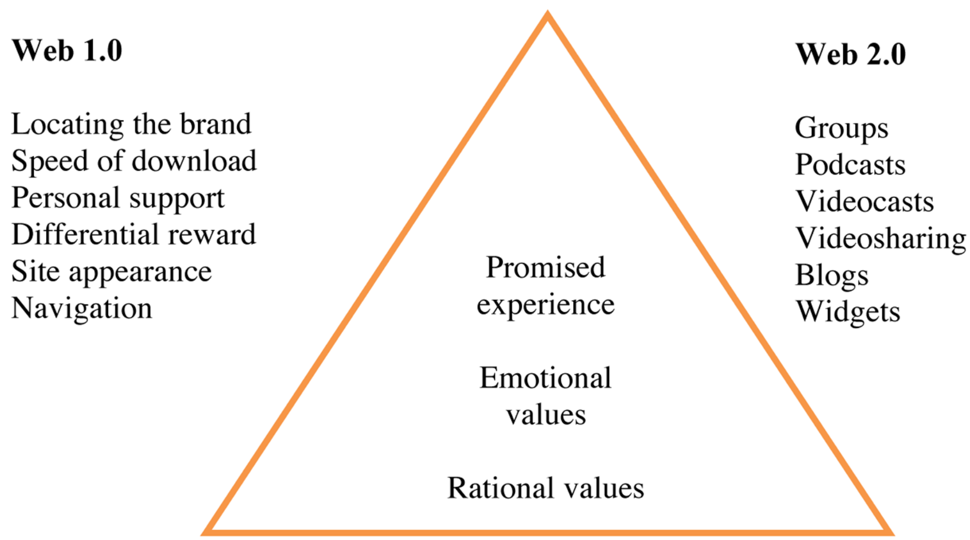
Characteristics of Brands and Place Branding on the Internet

Discussing about the materialization of brands in the new virtual environment, one can argue that "brand is a brand regardless of context. What changes is the enactment of the brand" (Christodoulides, 2009, p. 143). When the brand concept was initially adopted in the online environment, the sites became "fundamental tools of communication" (Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 315) for any type of brands, by using factors such as physical delivery and returns, locating the brand and speed of download, site appearance, navigation, personal support and differential reward (de Chernatony and Christodoulides, 2004 in Christodoulides, 2009, p. 143).

Some years later, all of these aspects have become hygienic factors (i.e., responding to basic, natural, identifiable needs in Web 1.0), in the sense that they became almost compulsively used, but along with those other factors emerged, beyond immediate brand control, as they are shown in Figure 2. Branding now occurs at this next level (defined by the Web 2.0 concept), through blogs, widgets, user generated ads, social networks (e.g., Facebook, Myspace), podcasting, videocasting, contentsharing (e.g., Scribd), videosharing (e.g., YouTube), etc. (Christodoulides, 2009, p. 143). This means that "an effective online presence is vital to a brand's internet success" (Murphy and Scharl, 2007, p. 300). Web 2.0 is viewed as a sum of "technologies that facilitate social communication" (Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 316), providing users with these Web 2.0 specific applications the new possibility to "even interfere with the brand's values." (Christodoulides, 2009, p. 143).

Continuing the argumentation of the evolutionary differences between Web 1.0 and Web 2.0, some aspects are also required to be discussed, regarding the content of a site, which is usually created by the emitter (from the Web 1.0 perspective); "but it is the receiver who also influences their use because from

Figure 2. Brand Features in Web 1.0 and Web 2.0
Source: Christodoulides, 2009, p. 143



all data available he or she chooses what is relevant and interesting", consider M. Florek *et al.* (2006, p. 281). This point of view is supported by the positioning of authors in the Web 1.0 philosophy, as a "web-as-information-source", seen as an environment "static and is more of a place to find information than a forum for sharing ideas or creating new products together" or "the Internet before the 'dot.com bubble' burst or as the first decade of the Internet (1990s)" (Lincoln, 2009, p. 8). Furthermore, Lincoln (2009) states that Web 1.0 is a "world of simple transactions" (p. 8), putting in opposition the emergence of Web 2.0 as the new environment in which "people can interact and participate rather than just read" (Lincoln, 2009, p. 8).

Unlike traditional media, "the information presented on websites is not vetted by the gatekeeping function of journalists or barred by temporal restrictions of broadcast and print media" (M. Florek *et al.*, 2006, p. 281). Building their rationale on the basis of scientific justifications on the media effects on society, Gibson and Ward (2000) consider that the WWW changes the nature of communication in five crucial ways compared with traditional media:

1. Volume - far larger quantities of information can be sent compared with previous modes of media communication;
2. Speed - compression of data and more space for communication decrease the amount of time it takes to send a message;
3. Format - the style of the message sent is changed as the combination of print and electronic communication allows information to be sent in audio, video, and text form. Thus, in-depth, and also dynamic and visually stimulating communication are possible, simultaneously;

4. Direction - the possibilities for two-way and truly interactive or synchronous communication are greatly expanded on the Web, given the greater space and speed for information transmission. In addition, horizontal or lateral communication between groups and individuals is also dramatically enhanced due to the immediacy of hypertext linkage between sites;
5. Individual control - given the opening up of control over the direction in the sending and receiving of messages, power is decentralized to the individual consumer who has the choice of what to view, and also perhaps more significantly, what to publish. (Gibson and Ward, 2000, p. 304).

In conclusion, web communication "has the potential to be a more immediate, dynamic, in-depth, interactive, and unedited process than is possible in conventional media." (Gibson and Ward, 2000, p. 304).

Places websites, "by communicating about the place in both passive and/ or active ways, influence a place's accessibility (inside as well as outside the place)", state Florek *et al.* (2006, p. 282). So, from this point of view, "the communication might take the form of passive transmission of information (general information about the place, picture gallery, brochures etc., but also information about the Council's decisions, projects and plans) as well as interactive communication (customized information, consultations, feedback, events calendar, interactive maps, virtual sightseeing, accommodation booking etc.)" (Florek *et al.*, 2006, p. 280).

In addition, seen as a relatively passive environment, "websites are capable of transmitting an unlimited amount of information to all potential audiences" (Sharp, 2001 in Florek *et al.*, 2006, p. 280), controlled exclusively by the senders themselves (White and Raman, 1999 in Florek, 2011, p. 84). As an active tool, however, websites might contribute "to building relationships with different kinds of stakeholders" (Florek *et al.*, 2006, p. 281).

The WWW is an attraction medium, or a pull factor, which means that "audiences have much more control over what they want to see than traditional mass media" (Esrock and Leichty, 2000 in Florek *et al.*, 2006, p. 281), by including interactive features on websites to encourage visitors to enter into a dialogue with "the place" in the same way that companies enter into a dialogue with their consumers (Hurme, 2001 in Florek, 2011, p. 84).

The discrimination between active and passive audiences is also discussed by De Chernatony and McDonald (2003):

The classical branding model is based on a tightly controlled approach and, particularly for product-based brands, assumes consumers to be passive recipients of value. In an electronic environment, chat forums enable consumers gain access to credible information about brands and thus brand owners loose some control over their brands' identities. Consumers on the Internet are active co-producers of value, further reducing owners' control over brands. With their greater involvement, consumers are likely to be initially more forgiving of a brand's mistakes, believing they are partly responsible for any shortcomings. The reservoir of goodwill is finite and frustration will result in visitors defecting. To thrive with brands on the Internet a looser form of brand control is needed, welcoming the active participation of consumers. (p. 309)

All this means that the brand, following the concepts of neo-Marxist orientation on the paradoxical way of capital accumulation (De Chernatony and McDonald, 2003, Arvidsson, 2005, Holt, 2006b), "is not actually controlled by marketing people despite their immense budgets, research programs and their army of branding, advertising and events management. The brand is controlled by us - the customers.

When a brand is truly successful, it can develop in ways and rhythms that amaze those who claim to control it; and when a brand is in trouble, the opposite happens" (Olins, 2006, p. 17), and the consumers being involved have the capacity "in producing a dimension of trust or authenticity to be added to the brand" (Arvidsson, 2005, p. 247).

Description of the Research

As stated above, the aim of this study considers the description and analysis of place brands identified in the online environment, in regards to their presence and their dynamics, a research topic defined by scholars as the "virtual presence of place brands" (Florek et al., 2006, p. 286). Moreover, the general research objective is to present the strategies used by the authorities responsible for the place brand management in the online environment to better present, promote or communicate their online identity.

In order to analyze the way in which authorities use online potential to support their own place brands, this study tries to answer the following research questions: (1) Do authorities use their official websites to communicate all the characteristics of a place brand's identity?; (2) What are the most frequently used characteristics by the authorities in order to communicate the identity of a place brand online? (3) Are the official websites of place brands passive environments of information or active environments of interaction?

By linking this study to the situation of a descriptive-explanatory type of research, we will follow Chelcea's observation (2004) in formulating hypotheses: "explanatory research tests hypotheses, while descriptive research offers information in order to formulate hypotheses" (p. 183). For this reason, the empirical working hypotheses are presented below (they 'translate' previously formulated questions): **Hypothesis One:** In order to communicate the identity of a place brand, the relevant authorities use informing and brand communication elements more than brand behavior elements; **Hypothesis Two:** A place brand's website is more of a passive informing environment than an active place of interaction.

The systematization of the dimensions which were evaluated and analyzed in this study – concerning the characteristics composing a place brand's identity in the online environment – is the result of integration of different conceptual and methodological frameworks specific to multiple scientific disciplines, such as political communication through the methodology provided by Gibson and Ward (2000), Schneider and Foot (2002), Brundin (2008), corporate marketing – the Okazaki and Škapa (2009) model, place branding, through the approach of Florek et al. (2006). This multidisciplinary form of concept operationalization has been supported by the impossibility to assure a unique methodological approach, relevant to the research subject, a repository offering the possibility to identify and analyze the characteristics which make up a place brand's identity in the online environment. Following a brief presentation of the primary and secondary resources used in elaborating the category scheme through which the concepts defining the characteristics which constitute a place brand's identity in the online environment are measured using indicators, its final structure on dimensions, sub-dimensions and indicators are presented in Table 1 (see Appendix 1) (Briciu, 2020, p. 218-219). It can be argued that online place brand analysis is a relatively new field of research (Florek et al., 2006; Florek, 2011; Alonso and Bea, 2012), without unanimously accepted methodologies in the specific literature, therefore "when a new field is being explored, existent analysis methods are frequently adopted, which have already been used in different fields and a technology transfer is realised" (Bozon and Leridon, 1993 in Chelcea, 2004, p. 179).

The analysis of websites as sources of place brand communication has been developed without establishing any existence criteria of the formal and deliberate action of place branding of the authority or of the institution owning the online platform. This aspect is supported by the presupposition that "each activity on the website contributes to place branding, which results in a certain image of the place" (Florek et al., 2006, p. 283) or, at least if we take into consideration the branding potential of websites (Simeon, 2001).

Although content analysis is a widely used research method for the systematic examination of the content of communication, analysing the message and text of communication, authors consider that "analysis of web sites is a recent area of study" (Gibson and Ward, 2000, p. 303). The applicability in the online environment is supported by the explanation that content analysis would be "an observational research method that is used to systematically evaluate the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communications" (Kolbe and Burnett, 1991, p. 243).

In this study, we agree with the ideas of the determinant role of content analysis as a way to examine the manifest content of messages, while being an ideal tool for examining websites. In addition, we have to accept that "traditionally, content analysis is considered, first of all, a quantitative method (Berelson, 1952; Stern, 1989), which requires, however, a qualitative assessment" (in Hwang, McMillan and Lee, 2003, p. 13). In the light of the latter clarifications, we will consider content analysis as a research method, being a quantitative and qualitative variant of communication content analysis, as a working technique: frequency analysis and instrument: a category, coding and quantitative grid/ scheme of the collected data.

Gibson and Ward (2000) suggest that the development of a specific conceptual scheme has an advantage regarding the future web innovations and features that can be added to it, providing in the same time a standardized and flexible tool for the researchers.

Using the concept operationalization presented in Table 1 from Appendix 1 (Briciu, 2020, p. 218-219), we have determined how each indicator will receive a value, a code, a score. At this stage we reviewed the criteria set by the other authors in their own analysis grids or schemas, adapting these values to the specificity and objective of their own research approach, as this this methodological process is explained:

Researchers generally need to develop their own coding scheme for analyzing content, although sometimes researchers can adopt existing coding schemes established by their peers. Human intuition can intervene in the process of developing coding schemes. Although all research is subject to some human intuition, the process of content analysis allows relatively more room for the researcher's intuition than do some methods such as surveys or experimental designs (Hwang et al., 2003, p. 13).

We followed the methodological criteria proposed by Rotariu (1991), that explain that the research instrument and all the categories defined by researchers should be: "comprehensive (to capture all variants of the occurrence of the characteristic, the theme); exclusive (a unit registered in a category may no longer appear in another); objective (to allow a classification of the material that depends as little as possible on the analyst) and relevant (appropriate to the objective pursued by the research and the content of the documents)" (in Iluț, 1997, p. 137).

The next step was to apply the research instrument to the 80 websites selected for the analysis. In order to establish the sampling units, we have recorded in a database

all the countries we have information on the World Tourism Organization website (UNTWO) and accessible at http://www2.unwto.org/, whether they are Member States of the Organization (156), Associated members (6) or Observers (2), using a classification (proposed on the UNTWO website) by geographic *location: Africa, East Asia and the Pacific region, the Americas, the southern region of Asia, the Middle East and Europe (Briciu, 2020, p. 155).*

We considered the UNTWO website as an official and credible source of information, with global recognition (Briciu and Briciu, 2019b) and assigned values to the indicators based on the established coding scheme following the same procedure to ensure repeatability and internal consistency, in order to "record the presence or absence of attributes" (Iluț, 1997, p. 136) of the identity characteristics. All values were manually encoded and recorded in spreadsheets within a database during March and April 2020 (Briciu, Rezeanu and Briciu, 2020). Under this procedure, the analysis unit was considered "the page" of the official websites of the countries brands and allowed us to answer the questions presented before, to confirm or infirm the research assumptions. However, given the character of the analysis aimed at identifying web and graphical characteristics rather than textual content, it was necessary to use, outside the Homepage of the websites, other secondary pages, which allow tracking the presence or absence of these elements, as this methodological option is explained by defining the unit of analysis of both the Homepage and "four levels down the hierarchy of information" (Opoku and Hinson, 2006, p. 122).

Analysis of the Data and Results

By analysing the 80 selected official websites which present, promote and communicate information about their country brands, we determined the specific actions considered by the authorities involved in their management to use in the online environment to better emphasize the online identity of those brands.

The online environment has the potential to be an instantaneous, in-depth, interactive and unedited process, and websites are considered to be "a dynamic means of communicating with audiences" (Florek et al., 2006, p. 285). These features also outline the limits of the present research, since their content can be changed during or after the investigative procedure. "Their content and structure can change daily or even hourly and this must be taken into account when interpreting the findings" (Florek et al., 2006, p. 285), as well as their degree of generalization.

The place branding strategy should aim to differentiate, and although a minimum is already reached, as shown in this study through virtual presence analysis, it is not enough. "There should be a strategy to bring that presence closer to potential customers", says Palmer (2002, p. 192). Among the studied websites, some of them are able to capture the attention of users more than others. In terms of brand construction, they exhibited variations of the same structure, even if the visual appearance offered the much sought after differentiation.

These conclusions give away the long tradition of using Web 1.0-specific features, and we could observe that the authorities responsible for brand management do not communicate to users all the characteristics of brand identity (detailed in Table 1 from Appendix 1), using official websites, instead these authorities tend to present more frequently the elements of brand information and communication, than those regarding the brand behavior in the online environment.

Concerning the identified opportunities, special or original features (weather information, currency converter, guestbook, smart-device applications, and customized versions of websites in other languages) add value to web pages and implicitly to place brands as well. An additional research on identity features should be designed in order to confirm or refute these new directions, following the assessment of the degree of function accomplishment by the official websites of place brands, as these ideas are detailed even more in the next section of this paper: "Future Research Directions". Following the research objective, it should be emphasized that websites are useful in expressing the brand identity content. Due to construction tools (implemented in websites) and by placement of selected site information about the place, it is possible to influence or alter the perception of the receptors.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The design of the research presented in this chapter is elaborated both by following the classic, fundamental works that open the field of branding (Aaker, 1996, de Chernatony, 1999, Kotler, 2000, Anholt, 2005a, Olins, 2006, Anholt, 2007) and the issue of place branding in the online environment (Simeon, 2001, Florek *et al.*, 2006, Pitt *et al.*, 2007, van Wijk *et al.*, 2010), as well as through recent studies and research in the literature (Florek, 2011, Kaneva, 2011, Qu *et al.*, 2011, Alonso and Bea, 2012, Rajaram and Shelly, 2012, Luna-Nevarez and Hyman, 2012, Fernández-Cavia *et al.*, 2014). These theoretical-methodological perspectives allowed the efficient calibration of the objectives, of the paradigmatic framing and of the research methods and tools.

In addition, this chapter summarizes in a all-in-one approach, the authors' research efforts on the subject matter, whether we refer to the theoretical discussions of place branding (Briciu and Briciu, 2019a, Briciu, 2020, Briciu and Briciu, 2020a, Briciu and Briciu, 2020b), the dynamics of place branding in the online environment (Briciu and Gulpe, 2018, Briciu and Briciu, 2019b, Briciu, 2020, Briciu, Rezeanu and Briciu, 2020), or new methodological approaches of place brands (Briciu, Briciu and Nechita, 2018, Briciu, Briciu and Demeter, 2019, Briciu, Nechita, Demeter and Kavoura, 2019).

Following the research theme, it should be emphasized that websites are useful in expressing the brand identity content. Due to construction tools (implemented in websites) and by placement of selected site information about the place, it is possible to influence or alter the perception of the receptors. Moreover, "the promotional message can be changed much more quickly than is the case where the requirement to print brochures leads to long lead times between a policy decision being made and the implementation of that decision" (Palmer, 2002, p. 187)

This research also has a number of limits defined by the virtual space and the Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 components. From the point of view of the limited connection to global information, some remarks are required about the inequality in the information society; this is commonly referred to as the "digital divide" (van Dijk, 2005 in van Wijk et al., 2010, p. 157). Another critical issue is the great imbalance in the use of languages in the Internet, as "English being absolutely dominant and hundreds of minority languages facing serious risk of digital extinction in the short-term future" (Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 316) or the fact that a majority of the humankind has neither access to the Internet facilities, not to say Web 2.0 devices (Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 316).

From the perspective of places, it is considered that the importance of the Internet is growing (Buhalis and Costa, 2006 in Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 315) and a website can make a significant contribution to the brand communication process. Its presence in the online environment and "the use of new forms of media are even more important because, for imposing the brand of a country, the communication needs to be done both globally and nationally" (Dolea and Țăruș, 2009, p. 50).

The main role of the website is to communicate (to inform users about) the identity of the place brand, meaning the transfer of relevant information from the transmitter's perspective about the place, becoming "an instrument for improving competitiveness" (Alonso and Bea, 2012, p. 315). Due to technological progress, we can now deliver more sophisticated and attractive forms of messages (e.g., by combining photos and sound). The same view is offered by Florek (2011): "websites are the primary, the most popular and nowadays obligatory tool in branding places. A website helps to increase place awareness, familiarity, and finally to shape its image. The essential role of the website is therefore to communicate the city brand identity through passing on relevant information" (p. 84).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Concerning the identified opportunities, special or original features (weather information, currency converter, guestbook, smart-device applications, and customized versions of websites in other languages) add value to web pages and implicitly to place brands as well.

An additional research on identity features should be done in order to confirm or refute these new directions, following the assessment of the degree of function accomplishment by the official websites of place brands.

An indication of this opportunity is the emergence of 'prosumers' – a segment of users midway between consumers and professionals – as active participants taking up a dialogue with the city, which has changed communication strategies and their associated tools.

They are looking for more and more information, are present in virtual reality, exchange opinions, files and personal profiles, participate in discussions, watch and upload videos.

CONCLUSION

The results have shown that the authorities responsible for the management of place brands do not communicate all of the characteristics of a place brand's identity to the users/visitors on their official websites (this aspect was proven by the very low frequency of certain indicators used in the analysis algorithm); however, these authorities tend to present informing and brand communication elements more frequently than those regarding brand behavior in the online environment.

The main advantage of the conceptual scheme (presented in Table 1, see Appendix 1) is that it provides the framework for a standardized and flexible tool, so that as web innovations or new features of virtual presence are developed, they find their way into the scheme.

By analyzing the official websites which promote brands, we were able to capture various ways in which the authorities involved in their management understand to use the Internet in communicating the online identity of brands. The online environment has the potential to be an instantaneous, in-depth, interactive and unedited process, and websites are considered to be a dynamic means of communicating with audiences. These features also outline the limits of the present research, since their content can be changed during or after the investigative procedure. Their content and structure can change daily or even hourly and this must be taken into account when interpreting the findings, as well as their degree of generalization.

The place branding strategy should aim to differentiate, and although a minimum is already reached, as shown in this study through virtual presence analysis, it is not enough. Among the studied websites, some of them are able to capture the attention of users more than others. In terms of brand construction, they exhibited variations of the same structure, even if the visual appearance offered the much sought after differentiation.

These conclusions give away the long tradition of using Web 1.0-specific features, in which brand managers used to replicate offline marketing efforts on the internet, obtaining static, 'brochureware' websites, which clearly failed to capture the potential benefit offered by the new medium, particularly in terms of interactivity.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Brand: A set of associations defined on a rational and emotional basis between an organization or a product, service and its public or audiences, all in correlation with its name, identity and reputation.

Brand Personality: Different features associated with the brand so that it is distinct, memorable, valuable for certain market segments, durable so as to inspire loyalty and keep consumers in difficult times or crisis periods and, ideally, demand a higher price due to its uniqueness.

Branded Products: those products which use the marker of the manufacturer, and which represent more than one identifier, represent a proof of quality, of a guaranteed experience.

Branding: The process of forming, planning and communicating the name and identity (including the creation of a consolidated mission of organizational culture), with the aim of creating or managing a reputation.

Country Branding: Is a practice and field of multi- and inter-disciplinary scientific research that aims to protect domestic businesses and brands from internal or international political effects, global competition and supports the standard of living at the nation level.

Destination Branding: A concept of marketing and branding of a place or space, in terms of leisure and tourism, where the destination is a geographical area to which branding processes are applied.

Geographic Branding: The process of branding a place within the strict limits of geographical boundaries (countries, cities, regions, counties, etc.).

Mark: A distinctive sign (words, letters, numbers, symbolic elements and color combinations) or a combination of signs that express and achieve a differentiation of the products, suggesting a property right.

Place Branding: The practice of applying a brand strategy and other marketing techniques, complementary to other disciplines for economic, social, political and cultural development, in order to sustain a region or a place, not only in terms of leisure and tourism.

Tematic Branding: The process of branding a place according to specific themes that attract particular market segments.

Appendix 1

Table 1. Operationalization of the characteristics of a place brand's online identity

Dimensions		Sub-dimensions	Indicators
Brand design (the brand visual presentation)			Slogan
			Logo
			Coat of Arms
			Picture/ Image gallery
			Maps
Brand behaviour			News (section) / Public Notices
			Events calendar
			Name of the authority under which the place brand exists
			Board members of the authority
Brand information and communication	Information	Downward information flows	General information about the place (e.g., history, main objectives, attractions)
			Customised information for target audiences (e.g., brochures)
			Public announcements (e.g., Press Releases, Newsletters)
			Frequently Asked Questions (F.A.Q.)
			Contact information (address, phone number, e-mail address)
		Upward information flows	Rentals, shopping, reservations, orders
			Bookmark and Share
			Cookies
		Lateral/ horizontal information flows	Useful links
			Internal links
	Interactivity	Interactive information Inflows: asynchronous	Option to download (e.g., .pdf document, wallpaper, screen saver)
			Site search
			Ways of contact
			Subscribe to a service (e.g., Newsletter)
			Sign up as a member
			Provide online poll feedback, other voting system
		Interactive information flows: synchronous	Live Chat with staff member
			Social media connection (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Google+, Pinterest)
Site delivery/ Exposure of brand features		Presentation and appearance	Intro component of the site
			Flashiness (graphics emphasis) (e.g., .jpeg, .gif, .png) in Homepage
			Dynamism (multimedia properties)
		Accessibility	Accessibility of the site in principle
			Accessibility of the site in practice
		Navigability	Ease of navigation on the site, site pages
		Freshness	Last update of the site
		Visibility	Ease of localization on the internet

(Source: Briciu, 2020, p. 218-219)

Chapter 9
National Branding Shifting to City Branding:
A New Tendency for Attracting Investments and Stimulating Regional Business Ecosystems

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ABSTRACT

In asset management, the impact of national branding is linked with the capital leverage and the development of resilient and sustain business. Therefore, national branding impacts essential project financing, mainly acting as a driver of interest premium for private market invested capitals. The key objective of this chapter is to present the linkage of national branding with the assets development in critical infrastructures, distribution systems, and large assets such those in transport and energy sector. Adopting a system of system approach, the key areas of the added value to critical infrastructure and assets are presented, and the methodology framework to assess the impact of national branding on assets is depicted. By examples and references to case studies, the need is illustrated to consciously develop world-class brands as part of the overall economic growth and development on a regional scale.

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INTRODUCTION

The origins of nation branding can be traced back to the late nineteenth century world fairs and international exhibitions which drew large crowds keen to witness the staging of national culture (Adler-Nissen, 2014). Most typically, nation branding is used to promote tourism, foreign investment and boost exports (Nicolova et al., 2013). Nation branding essentially communicates a nation's policies and culture to an international audience, the public face of international diplomacy.

The logic behind nation branding is that every nation is a brand and as such it can be strategically marketed in order to attract inward investment and improve the overall image of a country. Moreover, in addition to the key goals of attracting tourists, stimulating investment, and boosting exports, nation branding can also have further reaching effects. Thus, some claim that the process can help restore international credibility, increase currency stability and therefore investor confidence as well as even consolidating (Dinnie, 2008, p. 17).

Nation branding can be seen as a manifestation of soft power. Where military force or economic sanctions represents a hard form of power, soft power relates to attitudes and influence over others, cultural persuasion (Wang, 2008). This is exactly what nation branding aims to do. Nation branding represents a desire by the countries concerned to make people want to pay attention to their particular nation state, their achievements as well as building belief in its qualities.

As a practice it seeks to manage the image and reputation of a country and help consumers, namely the wider public, differentiate between and identify within countries. Nation branding operates in the same way that traditional public relations do in that it is a practice which is undertaken by governments to persuade the overseas public, investors, partners, employees, and other stakeholders to maintain a certain point of view about a nation state (Uysal, 2012).

The lines defining nation branding are somewhat blurred however, when governments contract private firms to develop and propagate their nation brand. Whilst nation branding as a phenomenon is attracting an increased amount of scholarly attention, much of the existing literature has been written by those involved in the industry themselves (Aronczyk, 2008). Whilst nation branding is an internationally focused phenomenon, it is a practice which has the capacity to illuminate the more salient narratives of national identity and, in some cases, reflects implementation inefficiencies such those linked with public budgets and government vision.

Moreover, even very often the perspective of the public living engaged with place or the city and the process of nation branding has all too often been neglected. The rise concept of the city branding is gaining more success taking the benefits for more managerial implementation process including the local business ecosystem engagement toward a common citizenship future in terms of quality of life and wealth fare. The driver force towards city competition is the that could easily be understood and therefore be more motivated the issue of use of common public space in the place of citizenship. Then, the establishment of a common long-term strategy is more perceivable and by using marketing techniques supported by the local enterprises can be jointly enforce actions. Therefore, city or regional branding shift from the general national image to local particular image provocative local strengths and creativity.

In the frame of international economic affairs and business cooperation, depending on the nation size, its history, the population and activities spatial allocation in the territory, along with the economic system globalization orientation, for medium to large countries, the concept of city branding is growing fast. On the other hand, for small to medium countries the issue of national branding consists as main direction for international economic affairs and investment attractiveness. In this chapter, we provide the key directions, the values and the implementation principles toward both national and city branding in terms of sustainable and resilience business ecosystem reflecting local or regional expectation on quality of life and international competition (Dimitriou, 2018; Dimitriou et al.,2016).

BACKGROUND

Branding Principles, Orientation and Tendencies

The Concept of National Branding

The lines defining nation branding are somewhat blurred however, when governments contract private firms to develop and propagate their nation brand. This is something which nation branding consultants such as Anholt shy away from. Whilst nation branding as a phenomenon is attracting an increased amount of scholarly attention, much of the existing literature has been written by those involved in the industry themselves. While there have been some studies which have been written from a critical viewpoint, the conflicting narratives of branding a nation have often been forgotten. Whilst nation branding is an internationally focused phenomenon, it is a practice which has the capacity to illuminate the more salient narratives of national identity and, in some cases, reflects the nationalist rhetoric of politicians. Moreover, the perspective of the public living in the states that are engaged in the process of nation branding has all too often been neglected.

Corporate Branding Fundamentals

In transport industry, the brand architecture used to be neatly developed by following two concepts. Those favoring a dominant corporate brand chose a more Branded House oriented model, while others opted for the House of Brands approach typified by numerous sub-brands with little or no mention of the company behind them. The choice is not simply based on the typical marketing strategy principles, where the benefits reflect to the company brand name value addressing market recognition and intellectual properties, but because of the oligopolistic business environment in most of the times it's also associated with national social values such as safety, security, sustainability etc.

Recent years continues tendency for deregulation in the transport industry is resulting several emerging trends have rendered these concepts over-simplistic and outdated. Firstly, the ubiquity of information has lifted the veil of the company behind the product and therefore these brands are becoming ever more interlinked. As a result, enlightened customers are becoming more demanding and discerning in their purchasing decisions. Secondly, the sheer cost of maintaining brands is forcing a rethink of where to invest the marketing dollars. And finally, as companies more frequently acquire strong brands with long histories in new geographies, it gets harder to simply or immediately absorb these into the masterbrand. In response, companies are increasingly turning to a "brand network model encompassing more differentiated and tailored relationships between corporate and product brands.

Corporate brands are taking greater prominence, in an attempt to project organizational values, convey trust and build brand equity with multiple stakeholders. Recent ads by Apple feature the tagline "designed in California" and focus on the company, not its products. And FedEx has introduced a more consistent corporate umbrella across all its sub-brands, including its acquisition of Kinko's, now known as FedEx Office. Portfolio rationalization is high on the agenda, as consumer-products giants such as Heinz and Nestlé refocus spend on fewer, flagship brands, in order to improve the return on investment in marketing. The business-to-business world has followed suit, with the aerospace and defense corporation EADS rebranding its group and two of its business units as Airbus, the more famous brand used on its commercial aircraft. Similarly in 2013, technology and specialty materials company Celanese launched an eponymous, unified brand representing all the company's businesses and previously associated brands.

The Blending Strategy

Another strategy is to connect multiple brands and the parent brand within marketing communications. Lufthansa airline group campaign featured several of its best-known brands and highlighted the company name. And through its Starwood Preferred Guest (SPG) reward programme, the hotel chain brings together all seven of its sub-brands. These various examples arguably involve a smarter use of the marketing budget than single brand campaigns. The ubiquitous presence of the corporate brand also makes it easier to integrate newly acquired brands into a portfolio, allowing them to retain their names and distinct attributes while still creating a link.

Creating and managing a brand network requires a higher level of coordination between different parts of the business, and a more frequent evaluation of portfolio and architecture opportunities. It requires new roles to manage the corporate brand and the brand portfolio, and the inclusion of portfolio decisions as part of the planning process. To achieve consistency to express the corporate brand, various functions such as PR, Corporate Communications, Corporate Responsibility and Investor Relations should also be more closely aligned. The effort should be worth it, enabling companies to present a consistent brand story across all their products and services, and instilling a strong set of brand values into every customer experience (Dimitriou et al., 2019; Dimitriou, 2016).

Data-Driven Brand-Equity Management

To protect and enhance brand equity in the omnichannel age, marketers must embrace new methods and new data sources:

- *Sentiment.* To keep track of how a brand is perceived online, companies must go beyond counting clicks and followers. They must also capture user sentiment, particularly as expressed in social media, and do it quickly. Brand equity built over decades can evaporate in a heartbeat when bad news goes viral. Companies can no longer afford to wait for quarterly brand-tracking results. Waiting even a week can be six days too long. The good news is that state-of-the-art tools allow companies to capture indicators such as buzz volume and user sentiment in real time with up to 90 percent accuracy, provided the right method is used to decode the context of a given statement.[4]
- *Agility.* Qualitative research used to be costly and cumbersome. This is why a lot of researchers focus on observations of consumer behavior at scale and, as a result, often neglect underlying consumer needs. Web-based and mobile applications, such as AI-supported digital diaries and online ethnography, enable brands to connect with consumers' intrinsic motivations at a fraction of the cost and time of traditional focus groups. Now brands can get consumer feedback within a day, for example, on different combinations of packaging and price. As a brand manager for a maker of

sweet snacks said, "What used to take weeks now happens in an afternoon. This allows us to keep pace with the high rate of change in our industry."

- *Personalization.* Personalization is a key driver of top-line growth. It enables brands to cultivate better relationships with customers and drive incremental revenue as well as incremental loyalty.[5] In the past, most brand-related activities and KPIs were based on a fictitious "average customer." Now, thanks to advances in data quality and analytics, messages and metrics can be tailored to ever-smaller target groups or micro-need states and occasions.[6] Next-generation MROI modeling and granular growth mapping allow marketers to record and optimize brand performance across all touchpoints, often at the level of individual customers.

Brand strategy today deals with how now consumers jump from brand to brand, product to product, and site to site at a flick of their wrists. At the same time, brand relevance remains high. Brands are beacons of trust. The more choices consumers have, the more important these beacons become. Our research shows that brand relevance is especially high in categories that offer almost unlimited choice, such as online travel booking. For online shoppers, risk reduction is the most important brand function by far, well ahead of image benefit and information efficiency. A strong brand radiates trust and shields shoppers from the risk of making the wrong choice. Data and analytics are transforming the way brands and customers interact with each other. In this situation, it's time to update the proven principles of brand strategy.

Success Key Drivers

Branding deals with a number of assets and advantages that they can exploit to act as attackers in new markets. Three fundamental success factors focus on:

- *Distinctive brand equity and trust*. An established of high level of security may connected with the trust of client to the brand name of an airport rather than a typical commercial brand. For instance, Schiphol airport entry into retail market at a time when trust in the airport sector was at an all-time low enabled it to take advantage of its status as a brand known for giving customers "secure" products in a "better" deal. The airports powerful form of endorsement in security and safety opens new roads in retail markets, resulting, gradually but fast airport companies shifting from typical transport operators where the vast majority of revenues driven by transport services to shopping malls, achieving higher than the expeditions non-aeronautical revenues.
- *Strong relationships with customers*. Carriers used its understanding of customers' mobility needs as well as its existing perception of being a premium brand to enter a new category with a service that enables it to tap into a different need state. It also further strengthens its relationship with consumers who could, in the future, move out of town and buy its products.
- *Access to data, capabilities, and other institutional assets.* Air carrier expertise in delivering distinctive customer experiences enabled it to rethink promotion strategy in Tourism market and create and execute a value proposition that no other provider could match. In Europe, most of the passenger transport carriers combined its intimate knowledge of customer preferences with its extensive supply and distribution networks and operational expertise to launch its interiors chain in holidays market. The Raynair brand proposition of making medium haul travels accessible to all has made a successful transition to the tourism sector, resulting destination marketing of Ryanair

to be part of national strategy to attract tourist share or to penetrate to new markets. Other types of assets can range from the technical—such as know-how, which drove many airport operation Company's extension from transport hubs to renewable energy generators.

Successful brand extensions are likely to make use of all three of these advantages, rather than one in isolation. The key concept behind that, its the deep understanding of how to engage customers, and its operational capabilities and expertise in multiple countries and cultures.

CONCEPTUALIZING THE FRAMEWORK OF CITY BRANDING VALUE CANVAS

The framework of the City branding value canvas is developed on the framework to the city branding and its stakeholders to map and design business models that can address the increased complexity of the city branding. In order to create value for the citizens, certain services have to be valued and improved. Business model canvas is the tool for organizing all the aspects of this strategic plan. Value proposition canvas support the strategic planning that will create value for the residents and the visitors.

The Stakeholder Perspective

The importance of a stakeholder orientation is well established in the general management literature (Dimitriou et al., 2020; Desai, 2018; Sartzetaki, 2019). The basic tenet of the stakeholder theory suggests that stakeholders are critical for a company's success as they affect the company's long-term strategic goals. Moreover, conflicts of interest between managers and stakeholders or among the stakeholders themselves may exist to blur the definition and roles, (Dimitriou, 2020).

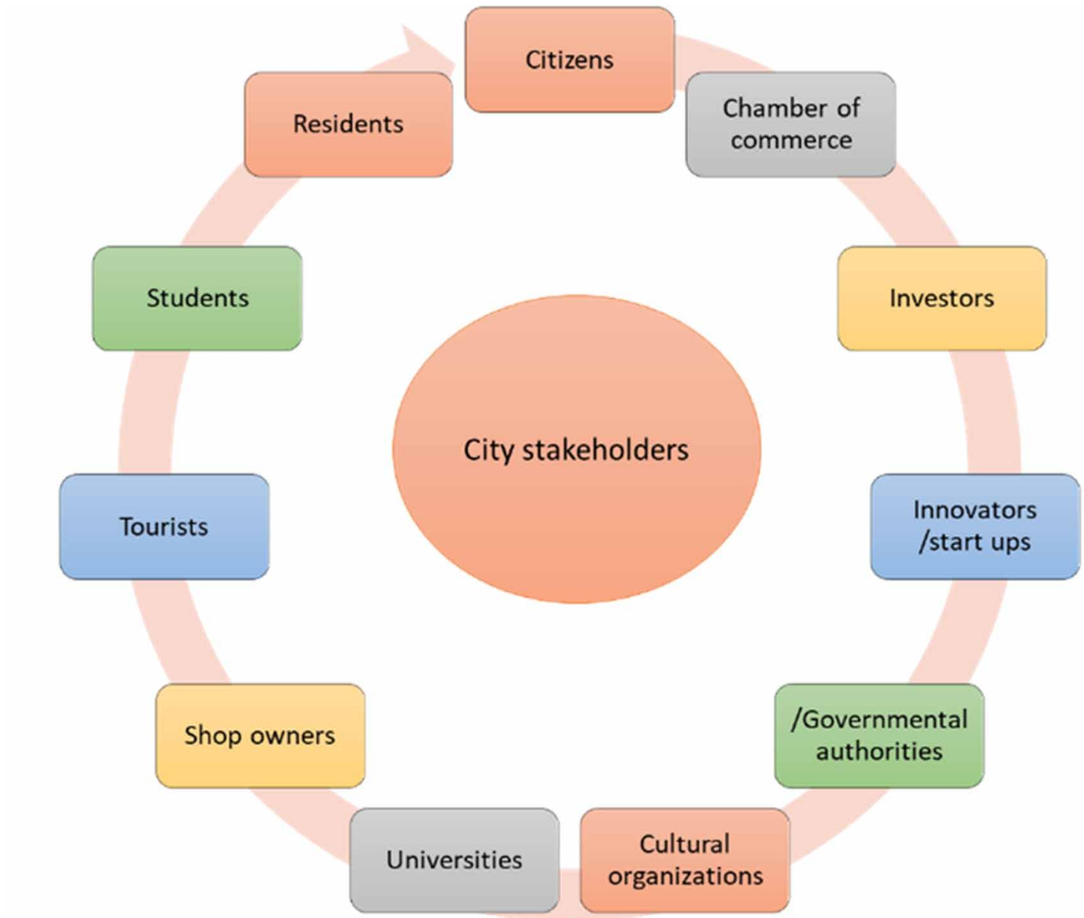
In the context of nation and city branding, stakeholder identification are even more complicated issues than in corporate environment, given the multiplicity and of potential stakeholders in the nation and city brand. Every citizen can be regarded as a stakeholder, as well as every organization operating within any given country. The diverse range of potential stakeholders in the nation and city brand, key amongst which is the government, the citizens, investors, cultural organizations and shop owners are depicted in Figure 1. The pathway to inclusiveness of a wide range of stakeholders needs to be moderated by the need to ensure effective decision-making processes, illustrating the importance that nation branding decisionmakers must attach to stakeholder identification and salience.

Business Model Canvas

After identifying the National and city branding stakeholder's range, the next step is the identification of how the idea of city branding and their requirements can be applied to the existing components of business modeling, as key activities, revenues streams, value proposition, customer segments, customer relationships, and channels. A widely used framework for structuring business models is the Business Model Canvas (BMC). Based on the BMC, the branding of a city-specific business modeling framework is developed, on the basis of four building blocks, each analyzing components of the process of creating, delivering, and capturing value, see Figure 2.

The first part of the canvas starts with the key activities and resources such as human resources, building infrastructure, cooperation and partners. The second with revenue streams such as the different

Figure 1. National and city branding stakeholder's range



forms of funding (state funding, private sector, or European funds), the tourism sector and investments. The third part with the differization of customer segments and relationships, such as citizens, investors, innovators, and independent entities. Finally, the fourth addresses the channels such as events, social media, festivals, and media.

Value Proposition

In the BMC, value proposition refers to the benefits offered to specific customer segment. In the case of the city branding BMC, value proposition refers to the benefits each stakeholder creates. The value proposition addresses the specific needs of one or more end user groups and provides a clear explanation of how these needs will be satisfied, stating the bundle of products and services offered to each user. The fulfillment of these needs can be validated through the utilization of appropriate KPIs and respective threshold/target values to be reached.

The value created for each stakeholder can be related to the solution's novelty customization, risk reduction, and convenience/usability, addressing the city branding domains such as continuity and safety, improving everyday life, transparency, simplification of procedures resulting to making citizens happy.

Figure 2. The business model canvas for city branding

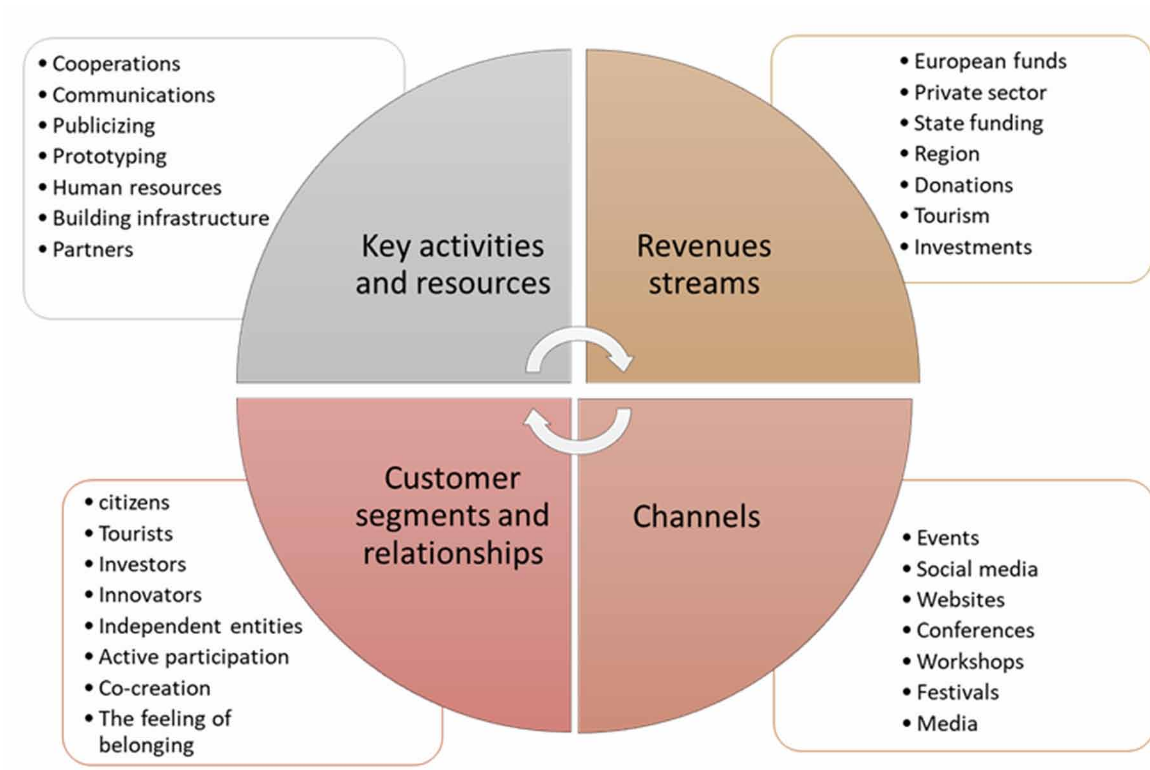
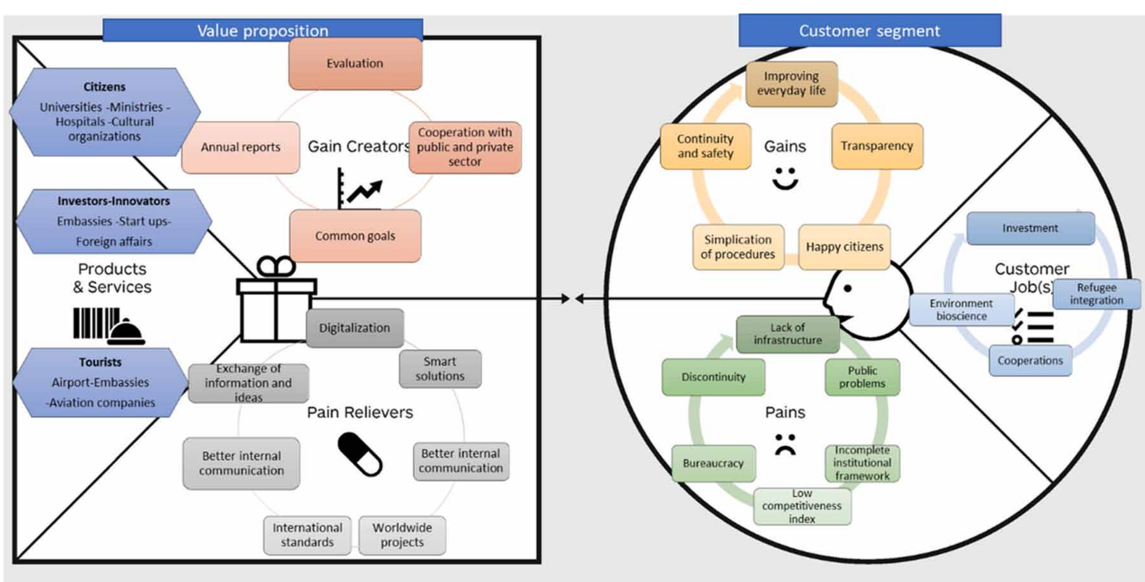


Figure 3. The value position canvas for city branding



BMC to map their ecosystem and identify the values that various stakeholders can introduce to design successful business cases that will address the needs of investors. City branding solution providers can use the framework in collaboration with the city and the stakeholders involved to devise business models that build on the value created from all the different actors. Recognizing the role that each actor, including the end users, can play in the deployment of smart city solutions from the starting phase of their design might potentially enhance the sense of co- ownership in investment projects, engaging and empowering citizens to take greater roles in the ongoing development the cities.

CITY BRANDING VALUE CANVAS CASE STUDIES

The application of branding techniques to cities has become increasingly prevalent over recent years. The place branding is now frequently seen as way to create differentiation to various stakeholders and to contribute to the achievement of economic development through boosting exports, attracting inward investment, and promoting tourism. In this section, branding of a country (Estonia), a business sector (UK interurban mobility) and three different cities (Athens, Geneva and Montreal) are highlighted.

City Branding Promoted by Large Organizations

The UNESCO Creative Cities Network launched in 2004 and now comprising 116 Member Cities. This is one of the larger institutional local branding promotion network aims to foster international cooperation with and between cities committed to investing in creativity as a driver for sustainable urban development, social inclusion and cultural vibrancy.

The UNESCO Creative Cities Network represents an immense potential to assert the role of culture as enabler of sustainable development. Diachronically, it recognized the many new cities and their countries that are enriching the Network with their diversity" compared on best strategies and promote new practices for the protection and promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions as a key driver of social coherence, quality of life and sustainable economic development. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development adopted by the international community in September 2015 highlights culture and creativity as key levers for sustainable urban development. The Network will continue to serve as an essential platform to contribute to the implementation and achievement of this international agenda.

The Case of Estonia -a Nation Branding

Policy makers worldwide can learn a lot from Estonia, which is at the forefront of digital public services. Developing a social-economic ecosystem based on concept of smart city is the cornerstone for the strategy and it is achieving to share the knowledge. Estonia developing strategy principle deals with "Places are, indeed, products, whose identities and values must be designed and marketed" and places compete for share of mind, share of income, share of talent and share of voice on a global level. Estonia can achieve even more by better focusing and above all communicating in a consistent and more bold manner. So my aim is to create an effective yet authentic brand identity that can mobilize a wide range of Estonian stakeholders.

The government's continued commitment to digital initiatives ensured that Estonia began to be perceived as the world's most advanced digital society. Established in 2000, Enterprise Estonia was created as the institution that prepared the strategic objectives of the Estonian Nation Brand in terms of providing financing and training to encourage entrepreneurship.

Capitalizing on the Country's growing reputation for digital expertise, Enterprise Estonia introduced the e-Residency programme in 2014. Its purpose was to grow Estonia's community and economy by inviting foreign citizens to open businesses in Estonia. The transnational Digital Identity they pioneered is available to anyone in the world interested in running an online business. This enables Estonia to stand out clearly in the international arena, generating more domestic revenue exclusively through digital companies. This is critical for a Country of only 1.3 million inhabitants.

In fact, the Republic of Estonia has become the ideal place for remote digital nomads and international entrepreneurs planning to host a company in the European Union.They do so by ensuring these digital services convey security, credibility and trust. Estonia has succeeded in creating new opportunities across borders.

The nation can communicate externally the unique and relevant Estonian assets. The essence of this positioning and branding concept is a simple, straightforward idea: let Estonia emphasize its unique character and achievements by being the fastest, the smartest, the greenest, the coziest and even the weirdest. A playful and logical next phase of Estonian nation branding, while safeguarding achieved results and enhancing prior branding and marketing investments. A simple solution with huge potential. My aim is to create a cohesive nation branding and marketing, enticing and fitting all relevant Estonian stakeholders and domains.

The Case of a Business Sector-UK Interurban Mobility

National Express has been rated as one of the UK's top transport brands for consumers, according to YouGov's annual Brand Index list, which measures the British public's perception of brands. The UK's largest coach operator achieved the highest score of any domestic transport provider in the transport sector category, ranking joint second alongside P&O Ferries with Eurostar taking the top spot. YouGov BrandIndex measures the public's perception of brands on a daily basis by asking thousands of consumers and Sean Bailey, National Express Coach Marketing Director, commented: "We work incredibly hard to provide a positive experience at every point of contact, from our advertising and website through to the actual coach journey. It's heartening to see our efforts are paying off and that the UK public rate us so highly in our sector (National express, 2018).

The Case Athens City Branding

City Branding is about understanding, measuring, influencing and managing the way in which cities are admired and recognized by foreign, domestic and internal audiences. This is important because awareness and reputation are essential prerequisites for attracting and retaining tourists, traders, investors, students and residents.

The challenge is about the establishment of a common narrative for Athens City Branding. According to this strategy there is no need for a common narrative. The campaign would rather rephrase the statement of the challenge by addressing the following question: *"How users can make their own stories?"*. It is time to change the way the city's narrative from storytelling to story-making by including all its interested parties: citizens, investors, innovators, tourists.

The Case of Geneva City Branding

Geneva (Switzerland) is one of the world's leading cities, recognized as a financial hub, a global center of diplomacy and a technology and innovation center. It is also a popular tourist destination, offering a high quality of life to its residents. It hosts the highest number of international organizations in the world, including global headquarters of institutions like the United Nations. The situation of Geneva is of special interest, not only due to the various actor's involvement and international stakeholders directly and indirectly involved, but it also integrates many distinct cultures and identities (Kaufmann et al., 2008).

A strong issue on city branding is the public transport that can be used for free if you book a hotel in Geneva. You will get a Geneva Transport Card while checking in. Note that it is only valid for traveling within the city. The train to the airport is included too. Many of the rail passes also include free public transport in Geneva and in a much wider area as well. If you arrive at Geneva Airport you will get a free ride into town. There's also a Geneva Pass that you can purchase for 1, 2 or 3 days. It includes free public transport and free or discounted attractions.

Cooperation of Public transport authority, Municipality and Tourism authorities including cooporation with Hotels, food and beverage shops, retailers. The main targets of the city branding are:

- Visiting local attraction
- Sustainability and carbon neutral
- Cover the cost for use of Tram and PT
- Promote Green city and quality of life as a city brand

The Case of Montreal City Branding

Due to the fact that more than 65 international organizations, including the headquarters of 4 UN agencies, are located in Montréal, the idea was to renovate the city environment connecting the Green policy with the modern life. A number of Montréal initiatives have fostered international co-operation between cities that view creativity as a driver of sustainable urban development, social inclusion and cultural outreach. Each has been an opportunity for promoting Montréal's designation as a UNESCO City of Design and the talent and know-how of local designers and opening up new markets (UNESCO, 2016).

As part of a broader process of inter-urban competition, city governments have increasingly sought to 'position' themselves as centers of creativity. In these branding initiatives, culture is viewed as a tool of urban regeneration and economic development. Our paper examines the case of Commerce Design Montréal, an annual design competition run by the City of Montréal, which aims to brand Montréal as a centre of design. Commerce Design Montréal is an example of a 'fast' policy initiated by the state but carried out by business owners and citizens. As such, it represents a downloading of the responsibility for economic development to the private or individual scale and adopts only a partial view of the varied actors and uses that are implicated in the design process.

Montréal is the perfect fusion of the past, the present and the future. From the cobblestone streets, historic architecture and old-world charm of Old Montréal to its bright and modern downtown, Montréal can be characterized by a distinctly European "joie de vivre" attitude. The city is also home to a rich, diverse arts scene and creativity can be found everywhere in its vast forms. Visual arts: From prestigious museums of historical artifacts, architecture and modern and contemporary art to boutique art galleries and eclectic exhibitions. Performing arts: From music, to dance, opera, theatre, the circus arts and film, all categories are represented, highlighting the city's high level of creativity, energy and passion.

Montréal is the home to poets, artists and dreamers, Montréal is as serious about its music as it is about food. Quebec's stylish, French-speaking city of creatives has an eclectic, experimental, bold music scene dating back to the 1920s. This includes indie, electronica, world beats, rock and heavy metal, classical, hip hop, jazz and blues.

City Branding Strategies Towards Business Ecosystem Development

Strategies for national, regional and city branding focus on two main pillars:

- A great symphony of synergies
- Many stakeholder's engagement resulting a high focus on cooperation scheme and leadership

From a content perspective, the question of integration is about building up a unifying, comprehensive and updated narrative of the contemporary city. From a governance perspective, integrated city branding is about creating, working area for the diverse entities in the city targeting and interacting with different groups: visitors, investors, and residents. It is about activating synergies between the different city assets to build up a unifying narrative resulting in a clearer positioning.

City branding strategies target three main groups:

- the tourists and visitors,
- the strategic marketing and
- the inward investments.

It is the kind of agency created to work on synergies among those targeting and interacting with specific groups. A shared vision on its branding principles should focus on target groups, economic clusters, and city branding strategy. A number of key messages taken from the Rotterdam´s experience in the last decade could be summarized in three principles:

- Principle 1: everybody can play a role. So, a major objective should be to "organize enthusiasm and give inspiration to partners in the city", with the result that parties involved "should do and feel responsibility for the city brand".
- Principle 2: investing in partnerships. It requires little or no budget, which suits to the current lower public spending environment. In this sense, it is much better to prospect new ways for strategic communication than compulsive investment in campaigns and advertising.
- Principle 3: clear responsibilities at different levels. Numerous organisations play a role, but the real change is to promote more clear assignments (who should do what), based on accountability, avoiding overlapping and creating synergies and more cohesion.

The most important aspect is the shareability and usability of the concept, aiming to strive and make it applicable for all marketing and promotion opportunities. Every opportunity has been addressed with a design ranging from consistent website designs, social media campaign application, in outdoor media, in print magazines, at the transport infrastructure such as an airport, on trade fairs and in sports equipment.

CONCLUSION

In modern word, national branding is more than logos and slogans, it is about campaigning, creating awareness and create valuable engagement to activate the right target audiences and key markets. It's a clear and strong base for the nation's communication deals with a multisectoral development strategy giving a confidence boost in the business ecosystem.

The rise of integrated place branding in modern urban or regional development policies, as opposed to the usual divorce between strategies targeting tourists & visitors on the one hand, and business & investors on the other, is demanding new organizational models. The adaptation to a lower public-spending environment and the subsequent social demand for radical innovations and effectiveness in the public sector, are major driving forces as well. Such a momentum is also an opportunity to set up more effective patterns for stakeholder involvement – business community, tourist promotion boards, University and the local knowledge system, main urban facilities, etc – which should aim at both co-production of content for the city brand and co-delivery of the communication initiatives, including in terms of financial responsibility.

Branding and communication within the chain of strategic planning and management deals with the institutionalization of integrated city-branding. Local partnerships and platforms for stakeholder engagement and management. The Flexible collaboration and visitors-oriented Brand-toolkits usability are key success factors, getting commitment from local stakeholders and potential users. Adaptation to lower public-funding environments: breaking the vicious circle of "no money no action", therefore, the framework of cooperation with the private sector and local enterprises is the cornerstone of efficient strategic planning and effective value chain management.

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Chapter 10
To Understand the Approach to Discount Days in Turkey:
Investigation of the Response to the Change of the Black Friday Name

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ABSTRACT

The discount days event has become a global opportunity for marketing and companies' strategies aimed at increasing sales. The main purpose of this chapter is to understand consumer behavior on discount days and suggest how retailers can use those consumer behaviors. Another purpose of this study is to research the effects and results of used new domestic campaign names instead of the name of Black Friday in Turkey. This study measured the effects of the variables of domestic campaign name, perceived usefulness, and the attitude towards the Black Friday discount campaign days, which are thought to affect the repurchase intentions of consumers on this days. The results of analyzed test shows that the use of domestic names in discount activities positively affected both the perceived usefulness and attitudes towards the campaign among Turkish shoppers, but it has been found to have no impact on repurchasing decisions.

INTRODUCTION

This study approaches the famous "Black Friday phenomenon" from cultural marketing perspective. After providing an overview of international literature, the features of Black Friday in Turkey will be highlighted. This study is to contribute to a better understanding of this important marketing and retail activities in Turkey. It is very important for marketers to present the motivations that push consumers to buy during these sales periods. On these special discount days, different practices can be found in different countries of the world.

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Especially as a result of negative criticism regarding to name of Black Friday during 2018 and 2019 campaign days in Turkey. Generally companies have not used the term “Black Friday” in naming their campaigns to avoid connecting negative connotations to a day holy for Muslims in 2020. In stead of using “Black Friday” used different names such as “Awaited Friday”, “Best Friday,” “Fabulous Friday” “Legendary Friday”, “Good Friday”, “Visible Friday”, “Great Friday”, “Expected Friday” and “Super Friday” etc. in both electronic commerce websites and physical stores in Turkey. Specifically we address the question, how consumers were affected change of discount campaigns name during Black Friday shopping days in Turkey.

An interesting example is that the leading e-commerce company Souq.com in the Middle East ran the campaign by changing the name Black Friday to white Friday because the sad and negative meaning of the color Black is reflected to Friday (Al Natour, W., 2019, p.19). Although Turkey is not one of the Middle East countries, where the population rate is 99% Muslim and some segments are sensitive against names and products with foreign cultural elements.

In contrast to other studies, particularly, this study will focus on although the deep cultural differences between Turkey and countries such as European, Usa, how Turkish market adaptation to this process. In this campaign process in Turkey, there was some misunderstandings arising from the name of the campaign in the past years, To change this perception in Turkey, it will be examined effects of the change of campaigns name.

In the application part of this study, in order to determine reasons to repurchase intention on discount days, prepared survey was responded by a total of 302 consumer who have purchased at least once in Black Friday days in 2020. The obtained data were analyzed and reported by SMARTpls and SPSS20 package programs. Firstly, Descriptive statistics and Explanatory Factor Analysis (AFA) were performed via SPSS20 and the data reduced to a total of 4 underlying factors. Then the data were tested by frequency and reliability analysis respectively, then confirmatory factor analyzes were done it and finally hypothesis testing was conducted through SMARTpls. According to the results of the hypothesis test, the assumed relationships in the first 6 of the 7 hypotheses are significant, while there is no significant relationship between Domestic Campaign Name and Repurchase Intentions. The results of analyzed test shows that domestic campaign name was found to be significantly related to perceived uselfulness and attitude towards the campaign on this days. perceived uselfulness and attitude towards were also found to be significantly related to the repurchase Intention. The use of local names in discount activities positively affected both the perceived usefulness and attitudes towards the campaign among Turkish shoppers, but it has been found to have no impact on repurchasing decisions. The study also found that perceived uselfulness and attitude towards mediates between domestic campaign name and repurchase intentions. The study also found that perceived uselfulness and attitude towards mediates between domestic campaign name and repurchase intentions.

BACKGROUND

Recently, Marketing campaigns focus on the creating promotions or launch of new products for events like Black Friday (Ren et al., 2016, p.3). Every year, Retailers look forward to busy shopping days such as Cyber Monday and Black Fridays. Retailers use Black Friday promotions to attract shoppers to their stores, with longer shopping hours and in-store promotions leading to Black Friday sales (Swilley & Goldsmith, 2013, p.44).

Although the specific origin of the term Black Friday is unknown, the term is urban myth informes that first times used in 1965 by traffic police in center of Philadelphia who referred to the mass of shoppers and the traffic that ensued as “Black Friday”. Retailers had used the Black friday term to refer to accounting practices in which losses were recorded in red ink and profits were recorded in black ink by the 1980s. Thus, Black Friday refers to the to the day of the year when retailers hope to go from being in the “red” (losses) to being in the “black” (profit) (Apfelbaum, 1966; Morrison, 2008; Thomas & Peters, 2011, p.522).

Black friday discount days are very common in the world, each country has a different responses against this campaign. For example in America, Shopping during this period accounts approximately 25% to 40% of America’s total annual retail sales (NRF, 2011). In order to achieve positive monetary results for the end of the year, retailers look forward to the holiday shopping period. Because Shoppers spend overmuch during this discount days. while the holiday season, retailers rely heavily on different marketing strategies such as advertising and consumer word-of-mouth(WOM) to bring customers into stores and online shopping. In order to maximize profit, retailers are keen to understand consumer buying behaviours that will support the achieving profits during this shopping days (Swilley & Goldsmith, 2013, p.43). According to Adobe Analytics; 51% of consumers indicated that they prefer to shop on big days like Black Friday and Cyber Monday. Black Friday sales were the second-largest online sales in history during 2019 and Cyber Monday spend was $9.2 billion in 2019. Black Friday and Thanksgiving were big online shopping days, record-setting in fact, with U.S. consumers spending $7.4 billion online and $4.2 billion respectively for an $11.6 billion total (Onlıne Spend Predıctıon, 2019).

Bell and colleagues point out that so far, Black Friday does not only become the day of biggest shopping period for retailers in the Amerika, it is also the actual start to the “Christmas shopping fever”, a serious a hedonistic social event for the American consumer (Andras & Tamas, 2019, p.18). Black Friday selling reached $7.2 billion in online sales in the U.S. alone which has been increased by 14% compared to last year in 2019. Globally, according to Salesforce sales reached 20 billion dollar as other countries join in Black Friday sales. Mobile shopping accounted for nearly half of all online shopping on Thanksgiving Day itself, and on Black Friday mobile sale passed the 50 percent limit. According to Salesforce data, 56 percent of all online orders on Black Friday were completed on a mobile phones (Salesforce.com, 2019).

These discount days increase day by day in other parts of the World as well. For instance; According to some research, 74 percent of Spanish consumer save up money to spend just on this discount day and to buy on average 2 and 3 products. In addition, 88 percent of Spanish population trust in the accuracy of the sales (Pruett, M. 2018; Saura et al., 2019, p.2). For example, when looking at Romania from eastern European countries, Black Friday provides discounts of 30-60% in a wide range of products in Romania (Criveanu, M. M., 2016, p.401).

Turkey’s was adapted to Black Friday discount days later than many countries. When Turkey Black Friday sales figures are examined, Search volume has increased by 123% from December 2016 to October 2019 and Turkey ranks 10th for Black Friday search volume (Black Friday Statistic, 2019).

According to Iyzico research, depends on the transactions accounted through 29.000 online commerce platform members, within the “Black Friday” discount day (11.23.2018), the number of shopping made by consumers has risen four times compared to other normal days in Turkey. Also According to the prepared Black Friday report by Inveon, it is stated that the revenues generated by the e-commerce platforms that commented on that day was 876 percent higher than normal days and the e-commerce conversion rate was 12.2 percent (Tusiad, 2019, p.19).

According to data of Digital Related, in 2019 a totally 2.3 million items were purchased on Turkey's e-commerce platforms on Black Friday, which pointing to a nearly 45% rise compared with 2018, the largest group of consumers were shopper between 22 and 34 years old. According to Related Digital, 60% of purchasing on Black Friday was done through computers. The most seller items were clothes and cosmetics products, this two item followed by smartphones, home decoration, phones accessories, and white good products. Computers, Small home appliances and computers accessories were also within the popular items on Black Friday consumer' list. Black Friday campaigns, reveals an interesting difference between Turkey and World. In other countries, Black Friday is mostly followed by men, women are taking advantage of the Black Friday campaigns more than men in Turkey. According to survey Although 47 percent of women benefits in the World, 58 pecentage of women shopping in Turkey during this compaing (Digital Related, 2020, p.4).

With the pandemic that appeared in the first quarter of 2020, Black Friday was very busy for both globally and Turkey in 2020. In the report prepared by Inseder, Black Friday revenue is showed an increase of 36.31 percent globally and 9.63 percent in Turkey. According to the global data, there has been an increase of f16.05 percent in conversion rates compared to 2019 (Webrazzi, 2020).

TO UNDERSTAND THE APPROACH TO BLACK FRİDAY

Change of Black Friday Name

As can be seen in the figures, it is seen that the discount days are spreading rapidly in different parts of the world. However, it is obvious that problems may be faced if the socio-cultural differences, which are the most important issues in international marketing, should not be taken into consideration for each country. Overall, this study will focus on the problem encountered in the adaptation of the name Black Friday campaign.

Apparently, most studies involved to Black Friday focus primarily on the aspects of consumer behaviors. Consumer behavior researches mainly point out the question of purchase, repurchase and repurchasing motivations (Thomas & Peters 2011, Swilley & Goldsmith 2013, Kwon, Brinthaupt 2015, Delcea, Ioanas, Paun, 2017).

When the name Black friday is examined in terms of meaning, it is thought that it will cause misunderstanding in Muslim countries. There are "moral meanings" that people ascribe to objects in black and white colours. Therefore, it seems that people have been classificated to objects in black color as potentially "bad" and those in white color as potentially "morally good" (Chan, E. Y. & Meng, Y. 2020, p.1). The practices of religious groups may derive from common root beliefs but these are often separately developed in specific contexts. Many religions have special days for prayer that determine when workers can be available for working. For most Christians the day of prayer is Sunday, Muslims Friday and Jews Saturday. How such practices are accommodated in organisations is an issue that managers will need to confront with increasing frequency as religious diversity in nations increases (Haddad 2002; Bouma et al., 2003, p.52). Islam as a complete way of life movements to limited and control people behavior as consumers, to achieve comfort, happiness and peace in this world and after death (Mustafar & Borhan, 2013, p.1301). It should be considered very carefully when using such socio-cultural issues for commercial purposes. Although culture is a fundamental defining aspect of human behavior and desire, it is basiclly religious groups that form subcultures, which affect consumer behavior. Fundamentally, subculture could be based on four elements; religious groups, nationality groups, ethnic groups and geographical regions. Therefore, ıt could be thought that, religion is an important influencing factor of human consumption behavior.

As is well known, Developing a brand name is a important marketing challenge, particularlly in an period when brands compete across different countries, value systems and cultures (Mittal & Tsiros 1995; Wu et al., 2019, p.158). From a brand building aspect, developing brand identities that communicate universal appeal during highlighting specific emphases for domestic markets' could be seen as a solution to create brands that have consistent identities across other markets (Hsieh & Lindridge, 2005, p.24; Kipnis et al., 2012, p.844).

International marketing induced brand name change can be described as a change to the name of a service or product and campaign names as well in order to countries languages rules, pronunciations, simplification of name and cultural differences. Examples within the England include the change of Jif to Cif and Marathon to Snickers (Round & Roper, 2010, p.942).

Many studies show that brand positioning strategies used by International companies may also adaptated cultural local attractiveness into a brand's name. For instance, language in advertising and labelling appeals brand imagery and name are all used to build a brand's image more suitable to the dosmetic cultural and consumption contexts and thus leverage brand equity. One of the features of global consumers is that they adaptated goals of maintaining their unique local identities and of obtaining membership of the global community by interpreting the global consumption meanings into locally unique meanings suitable to their given country (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006; Kjeldgaard & Ostberg, 2007; Kipnis et al., 2012, p.844).

There are significant and positive influence in the relationship between local brand name and toward shopping on Black Friday attitude. On the other hand, According to Diantanti (2018) local-name brand and foreign-name brand are no significant effects attitude and repurchase intention (Diantanti et al. 2018, p.92).

Perceived Usefulness

In this study, The perceived usefulness of shopping black friday days represent both utilitarian and hedonic benefits which include monetary and nonmonetary savings. In terms of special offers, pleasure, finding more options the perceived usefulness of discount campaign days shopping refers to the value of these days over other days. Perceived usefulness is about whether the shopping experience is happening efficiently or not. Pragmatic consumers see the shopping experience as a function of getting what they need or want and complete their shopping (Cai & Shannon, 2012, p.38). According to Lee (2008), a specific extent on reasons offered, there are two main types of perceived usefulness, it can be categorized as indirect and direct advantages. Indirect advantages are less tangible benefits and difficult to measure them. Direct benefits mean immediate and tangible usefulness to customers. Many researchers demonstrate that perceived usefulness considerably influences attitudes and also influencing repurchase (Shih, 2004; Song & Zhang, 2004; Swilley & Goldsmith, 2007; Vijayasarathy, 2004; Lee 2008; Swilley & Goldsmith 2013, p.45). As a result of these studies, ıt can be said perceived usefulness of shopping positively influences repurchase intentions to shop on Black Friday.

Attitude Towards the Campaign

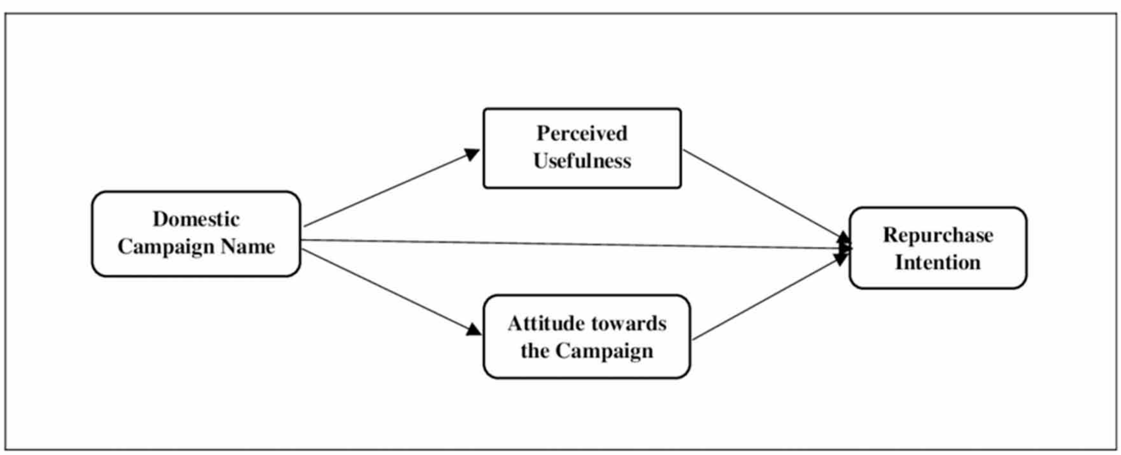
Attitude means to a mental position or a feeling that the individual takes in relation to any thought or situation. Attitudes are trends learned from past experiences and the close environment (Koç 2012, p.234). For this reason, it is possible to change attitudes, for instance, positive or negative experiences resulting from the purchase may cause attitudes to change. Attitudes will not be changed easyly as they have a stable and permanent tendency (İslamoğlu & Altunışık 2010, p.151).

The performance of a certain behavior can be explained by considering the attitude towards the behavior (Shim and Maggs, 2005; Hartman et al., 2006; Cai & Shannon, 2012, p.39). Consumer attitudes which is one of the main reason of the intention to shopping has been generally used for understanding what influences repurchase intentions. Consumer attitudes have been determined positively affect repurchase intentions (Chen et al., 2002; Vijayasarathy, 2004). Therefore, for discount days shopping, we assume (Swilley & Goldsmith 2013, p.45) there are significant and positive influence in the relationship between brand attitude toward repurchase intention (Diantanti et al. 2018, p.92).

Research Model and Hypotheses

In this part of study, the research model created as a result of the literature review, this model was created depends on the variables used in this study.

Figure 1. Research Model



Hypothesis Construction

As a result of the literature review, the following hypotheses have been put forward in line with the model created in accordance with the purpose of the research and the explanations suggested in the literature sections: Based on the above information, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and Perceived Usefulness.

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and the Attitude Towards the Campaign.
$H_{3:}$ There is a significant relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and the Repurchase Intention.
H_4: There is a significant relationship between Perceived Usefulness and Repurchase Intention.
H_5: There is a significant relationship between the Attitude towards the Campaign and the Repurchase Intention.
H_6: The Perceived Usefulness has a mediating role in the relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and the Repurchase Intention.
H_7: The Attitude Against Campaign has a mediating role in the relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and the Repurchase Intention.

Scales Used and Data Collection Process ın this research, the selection of the research sample is important in terms of demographic characteristics. Especially in the selection of the sample it was paid attention to include consumers from every sociology. Questionnaire were carefully distributed to consumers have a heterogeneous structure, especially in terms of education level and income. In this context, answers were obtained from consumers who are in primary education, high school, undergraduate and graduate education, as well as from various income groups. In order to test the hypotheses put forward, the research data were obtained through a questionnaire form which is created with the previous scales obtained from the literature. In the survey study, with the aim of reaching consumers who have shopped on the discount campaign days at the end of November 2020.

It is very important to contact consumers and get the most correct knowledge. In this study, it was preferred the method of online survey through Google Forms. This method has made it possible to get contact to different demographic characteristics respondents in a short time, it is very important to reach consumer very quickly, because this shopping event takes place once a year. In the period 1-20 December 2020, a total of 316 respondents filled in our survey. Of this total, 302 completed questionnaires were used in the data analysis; 14 questionnaires were removed because they were not suitable for analysis. For multiple variable analysis, the sample size should be several times (preferably at least 10 times or more) bigger than number of variables used in the study (Altunışık et al., 2015, p.137). In addition, it is suggested that the required sample size for structural equation models should be at least 150 (Bentler & Chou 1987; Civelek 2018, p.16). Therefore, 425 collected questionnaires for analysis are considered sufficient for the sample size.

The obtained data were analyzed and reported by SmartPLS4 package program. Firstly, Explanatory Factor Analysis (AFA) was performed, in order of, the data were tested by descriptive analysis and reliability analysis by SPSS. Afterwards, confirmatory factor analyzes and hypothesis testing were performed via SmartPLS. Structure equation modeling (SEM) was employed to confirm the research model.

As a result of the literature review, scales that best represent the variables to be used were chosen. In this context, it was decided to include scales that were previously developed and tested for validity and reliability by the researchers. The questionnaires applied in this study 5-point Likert scale (1= totally disagree, 2= disagree, 3= undecided, 4= agree, 5= totally agree) was used to answer. In the study, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) study was used to measure the attitudes of consumers towards discount days. To measure the Local campaign name variable, the first three are Cho, Lee & Tharp (2001) and the last two statements were adapted from the studies of Zhang and Schmitt (2001), total consisting of 5 statements. For the the perceived usefulnes utilized 5 expressions created by Swilley and Goldsmith. Finally, for the repurchase intention variable, the 3-statement scales used in the Liu 2012 studies were used. Firstly survey was created by using different sources in English. For the Turkish participant, the questionnaire was first translated into Turkish and then back translated to English to check correct translation.

Findings

Descriptive statistics findings obtained are shown in Table 1. In this study gender, marital status, age, education level and monthly household income are the descriptives variables. When the descriptive statistics are examined, it is seen that 51.3% of the consumers participating in the study are women and 48.7% are men, which shows that the participants are homogeneously distributed in terms of gender. 27.1% of consumers are under the age of 20, 47.8% in the 21-30 age range, 19.8% in the 31-40 age range, 3.6% in the 41-50 age range and 1.7% of them are in the age group 51 and over. 24.6% of the consumers are married and 75.4% are single. When the education status of the consumers is examined, it is seen that 10.8% of them have high school and below, 70.6% have undergraduate and 9.6% have graduate education. This shows that the education level of the majority of the participants is high. Finally, when consumers are grouped according to their income levels, 28.1% are in the 2000 TL and below income group, 41.1% in the 2001-4000 TL income group, 16.9% in the 4001-6000 TL income group and 13.9% is in the income group of 6000 TL and above.

Table 1. Distribution of Consumers Participating in the Research by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Features	Category	Frequency (*f*)	Percent (%)
Gender	Female	155	51.3
	Male	147	48.7
Age	Age 20 and Under	82	27.1
	21-30	144	47.8
	31-40	60	19.8
	41-50	11	3.6
	51 and Over	5	1.7
Marital Status	Married	74	24.6
	Single	228	75.4
Education Level	High School and Below	33	10.8
	University	240	79.6
	Master and Above	29	9.6
Monthly Household Income	2000 TL and Below	85	28.1
	2001 TL-4000 TL	124	41.1
	4001 TL-6000 TL	51	16.9
	6001 TL and Above	42	13.9

Before the analysis of the research model, the Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analyzes were performed. Within the scope of validity and reliability studies; Discriminant validity, Internal consistency reliability and convergent validity were examined. Cronbach Alpha and Composite Reliability

(CR) coefficients were examined for internal consistency reliability. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values explained with factor loadings were used to determine the convergent validity. Factor loadings as ≥0.70, Cronbach Alpha and composite reliability coefficients as ≥0.70, and the average variance extracted value are expected to be ≥0.50 (Hair et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2014; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 2 below contains the results about the convergent validity and internal consistency reliability of the structures in the research.

Table 2. Measurement Model Results

Variable	Item	Factor Loads	Cronbach Alfa	CR	AVE
Domestic Campaign Name	Name1	0,825	0,829	0,877	0,591
	Name2	0,786			
	Name3	0,631			
	Name4	0.872			
	Name5	0.706			
Perceived Usefulness	Usefulness1	0,873	0,937	0,952	0,800
	Usefulness2	0,891			
	Usefulness3	0,918			
	Usefulness4	0,904			
	Usefulness5	0,886			
Attitude Against Campaign	Attitude1	0,769	0,937	0,952	0,800
	Attitude2	0,767			
	Attitude3	0,901			
Repurchase Intention	Intention1	0,874	0,861	0,915	0,782
	Intention2	0,898			
	Intention3	0,882			

According to Hair et al. (2014) factor loads should be ≥0.70. Also, factor loads above 0.50 could be accepted, but items below 0.50 must be removed. In the relevant factor loads, the minimum value is 0.631 and the maximum value is 0.918.

Hair et al. (2010; 2017), the Cronbach Alpha and CR (Composite Reliability) should be ≥0.70. It can be said that the internal consistency reliability was ensured because of the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were between 0.829 and 0.937, also the CR (Composite Reliability) between 0.829 and 0.952.

When the values in the table are investigated, It can be stated that the convergent validity is provided because factor loads are between 0.631 and 0.918; AVE values are between 0.591 and 0.800. AVE coefficient should be ≥0.50 (Chin, 1998).

To determine the discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker (1981) and Henseler et al. (HTMT) criterion (2015) were used. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) criteria, the mean square root of the average explained variance (AVE) values of the structures in the study should be higher than the correlations of the structures involved in the research.

Table 3. The Result of The Discriminant Validity (Fornell and Larckell Criteria)

	Domestic Campaign Name	Attitude Against Campaign	Perceived Usefulness	Repurchase Intention
Domestic Campaign Name	**(0,769)**			
Attitude Against Campaign	0,247	**(0,815)**		
Perceived Usefulness	0,295	0,361	**(0,894)**	
Repurchase Intention	0,285	0,411	0,781	**(0,884)**

The values in parentheses in the table are the square root values of Average Variance Extracted. When the values in the table are analyzed, it is seen that the square root of the AVE value for each structure is higher than its correlation with other structures.

According to the criteria of Henseler et al. (2015) HTMT (Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio), It expresses the ratio of the mean correlations of the expressions of all the variables in the study (the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations) to the geometric means (the monotrait-heteromethod correlations) of the expressions of the same variable. The authors stated that the HTMT value; it should be under 0.90, and it might be under 0.85 in terms of content that are distant from each other. HTMT values are given in Table 4.

Table 4. The Result of The Discriminant Validity (HTMT Criteria)

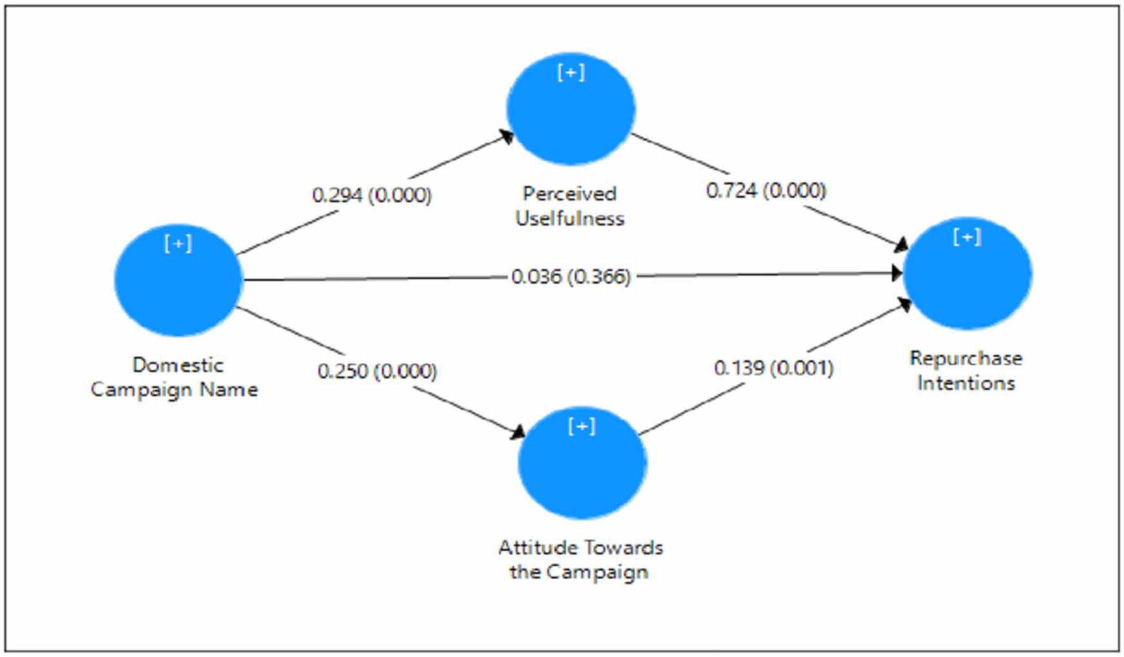
	Domestic Campaign Name	Attitude Against Campaign	Perceived Usefulness	Repurchase Intention
Domestic Campaign Name				
Attitude Against Campaign	0,270			
Perceived Usefulness	0,317	0,427		
Repurchase Intention	0,302	0,507	0,863	

An analysis of the values in the table it is seen that the HTMT value below the threshold value. As a result, it can be stated that the discrimination validity is provided based on the findings in Table 3 and Table 4. The Structural Equation Model Created to Test The Hypotheses of The Research is Shown in Figure 2.

Partial least squares (PLS-SEM) path modeling was used to analyze the research model. Data were analyzed using the SmartPLS statistics program (Ringle et al., 2015). Regarding the research model; PLS algorithm was run to calculate path coefficients and R_2. To evaluate the significance of the PLS path coefficients, t-values were calculated by taking 5000 subsamples from the sample with bootstrapping. In addition, as a result of the test conducted through Smart PLS; Goodness of fit indices were found to be within acceptable fit criteria with SMRM 0.074 NFI: 0.804. These results reveal that sufficient goodness of fit is achieved and the model is compatible with the data (Brown, 2006; Kristan, 2008; Simon et al., 2010).

According to the results of SEM analysis, a statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) and positive ($\beta = 0.295$) relationship was found between the Domestic Campaign Name and Perceived Benefit. Therefore, the H_1

Figure 2. Structural Equation Model



hypothesis was supported. Secondly, between the Local Campaign Name and the Attitude Towards the Campaign relationship was found a statistically significant (p <0.01) and positive (β = 0.153). Therefore, the H2 hypothesis is also supported. It was observed that there was no statistically significant (p <0.01) relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name and Repurchase Intention, and according to these results, the H_3 hypothesis is not supported. It was observed that there was a statistically significant (p <0.01) and positive (= 0.722) relationship between Perceived Usefulness and Repurchase Intention. Hence, the H_4 hypothesis was also supported. It was determined that there was no statistically significant

Table 5. Research Model Coefficients

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">Variables</th><th>Standardized β</th><th>Standard error</th><th>t value</th><th>p</th></tr>
<tr><td>Perceived Usefulness</td><td colspan="2">Repurchase Intention</td><td>0,722</td><td>0,036</td><td>20,146</td><td>0,000</td></tr>
<tr><td>Attitude Against Campaign</td><td colspan="2">Repurchase Intention</td><td>0,139</td><td>0,042</td><td>3,309</td><td>0,001</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Domestic Campaign Name</td><td colspan="2">Perceived Usefulness</td><td>0,295</td><td>0,058</td><td>5,078</td><td>0,000</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Attitude Against Campaign</td><td>0,153</td><td>0,061</td><td>2,512</td><td>0,000</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Repurchase Intention</td><td>0,037</td><td>0,039</td><td>0,942</td><td>0,361</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Domestic Campaign Name</td><td>Perceived Usefulness</td><td>Repurchase Intention</td><td>0,213</td><td>0,042</td><td>5,016</td><td>0,000</td></tr>
<tr><td>Attitude Against Campaign</td><td>Repurchase Intention</td><td>0,035</td><td>0,011</td><td>1,956</td><td>0,009</td></tr>
</table>

($p < 0.01$) relationship between the Attitude towards the Campaign and the Repurchase Intention, and the results showed that the H_5 hypothesis was not supported. In addition, when the total effect of the variables of Domestic Campaign Name, Perceived Benefit and Attitude Against Campaign on Repurchase Intention is examined, it is seen that the R_2 value is 0.635 and therefore approximately 64% of the variance in the Repurchase Intention is explained by these three variables.

In order to determine the results of H_6 and H_7 hypotheses; Mediation effect has been tested (Baron & Kenny; 1986). In the first stage, the significance of the path coefficient was tested by removing the mediator variables (the Perceived Benefit and Attitude Towards Campaign) from research model to investigate the mediation effect. It was found that the Domestic Campaign Name affected the Repurchase intention ($\beta = 0.297$; $p < 0.01$).

In the second step, the effects of independent variables on the mediator variable were tested. It was determined that the Domestic Campaign Name affected Perceived Benefit ($\beta = 0.297$; $p < 0.01$) and Attitude Towards the Campaign ($\beta = 0.264$; $p < 0.01$).

In the first part of the third stage, the effects of the mediator variables on the dependent variable were tested, the variable of Perceived Benefit affected the Repurchase intention ($\beta = 0.734$; $p < 0.01$) and the Attitude Against the Campaign affected the Repurchase intention ($\beta = 0.145$; $p < 0.01$).), has been found.

In the second part of the third stage; Independent mediator, and dependent variables were measured together and here, first of all, the Attitude towards Campaign mediator variable was removed from the model and the model was run. It was observed that the effect of the independent variable (Domestic Campaign Name) on the dependent variable (intention to buy again) became meaningless ($\beta = 0.056$; $p > 0.05$) and it was found to be a full intermediary role.

The significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable in the model from which the intermediary variables are removed; In the model with mediating variables, it was observed that the independent variables had significant effects on the mediator variable and the mediator variable had significant effects on the dependent variable. Therefore, it can be stated that the Perceived Benefit and Attitude towards Campaign variables play a role in the relationship between the Domestic Campaign Name variable and the Repurchase intention variables. As a result, the H_6 and H_7 hypotheses of the study were also supported.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Further studies are needed to expose the shopping motivations and the behavior of consumers in global discount days sales in different regions. Results of this study may contribute to a more efficient and effective marketing activities of in-store and online retail companies that are or will be engaged to Black Friday sales in Turkey and other Muslim countries too. Also, the findings of this research can serve as a reference for the operators who want to enter different international markets with new strategies. It is believed that this study has implications for theory, practice and future research.

In the future, it is thought that localization will have new effects on the purchasing behavior of consumers. Especially with the Covid-19 Pandemic period, this transformation can accelerate with the expectation that countries will act much more locally by being self-sufficient. On the other hand, with the acceleration of digitalization, e-commerce platforms contribute to the realization of such discount campaigns on a global scale. Considering the increase in e-commerce sales figures in different countries of the world every day, these campaigns have revealed the necessity of establishing the social-cultural values and materials of that region more locally.

In future studies, it is thought that conducting studies on different sample sizes in different countries will provide larger-scale results. Especially it can consider a comparative study between Muslim countries markets across different region.

CONCLUSION

Black Friday campaings is originally from USA., on Black Friday people enjoy that discount and spend their money which they save in advance. There is no doubt that this kind of discount days are spreading to other countries and people are enjoying this events. Normally Turkish consumers used to prefer to go shopping on occasions like before the feast, private days, end of summer and end of winter sale but nowadays people love to do shopping on that specific day such as Black Friday, Cyber Monday. One of the important reason is online shopping, which is offering so many wide variety of opportunities to attract consumers during these discount days.

This study was conducted to expand what is known about the impact of consumer behavior and to aid retailers understand their purchasing decisions, especially during discounted shopping times. The contribution of the present study is that understand consumer behavior against new adapted names (Awaited Friday, Best Friday, Fabulous Friday, Legendary Friday, Good Friday, Visible Friday, Great Friday, Expected Friday, Super Friday, White Friday) in stead of using Black Friday name. The main results show that the use of local names in Black Friday campaigns has effect on consumers' attitude towards campaigns and perceived usefulness, but there is no significant relationship between repurchase intention. These results show that although there is an opinion that inward-oriented policies and localization perception and attitude are more effective in recent years in many countries, it has been determined that this is not reflected in the purchasing behavior of consumers. In addition, it is very important that majority of participants a young and educated in terms of the results. Although the local feelings of the youth still maintain, it has been found that they do not turn them into purchasing behavior.

Finally, this study shows that localization has a direct effect on people's attitudes, but at the same time it has been observed that this does not have a direct effect on purchasing intention. This study should be developed in future studies by examining the reasons for the change between attitude and purchasing in different age groups.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Cyber Monday: One of the discount days which was created by retailers to encourage consumer to shop online. Cyber Monday is a marketing strategy for increase online shopping transactions on the Monday after Thanksgiving in the different part of World.

Digitalization: It is the name given to the process of transferring accessible information and existing resources (for example your documents, files, processes) to digital media that can be read by a computer.

Local Brand: A domestic, national, regional, or local brand is one that reflects the culture, traditions of a particular geographic field.

Middle East: The region consisting of neighboring countries and covering the places where Asia, Europe and Africa come closer to each other. Middle Eastern countries, Syria, Iraq, Qatar, Turkey, Egypt, Jordan, Israel, Lebanon, Iran, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Yemen, Kuwait, Afghanistan.

Muslim Countries: The term is used for Muslim majority population countries, which is affected from Islamic religıon of socio-political life.

Thanksgiving: It has historical roots in religious and cultural traditions, it has long been celebrated as a national holiday celebrated on several dates in some Christian countries.

Word-of-Mouth (WOM): It is the consumers' telling their thoughts about the brand/product/service/company to the people around them.

Chapter 11
Digital Communication in Attraction of Foreign Direct Investment:
A Study of EU Countries' Official Websites

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ABSTRACT

The attraction of foreign direct investment (FDI) has increasingly become a strategic priority for competitiveness between countries. The literature highlights the importance that digital platforms, namely websites, have as a promotional marketing toll to attract FDI. Therefore, it is important to understand how EU countries are using digital platforms, namely websites, to present their attractiveness for FDI. The research identifies the factors and arguments that EU countries choose to present and explore on their websites to attract FDI. All the 27 countries FDI (official) websites were analyzed. Results show that main factors presented to attract FDI are quality of life (67%), incentives (67%), talent (63%), and infrastructures information (59%). The research provides an overview of how EU countries are promoting themselves through the websites, as well as a descriptive analysis of what types of competitive arguments are being used and how they are being communicated.

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INTRODUCTION

According to the OECD (2008, p.17), foreign direct investment (FDI) is a category of cross-border investment made by a resident in one economy (the direct investor) with the objective of establishing a lasting interest in an enterprise (the direct investment enterprise) that is resident in an economy other than that of the direct investor. As so, FDI is key to promote national development, generating jobs and innovation and improve society's quality of life.

The desire to attract the "right" type of FDI often leads countries to engage in a fierce global competition (Dadush, 2013). Nations compete to attract the best companies and investments and, in this sense, promotion and communication are fundamental resources. Digital platforms are an important marketing platform used by nations to present, promote and position themselves in a global market. An internet page is an important digital marketing tool as information and image platform.

This work aims to map the determinants of FDI used by the twenty-seven EU countries to promote themselves as an attractive country to invest. The analysis will be based on the data collected on each of the EU countries official website to attract FDI. This will make it possible to trace the profile of correspondence (or lack thereof) between dimensions that the literature considers relevant to attract FDI and their use by nations on digital platforms, namely websites.

BACKGROUND

The Foreign Direct Investment Significance

Mainly since the Second World War, FDI has expanded rapidly, as national barriers tended to be removed after the war so that the free movement of capital could begin. With this change, multinational companies have emerged, and with them FDI (Bényei, 2016; Denisia, 2010). Both, OECD and the International Monetary Fund, approach FDI from the perspective of longterm relation and interest in acquiring holdings in an economy different from that one of the investor. This ideia is generally corroborated by the academy, namely, by authors like Artige and Nicolini (2005), Chawla and Rohra (2015), Agiomirgianakis et al. (2006), Coy and Cormican (2014), Solomon (2011). According to Dunning (1998), four types of motivations lead companies to invest outside of their national territory: The search for resources, markets, production optimization and strategic assets.

For Peric and Radic (2010), FDI is essential in the internationalization process and has become an important determinant of competitiveness. In other words, as Barroco (2014) states, the economic freedom for attracting FDI is considered a driver of competitiveness for countries. Chawla and Rohra (2015) point out that FDI flows more easily in countries with stability, with an open and friendly economic environment, in strong institutions rich in incentives, and large markets. Conversely, poor leadership, particularly by the government, and poor development are some of the elements that can hinder the entry of foreign direct investment in a country.

Taking into account the advantages of FDI for an economy, most countries become more receptive to the entry of this type of investment as that the impacts of FDI are very attractive for any country, economically, socially and governmentally (Baroque, 2014). According to Agiomirgianakis et al. (2006), FDI is one of the essential factors that drives the diffusion, transmission and sharing of knowledge, as well as the acquisition of technologies and ideas.

Rolo (2017, p. 5) states that FDI "gives the possibility to enter a new market and new marketing channels, to build cheaper production facilities, and to access new technologies, products, skills and sources of financing.

FDI brings a wide range of advantages to a country, such as: efficient investment, job creation, high salaries, technology transfers and government policies and facilities (to attract FDI in their territories). As so, many developed and developing countries see FDI as a solution to overcome stagnation, create jobs, revitalize local economies and avoid poverty (Artige et al., 2005). The desire to attract the 'right' type of FDI generally leads countries to engage in a global competition.

According to Bényei (2016), there is a consensus on the relevance of FDI specially when we consider its positive effects on economic growth. For Hunady and Orviska (2014) it is obvious that FDI flows are a factor that will increase and accelerate a country's economic growth. Additionally, Denisia (2010) uses Caves' (1996) concept to conclude that the interest and efforts of many countries to attract FDI are due to the great possibility of obtaining positive effects on their economies.

Assunção, Forte and Teixeira (2011) are some of the many authors who, when defining foreign direct investment, resort to a direct connection to economic growth and identify this concept as an element that promotes this growth.

Determinant Factors for Attracting Foreign Direct Investment

In order to attract FDI it is important to know what attributes investors look for when choosing a country. Of course, that those attributes vary according to the specific interests and strategy of the investor and the area of business. Nevertheless, a range of common determinants emerge from literature.

Through literature review two categories of relevant determinants to attract FDI emerge: The country attributes and the business enablers.

In the scope that can be associated with country attributes are location, quality of life and education are the most referred attributes that influence the attraction of FDI.

The presence of location advantages of a host country is one of the determinant factors for FDI. Specific advantages of the host country location represent endogenous variables that can influence the decision of investing in a certain country. "The results of numerous empirical studies, conducted with the aim of exploring the determinants of FDI location, confirm that the differences in locational advantages represent a crucial determinant in the distribution among potential host countries". (Petrovic et al., 2013, p.186).

Nevertheless, it is important to consider the complexity of the problem of identifying the main determinants of the location of FDI as these location determinants vary from country to country and are specific to an industry and a company (Petrovic et al., 2013, p.182).

Quality of life is another of the most important determinants to attract FDI. Quality of life relates to issues such as security, climate, access to culture, among others (Rolo, 2017)

For Coy and Cormican (2014), improving the quality of life is one of the unidimensional characteristics of FDI that can bring satisfaction to foreign investors. Thus, these authors conclude that there is a consensus that countries that invest in improving the quality of life are likely to more foreign investment.

Also, Li and Clarke-Hill (2004) argue that the quality of life and social facilities are important to attract investments. Hornberger et al. (2011) found that quality of life was one of the top ten determinants for foreign companies investing in developing and transition economies.

Several researchers present education as a relevant determinant of FDI. Arbatli (2011) and Du et al. (2012) are some of the authors who show the positive impact of education on FDI flows.

Khrawish and Siam (2010), show that FDI attraction is correlated with the level of education. Similarly, for Amal et al. (2009), the level of education is a variable that is shown to be positively correlated with FDI attraction, which, when improved, will provide a more favorable environment for business practices.

According to Amal et al. (2009) good levels of education can be considered as a representative variable of the development because it is through education that a country can expand competencies and train professionals to perform better within the business field.

In the scope of business enablers most relevant attributes identified by literature are legal framework, support, incentives, infrastructures and talent.

The stability of the host country's legal framework is a matter of great relevance for foreign investors, as they prefer and privilege clear and objective regulations. According to Santos (2017), this factor is one of the most important regarding an institutional nature. For this author, changes to legal texts are one of the obstacles to FDI, since foreign investors will always seek and need a climate of confidence. In other words, the author concludes that "the transparency and effectiveness of the legal, regulatory and judicial system corresponds to a fundamental aspect when assessing the investment environment and that gathers the preference of investors for stability, transparency and absence of discrimination." (Santos, 2017, p.14).

A certain political adaptation is necessary for a positive legal environment to occur, which falls on legal and administrative transparency. Thus, it is concluded that institutions have a crucial role in maintaining a favorable and investment-enhancing climate.

Offering to foreign investors a vast support service is crucial. For Azevedo (2016), in agreement with Mota and Brandão (2013), the existence of support for FDI is a matter of high relevance, as assisting investors in the decision process and implementation of the business is crucial.

A country with high-quality infrastructures is more likely to attract FDI (Vijayakumar et al., 2010). Hunady and Orviska (2014) remember that sometimes factors like this, the quality of infrastructures, are overlooked even though they can be very important.

Cheng & Kwan (2000) argued, through empirical research, that the availability and quality of infrastructures is one of the main variables responsible for attracting FDI. According to Asiedu (2002), a country that has good infrastructures increases the productivity of the investments and thus stimulates FDI flows. On the other hand, Coy and Cormican (2014, p.10), argue that "a high-quality infrastructure is not a necessary condition for the initial investment, but infrastructure improvements are necessary to stimulate more FDI flows." For Khrawish and Siam (2010), also based on a study by Haile and Assefa (2006) on the determinants of FDI in Ethiopia, it is shown that deficient infrastructure has a very negative impact on FDI, and thus, that this determinant is essential for the FDI attraction in this country.

Assunção, Forte and Teixeira (2011) showed that financial and economic incentives are one of the determinants that influence FDI. According to OECD (2007), the use of economic incentives is increasingly more frequent, since providing them is a simpler solution than correcting anomalies related to other issues considered important, in infrastructure, for example.

Incentives are a significant determinant and governments commonly use incentives as reducing corporate taxes and loan guarantees, to attract more investments (Rolo, 2017; Dadush, 2013). Although important this factor alone is not a key determinant of FDI (Mephokee et al., 2013). Santos (2017) also recalls that in the context of policies that aim directly or indirectly to increase the attraction of FDI, the incentives, are more effective when they are planned, and subsequently implemented, by an institutional framework dedicated to foreign direct investment.

Gilmore et al. (2003) found that the availability of a skilled workforce is significantly more important for FDI decisions than low-cost labor. According to Lavrador (2013), the countries that receive the most FDI, worldwide, are those that have a more qualified workforce, as a low-skilled workforce will imply higher costs in terms of training, which consequently discourages the foreign investment.

Khrawish and Siam (2010) found a positive and significant relationship between literacy and the attraction of FDI, which leads us to affirm that a country with a higher level of literacy will attract more foreign investment. As mentioned by Coy and Cormican (2014), some studies have shown that the increase in human capital levels is a good and important indicator of highly qualified labor, which makes the host country much more attractive to FDI. Many authors emphasize the positive impact of the growth of the workforce on foreign direct investment flows. According to Cheng & Kwan (2000), based on theoretical considerations and empirical observations, wage costs adjusted by the quality of workers or labor productivity are an important variable.

METHODOLOGY

After reviewing the literature, a theoretical understanding of the concepts was obtained. This analysis aims to conclude whether the categories of analysis considered most relevant by the literature, to attract foreign direct investment, are present in the official digital platforms (websites) of each European Union country. Thus, given the objectives of the present research and the issue in question, a content analysis of the official websites, dedicated to attracting direct investment abroad, from each of the twenty-seven EU countries (Appendix 1), was performed.

As author Bardin (1997) states, thematic content analysis is a mechanism for the communications analysis. Mozzato and Grzybovski (2011) present content analysis as a rich data analysis technique with high potential for theoretical development. “Content analysis is an investigative technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication” (Berelson, 1972, p.371). Another definition emerges by Bardin (2006) who refers to content analysis as a set of techniques for analyzing communications, which uses systematic and objective procedures to describe the content of messages.

Thus, in the present research, the twenty-seven websites responsible for attracting foreign direct investment, from each of the EU countries were studied. It should be noted that all these websites under analysis contain, explicitly, any type of indication that proves that the website in question is under the responsibility of the national government organization dedicated to attracting investment.

The construction of the framework for evaluating the twenty-seven websites of the EU countries was developed in three phases: definition of research objectives, choice of indicators that according to literature best suit the intended evaluation and, finally, the analysis and measurement of indicators on websites.

The analysis framework then aims to identify the presence, or absence, of the indicators chosen by the literature on the websites. After the bibliographic review, 2 categories were established: Country attributes and business enablers. For country attributes the analysis considered location, quality of life and education, as for business enablers, legal framework, support, infrastructures, incentives and talent were considered. Data was collected between the 12th and the 25th of October 2020.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 summarizes the units of analysis present on the websites of each of the European Union countries, and this will be developed below.

Table 1. Presence of attributes per country

	Location	Quality of life	Education	Legal framework	Support	Infrastructures	Incentives	Talent	*Total of categories*
Austria	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	**7**
Belgium		√	√		√		√	√	**5**
Bulgaria			√	√	√				**3**
Croatia	√				√		√	√	**4**
Cyprus		√	√		√		√	√	**5**
Czech Rep.		√	√		√	√	√		**5**
Denmark	√				√	√		√	**4**
Estonia	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	**7**
Finland		√	√		√		√	√	**5**
France	√				√			√	**3**
Germany	√			√	√	√	√	√	**6**
Greece		√			√	√			**3**
Hungary		√			√	√	√		**4**
Ireland	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	**7**
Italy	√	√			√		√	√	**5**
Latvia	√	√			√	√	√		**5**
Lithuania	√	√			√	√	√	√	**6**
Luxembourg	√	√			√	√	√	√	**6**
Malta		√	√		√				**3**
Netherlands					√	√	√	√	**4**
Poland				√	√		√		**3**
Portugal	√	√		√	√	√		√	**6**
Romania		√	√		√	√	√		**5**
Slovakia			√		√				**2**
Slovenia		√	√		√	√	√	√	**6**
Spain	√	√			√	√	√	√	**6**
Sweden					√				**1**
Total (n)	**13**	**18**	**12**	**5**	**27**	**16**	**18**	**17**	
Total (%)	**48%**	**67%**	**44%**	**19%**	**100%**	**59%**	**67%**	**63%**	

The total sample consisted of the twenty-seven countries of the EU (table 1), all of which have information regarding implementation support available on their website (100%), followed by quality of life (67%), incentives (67%), talent (63%) and information about infrastructure (59%).

Less frequently we can find the variables location (48%), education (44%), legal framework (19%). It is possible to see that the greatest concern of countries, as seen on all sites, is to provide contacts and/or provide various services and means of support to the company that will invest. This question of support, given by the twenty-seven countries to the investor, appears on the websites essentially through a separator that directly provides the referred contacts or in the form of a form, which after filling, will lead to a contact. In addition, since many of the countries have a special investment agency, some websites make sure that they present their team and services so that there is personalized and close monitoring of foreign investors. In other words, a great deal of attention on the part of all the countries targeted by this analysis to provide monitoring to the country that intends to invest.

Second, most countries (18) choose to expose the lifestyle in their country. “quality of life” and “live in” are the expressions that appear more frequently on most sites and that represent our unit of analysis quality of life. Under this theme, countries, in general, develop subjects such as living conditions, lifestyle (“lifestyle”), climate, cost of living (“quality and costs”), culture (“quality of life and culture”), etc.

With a presence of 67% of the 27 countries, that is, seen on the website of 18 of the EU countries, are incentives. On the websites, this theme is one of the most highlighted ones described exactly by the word “incentives”. When this is not the case, it appears in the form of expressions such as “investment incentives”, “business incentives”, “financial incentives”, “tax incentives”, etc.

63% of the sites under analysis have the talent factor, which, in general, displays aspects related to productivity, qualification, skills and workforce. Talent is a theme associated with human resources and/or human capital that arises predominantly in the form of expressions such as “talent”, “high skilled workforce”, “quality workforce”, “productive and motivated workforce”, “high qualified workers”,“high labor productivity ”,“ high productivity ”,“ highly qualified and productive human resources ”.

In decreasing order, the last aspect still present in more than half of the websites, more precisely in 59%, are infrastructures. This is another topic that is presented almost always, if not always, through the exact word “infrastructures”. This theme develops on issues such as “well-connected infrastructures”, “logistic infrastructures”, “quality of infrastructures”, “business infrastructures”.

Location is shown on 13 of the websites and is essentially based on the exposure of a world map. The most used expressions on websites to present this question are “location”, “business location”, “strategic location”, “investment locations”, etc.

Present in 12 (44%) of the 27 EU websites related to investment is the variable under analysis education. This question can be developed in two different directions: one directly related to talent and sense of qualification, that is, high education, in terms of academic training, of the people/workers of that country; and the other that has to do with the education and training conditions that the country can offer.

The variable with less presence on websites is the legal framework, present in only 5 (19%) of them. This factor concerns issues related to the laws practiced in the country and can be observed on the websites, through expressions such as “legal guide”, “legal system”, “fiscal system”, “legal framework”, among others.

There are four countries, whose websites have a greater number of units of analysis, more specifically seven of them, these countries being Austria, Estonia and Ireland. Next, Germany, Spain, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Portugal constitute the group of countries that present on their websites 6 of the determinants under analysis in this work.

With a value below the average, we find four countries (Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Poland) that have 4 variables on their websites, three countries (France, Greece and Malta) that display 3 variables, one country (Slovakia) that develops 2 variables and only one country, Sweden, which only displays 1 of the units analysed in this work.

A more detailed analysis by country is presented below.

Austria

On this website, we immediately find seven main categories that are subdivided into many other topics. Of the units of analysis defined in this work, only location is one of these seven general categories. Adjacent to this, there are several subcategories such as: education, infrastructures, and “productivity and skills” which corresponds to talent and quality of life.

The incentives unit of analysis, called "investment incentives", is presented as a subcategory of "R&D" (research & development). The last of the six topics on the main bar of this website is "about us", which has subcategories "how we help", "our team" and "contact" that correspond to the implementation support analysis unit.

Belgium

In this digital platform, dedicated to investment, three main sectors are presented to us at the beginning of the home page. Within the main parameter "investing in belgium" we find 4 sub-sectors in the form of questions. By clicking on the question "how can you invest in Belgium?" We can find subjects such as talent ("excellent workforce", "high qualified workers", "professional qualifications") and quality of life ("excellent living conditions") which also addresses the theme of education ("exceptional education system").

In another of the questions presented "what do you receive in the way of tax support?" We also find the factor incentives ("costs facilities" and "what are the tax benefits"). Implementation support comes not only in the form an email "icon" but also as a guide for doing business ("guide for doing business") where several questions are presented that direct visitors to the area of the website where the information they are looking for is located. That is, a virtual "consultation" can be carried out on the website itself.

Bulgaria

This official platform presents nine highlighted categories in a horizontal bar. The first "about" takes us to the unit of analysis implementation support, since it provides contacts, presents the team and its activities. Then, the question "why Bulgaria" gives us the option "country profile". The legal framework appears in the main topic "legal framework" and in the subtopic "legal guide". Finally, in the penultimate highlighted topic "statistics and analyses", the theme education ("education and labor market") is present, which refers to various other web pages such as the ministry of education one.

Croatia

On the website information on investment incentives is present. At the top of the page, eight sectors are arranged horizontally. The first sector concerns the home page, which presents, in close-up, the cover image of a promotional video, called "invest in Croatia", where talent is the only one of the highlighted features. It is important to note that, although this unit of analysis is not textually explored, it is prominently displayed firstly in the image and also in the video.

Also, on the homepage, we find other units of analysis, such as the geolocation ("investment projects map") with a map with icons in the exact zones where projects related to a specific sector are developed, the location ("investment locations") and the incentives ("incentives calculator"). In the second sector of the horizontal bar, we find the word "investments" which takes us to another nine pages of content, two of which are again "investment locations" and "incentives". Two other sectors at the top are "about us" and "contacts" which give us the unit of analysis implementation support.

Cyprus

On this website seven main themes are presented, in a horizontal top bar. The second, "growth sectors", presents the unit of analysis education in a different context from other websites. In this case, they present the quality of teaching and of institutions in the country ("high-quality institutions and distinguished academics") and not specifically of workers. In the third main theme, which presents itself as "investor's guide", the question of quality of life is developed in the subcategory "living in Cyprus". This unit of analysis is also shown in a graph presented on the home page entitled "reasons to invest in Cyprus" where "high quality of life" is one of the reasons presented for foreign investment in this country.

Still in the main bar at the top of the page, support can be found, since there is a sector dedicated to contacts ("contact"). In the graph that explains the reasons for investing in Cyprus the talent analysis unit is also shown in the "access to talent" category and, more indirectly, incentives in the "low cost of doing business" category.

Czech Republic

On this webpage, the topics are presented vertically in the left corner. The first, "doing business in the Czech Republic" contains other direct items, which give us information regarding, for example, infrastructures. In this sub-item, this country is concerned with presenting topics such as transport, energy, and telecommunications. It is also possible to we find two other units of analysis, education ("educated workforce") and quality of life. Incentives appear as "investment incentives" through the main item "our services". "Contacts" concerns implementation support through the subtopics "general contacts", "regional offices" and "foreign offices".

Denmark

On this website, which concerns the ministry of foreign affairs, invest in Denmark, four topics are presented horizontally at the top of the page where only two of them, "our services" and "contact" refer to one of the units of analysis chosen in this work, implementation support. On the homepage, it can be found the question "why invest in Denmark?" For which five reasons are given as an answer. Although these reasons are not further explored and are only topics, we can find the following units of analysis: location ("Europe's easiest place for doing business"), talent ("productive and motivated workforce") and infrastructures ("well-connected infrastructure").

Estonia

The website has four thematic options, where most of our factors in study can be found in the second, "business in Estonia". In this section, it can be found various themes considered essential for those who want to invest in this country ("all we need to know about business in Estonia"). Talent ("labor market, a success story in maximizing human capital potential"), education, infrastructures ("modern transportation, telecommunications, and it infrastructure"), legal framework ("legal system, transparent and functioning legislation") and quality of life ("coming & living, a clean, safe and tech-savvy country") are some of those themes presented and developed in this section. On the home page, we also find the determinant under analysis location ("scalable location") as one of the five advantages of this country.

It should also be noted that implementation support is present on this website both as a main sector of the initial bar, "contact us", and throughout navigation on the website, as a small chat window in the lower right corner of the screen, with the indication: "request e-consulting".

Finland

Seven parameters are presented. By clicking on the first parameter "business environment", we can see various awards attributed to this country in recent years, which give us information related to education ("education in Finland answers to future needs best in the world"), to talent ("the second most skilled workforce in the world") and quality of life ("the happiest country in the world third year in a row").

A vertical listing of topics remains on the right side of the screen, with the title "learn more", where the incentives theme is presented. At the end of this webpage, we find implementation support, where the topic "our services" ("whatever your needs are", "invest in Finland's experts are pleased to help you.") Is also highlighted, followed by contacts.

France

In the text presented on this website, six facts about the French economy are mentioned and explored. Here it can be found the units under analysis: location ("France is open to foreign investors and located at the heart of Europe") and talent ("highly qualified and productive human resources"). Implementation support is highlighted at the bottom of the page, after the social media icons, with the option "e-mail us".

Germany

On this website, regarding investment, the information is presented directly and simply through five main topics. One concerns the location analysis unit, "business location Germany", and is divided into other subtopics. "business climate" is one of those subtopics that is associated with our infrastructures and talent analysis units.

In this case, talent appears as "labor market availability" where the theme "highly skilled workforce" is addressed. Another one of the five main topics is "federal states", which corresponds to the legal framework analysis unit. Incentives appear on the website as a subtopic of "investment guide", under "incentive programs". Finally, we also find "investment consulting" as a main topic, which, together with the "contact" icon, represent the unit of analysis implementation support.

Greece

The website features six main selection options. The first, called "Greece today", refers to two subtopics: one of them "why Greece" provides information related to the infrastructures analysis unit and the other "living in Greece" to the quality of life unit. In the second main topic, "invest in Greece", we find implementation support, in the form of one of the options, "investor's support services", as well as in the fourth and sixth topics "about us" and "contact".

It is also important to mention that this website develops the theme "human capital", where aspects related to talent are mentioned throughout the text. However, since it is not presented as a main topic or direct subtopic, it was not counted as a representative content of the unit of analysis talent.

Hungary

The official website of the embassy of Hungary has a main category, "business and trade", which refers to the option "invest in Hungary". On this page dedicated to investment, a presentation is made by HIPA which ends with a link to the specific website of the agency. On this website the information is mostly presented on the homepage, in a colorful, attractive and interactive way, using graphics and diagrams.

Near the end of the page, we can find a pdf document with the title "invest in Hungary" where we find some of the units under analysis in this work, quality of life ("living in Hungary"), infrastructures and incentives, as main topics.

The implementation support factor, present through the expression "contact us", is one of the few items found in the horizontal bar of the main selection options. This same unit of analysis is also represented at the end of the entire web page in the "HIPA services" and "contact" options.

Ireland

On this webpage, a brief introduction about the agency is exposed and both the electronic contact and website of the same are presented. This website is one of the most complete in terms of the present analysis variables. We can start by observing six main categories at the top of the home page. The first, "invest in Ireland", gives us a range of subcategories such as "workforce and demographics" and "education & skills" that correspond to our talent and education variables, "quality of life in Ireland" that refers us to the quality of life factor, and "Ireland infrastructure", relating to infrastructures.

In the second category of selection, presented as "how we help", another subcategory "how we welp" develops the theme "support, funding & incentives", where we can find the incentives and implementation support analysis units. Regarding the latter, we can also find it in the main initial bar, in the option "contact us". The third category called "doing business here" also gives us the analysis variable location, through the subcategory "locations".

Italy

The website consists of a main banner at the top with five themes. The third is presented as "invest in Italy" and after selecting it on the website we can see a menu of options presented on the right side vertically.

The first theme of this menu is called "why invest in Italy", where the option "10 reasons to invest" appears, which takes us to the units of analysis location ("strategic logistic hub"), talent ("skilled workforce"), quality of life ("quality of life and cultural offer"), incentives (pro investment incentives"), implementation support ("public support to foreign investors").

In another of the sub-themes, "business in Italy", we also find the option "investment incentives". Then in the same side menu, there is also the option "our services" that is divided into subjects such as "first contact", "support", etc., which reinforces the presence of the implementation support factor.

Latvia

In the item "invest in latvia" it can be found find the option "business guide" that gives us several selection sub-sectors with themes that correspond to the analysis units: incentives ("business incentives"), infrastructures ("business infrastructure") and quality of life ("quality of life and recreation").

Also, in this main item, it can be found the subsector "locations", linking to location. Finally, as the last main selection item, implementation support, through the "contacts" option.

Lithuania

The website of this country identifies itself as "invest Lithuania", and it is one of the most visually attractive. It presents on its homepage "reasons to choose Lithuania". These reasons are talent ("talent"), infrastructures ("infrastructure") and quality of life ("lifestyle"). In addition to the information on the opening page, on this website there is a vertical menu on the right side of the page, with various information options. The fourth option presented in the side menu is the "investor guide" which takes us to other topics, one of which concerns incentives ("financial incentives").

Then, the fifth option gives us the determining factor for attracting investment location ("investment locations"). Almost at the end of the options in this menu, and also inside a yellow square highlighted on the "contact us" homepage, we can find implementation support, in the options "our services" and "our contacts".

Luxembourg

On this website, four selection sectors are presented, the first of which is called "invest in Luxembourg" and gives access to five other themes and respective topics. The "why Luxembourg" theme brings us to four topics, where two of them are important factors of analysis. One of them presents itself as "invest in Luxembourg" and provides information such as location ("gateway to the European market"), where distances between this country and others are mentioned, talent (skilled, multilingual workforce", "renowned for its highly skilled workforce(...)"), infrastructures ("outstanding digital infrastructure") and incentives ("incentives and support programs").

The other topic is "living in Luxembourg" and corresponds to the quality of life factor. The last three themes presented in addition to "why Luxembourg", are "how we help", "Luxembourg trade and investment offices" and "start-up services", which relate to implementation support.

Malta

The website has eight initial selection options that do not have subtopics. One of these eight main options features the expression "why Malta" and develops, essentially in text format, the issues of quality of life ("Maltese lifestyle") and education ("education in Malta"). In addition to these two units of analysis, we also find implementation support, in the last selection option "contact".

Netherlands

On the website, there is a menu that gives access to essentially five thematic sets.

The first, whose title is "why investment", presents themes related to incentives ("incentives & taxes"), talent ("workforce"), infrastructures and geolocation ("where we are") where they are mentioned distances, means of transport, specific sites, and regions. The fifth, which presents itself as "how we help", together with an orange shape highlighted in an icon on the home page with the word "contact", take us to the implementation support analysis unit. In addition to this menu, on the home page, the question "why invest in holland" emerges and five answers, which again reinforce the importance of some of the factors under analysis in this work.

Poland

The website dedicated to investing in this country concerns the polish agency for investment and trade. On the home page, there are three colored shapes with the word investment in one of them. When clicking on this option, the webpage that appears refers to implementation support, as content related to "investment consulting" and the "contact us" option are presented.

Additionally, the structure of this website consists of a horizontal bar menu at the beginning of the page, whose third option is "why Poland" that will present us with another set of vertical options on the left, where can be seen issues such as incentives ("investment incentives"), geolocation ("polish regions"), in which each region is described one by one, and legal framework ("polish law").

Portugal

This agency's website presents a set of themes vertically on the left side of the web page, where one of them is precisely "investing in Portugal".

On this website it can be found in the foreground, the cover image of a promotional video that aims to answer the question "why Portugal". Then, the title "reasons to invest in Portugal" is presented, where most of the reasons presented correspond to our units of analysis, location ("best location"), infrastructures ("best infrastructure"), talent ("best talent") and quality of life ("best quality of life").

After the initial question, it can be seen another colored scheme, entitled "legal framework", with questions related to the legal framework ("tax system" and "labor system") and to implementation support ("support to the investment" and "useful contacts").

Romania

Invest Romania is the name of the website for investment in this country and presents six main thematic topics that, when clicked, suggest other subtopics. "doing business" is the second topic and refers to questions corresponding to the units of analysis education ("education & skills), infrastructures ("infrastructure"), implementation support ("government support") which itself opens to another sub-topic related to incentives ("fiscal incentives").

The third main topic gives us the factor quality of life ("life in Romania"). It should also be noted that the last topic presented in the main horizontal bar at the top of the webpage is "contact", which also complements the implementation support.

Slovakia

In this website, four themes are presented in the main horizontal bar. The first, which corresponds to the home page, presents on the left side a vertical section of options called "our services", where can be found the education factor, in the context of presenting the education system of this country. Another topic on the main bar is dedicated to contacts where, in addition to all telephone and electronic contacts, the “our faces” team and “our offices” are presented. This information refers us to the implementation support analysis unit.

Slovenia

In the horizontal bar of the main themes presented horizontally, seven options can be found. The first refers to the famous question “why Slovenia” and presents four subthemes at the top, in a horizontal bar, three of which are units under analysis in this work: “quality workforce”, the equivalent to talent; “quality infrastructure”, which corresponds to the infrastructures, and “quality of life”. “locations” is the second main theme that corresponds to our geolocation analysis unit, where it is possible to make automatic distance calculations, choose specific cities and regions, and measure areas through an interactive map.

In the other main theme “business environment” emerges the determinant incentives and also the education one, inserted in the topic “human resources”. Finally, on this website, we also find implementation support through the option in the main bar “contact”, where a contact form (“contact form”) is exposed.

Spain

This website has six tabs and is also one of the most complete according to our analysis parameters. The first tab, “why Spain?”, gives information on several units under analysis: infrastructures (“logistic infrastructures & networks”), implementation support and incentives (“investment support and incentives”) and talent (“competitive business framework”). The third main tab is “business guide” and one of the themes it develops is quality of life (“life in Spain”). Finally, the fifth topic “regions” takes us to the location analysis unit.

Sweden

It is through the official website “government offices of Sweden” in the section “trade and investment promotion” that emerges the option “government agencies” that leads to the designated website of business Sweden. This website is under the responsibility of the Swedish government and industry and aims to help international companies to invest and expand in Sweden.

This website presents four main options, and it is in the first one, “services”, that we find the option with a link to the webpage regarding investment in Sweden. Here we find only content related to implementation support, with the presence of questions such as “how we help”, “our services”, “what you can expect”, in addition to the top right corner of the entire website that also presents two other options, “about us” and “contact”.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The empirical research shows different types of attributes and different levels of information provided in the websites. While some present just 1 determinant other present information regarding almost all determinants. This doesn’t mean that potentially determinants that are not presented in the website are not present in other marketing channels and materials. Nevertheless, it is important to consider that an official site to attract FDI is a presentation ‘card’ of the country and, as so, detailed and persuasive information should be provided. In this sense it is important that countries pay more attention to information provided in digital platforms and give a 360º perspective of the country that are trying to 'sell'.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This research allowed to get to know what factors EU countries choose to present and develop on their websites to attract FDI. Possible and relevant future directions for the research could include: (1) The understanding of the rational of why each country uses certain attributes to promote itself in the respective website and (2) The analysis of each determinant relevance in the decision process of choosing a country according to area of business, as this would allow to understand the variation of importance of each attribute in relation with areas of business.

CONCLUSION

FDI is defined as the investment made to acquire a lasting interest in companies operating in an economy different from that of the investor. FDI can, among others, facilitate the transfer of management skills, increase market competition, and create job opportunities, all factors that contribute to economic growth. As so, countries are getting more focused on how to attract FDI and digital is one type of platform to be considered in the process.

In this research work, it was intended to deduce which factors are most used by the twenty-seven countries of the European Union on their websites, in order to attract investment. The main motivation for this study is to provide empirical evidence for the identification of the determining factors in attracting FDI to EU members and to verify them, in practice, on websites.

In this sense, this study concluded that the most used determinants in the websites dedicated to investment, of the twenty-seven EU countries, are support, quality of life and incentives, and on the other hand, the least present is legal framework. The study also shows big variations in terms of the type and detail level of information provided between countries.

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APPENDIX 1

OFFICIAL WEBSITES FOR ATTRACTION OF FDI

Country Link
Germany https://www.gtai.de
Austria https://investinaustria.at
Belgium https://www.business.belgium.be
Bulgaria https://www.investbg.government.bg
Cyprus https://www.investcyprus.org.cy/
Croatia http://investcroatia.gov.hr/en/
Denmark https://investindk.com/
Slovakia http://www.slovakiainvest.eu
Slovenia https://www.investslovenia.org
Spain http://www.investinspain.org
Estonia https://investinestonia.com/
Finland https://www.businessfinland.fi/
France https://www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/
Greece https://www.enterprisegreece.gov.gr/
Hungary https://hipa.hu/main
Ireland https://www.idaireland.com
Italy https://www.ice.it
Latvia http://www.liaa.gov.lv
Lithuania https://investlithuania.com
Luxembourg https://www.tradeandinvest.lu
Malta http://www.investmalta.co.za/
Netherlands https://investinholland.com/
Poland https://www.paih.gov.pl
Portugal http://www.portugalglobal.pt
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Chapter 12
How Emotional Intelligence and Consciousness (Mindfulness) in Education Can Provide a New Character and Orientation to the Nation

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ABSTRACT

Our nation and state today are going through a difficult period in their life and survival, because the moral principles and values, the principles of democracy, in particular the human principles of mutual respect, respect and empathy for each other, have been damaged. The causes are certainly deeper, and researching, one concludes that the great nursery of democracy is education lags behind in terms of adhering to the principles of education and functional efficiency. The change of orientation of our education towards the inner world of man, the upliftment of the spiritual struggle, and cultivating from the inside out with the skills of emotional intelligence and consciousness will help citizens to reorient themselves and realize that they are part of a nation but at the same time citizens of a global community with broader perceptions, goals, and obligations. The revision of education programs and the introduction in education of emotional intelligence and consciousness will lay the foundations for the creation of a new generation of sensitized and conscious citizens.

INTRODUCTION

There is a significant impact on the productivity of teachers who play an active role in shaping the spirit and character of children in fulfilling their previously mentioned role and functions. The strongest society is proportional to the strength of the individual. A person's strength is ensured by training as a person who can use his individual talents, make independent decisions, and live without dependence on oth-

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ers. In order to reveal the level of development of a society in a social, cultural and economic context, it is related to the social, cultural and the financial situation of the teacher in this society. (Ahmed and Nawaz, 2017) Through the chapters on Emotional Intelligence and Consciousness in education, the basic principles of creating the skills of emotional intelligence on the one hand and how they are related to the conscious perception and consolidation of consciousness in the individual on the other hand, are analyzed. The role of the teacher is in the phase of explaining and consolidating the skills of essential importance and is really in his hand and depends on his abilities and passion for the subject, the diffusion of knowledge and the creation of interest and motivation in the student. Through chapter 6 Multiple Intelligences and Consciousness is explained that in the work of the educator, the combination and harmonization of various indicators of intelligence and especially the linguistic, linguistic, mathematical, and interpersonal types of intelligence are a prerequisite for effective work. Further Salovey & Meyer, responding to the above theory refer to interpersonal intelligence and explain that the main mission (in the life of the individual) is to respond to his emotional life, to try to discern ad manage his emotions, as they are born, intending to categorize them and attribute to them characteristics of identification and intelligence so that they ultimately guide his perception and behaviour.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN EDUCATION

In recent years, a group of psychologists, including Sternberg and Salovi, have agreed with Gartner's theory that the old notions of IQ were an old-fashioned, anachronistic test of language and math skills that was of limited importance when student completed his high school and high school obligations and entered the path of life. According to Salovey & Meyer (1993), emotional intelligence is referred to as "The ability of man to monitor his own and others' emotions, to distinguish them and to use this information to guide his thoughts and actions ". Responding to Gartner's theory, they refer to interpersonal intelligence and explain that the main mission is to respond to one's emotional life, to try to discern and manage emotions when they are born, to try to categorize and attribute them. these ultimately guide his perception and behavior. They propose a model for managing emotional intelligence which is described through the adoption of the following stages: (I) Recognition and awareness of emotions: Recognizing the emotion at the moment it is created, is an essential energy and subsequent identification and management leads to psychological insight and self-awareness. The inability of the individual to recognize and understand his emotions puts him under their control with consequences such as creating insecurity and indecision.

(II) Control and use of emotions in finding motivation and goals: The control and guidance of the emotion is achieved after its recognition and identification is achieved. The ability of the individual to calm down and become the ruler of the inner world is the precondition for the creation of internal motivations and the definition / redefinition of personal goals and aspirations.
(III) The use of emotions in the management of thought and behaviour: Self-awareness and control of emotions through the focus of attention and motivation determine human behavior and thinking and lead to self-control and the formation of the individual's personality.
(IV) Recognizing the feelings of others and manipulating human relationships: It is the root of empathy and social intelligence, as Thorndike has said before, according to which it refers to the ability of the individual to "put himself in the other's shoes", that is, to empathize with others, to recognize

> and manage their emotions with such skill in order to achieve mutual benefit. Daniel Goleman (2011), was the first to use the term emotional intelligence or heart intelligence and referred to the individual's skills to recognize and identify the connections between thoughts and reactions (self-awareness). Through self-awareness the self recognizes its strengths and weaknesses and is fueled by self-control and self-confidence. Emphasis is placed on controlling emotions, when the person recognizes what is hidden behind each emotion and thus learns ways in which he will handle each situation (self-management) as well as to find motivation to achieve personal goals and aspirations. At the stage of self-management emphasis is placed on the control of emotions, the neurological circulation of the stimulus or observation is made between the parietal system and the neocortex where the recognition of what is hidden behind each emotion is achieved (Le Doux, 2003). Furthermore, the difference between emotions and action is recognized. At this point, controlling emotions is important for serving the goal of focusing and motivating.

A particular importance is given to the skill (empathy) in the ability to be able to understand the feelings and views of others and to treat with respect differences in the way in which others perceive certain things and situations. Relationship management is the next step and is considered the culmination of emotional intelligence skills as it is based essentially on interpersonal intelligence, that is, the way a person feels and manages other people (Thorndike & Stein, 1973). According to neurosurgeon Lombard J. (2018), Man's emotional states or beliefs play such an important role that they ultimately affect his biology.

The self-awareness of the emotions, the awareness and the consciousness of the self-consciousness is the basis on which the emotions will be processed and managed in order to follow the self-control and the self-consciousness (mindfulness). When a person realizes how he feels, in what environment he is and works then he can manage his own behavior, realise and redefine his goals. Emotional intelligence or the intelligence of the heart is the process of rationalizing the mental perception of the emotional world in order to achieve the expected goals.

Consciousness is referred to, as the ability of the self, in parallel with the above, to focus attention deliberately and consciously on what is unfolding in the present moment, with a compassionate approach (Orsilo & Roomer, 2016) without criticism and concern in order to achieve control and peace of mind. It is further considered that this serves the wider cycle and reality of life, that is, the transience and fluidity of the situations that surround us.

EMPATHY

An important characteristic of the teacher is empathy. Empathy is the ability to recognize and connect with other people's emotions without judgment (Rogers, 1975). Some research has linked empathy to increasing teachers' ability to develop relationships with families and students (Roberts, 2017), to intervene in case of bullying (Huang, Lui, & Chen, 2018) and to work with different students (Cole, Case, Rios, & Curtin), 2011). Empathy allows teachers to effectively teach moral development and empathic behaviors to students (Bouton, 2016). Lessons on diversity and self-reflection can also increase students' empathy (Boyer, 2010). As research focuses on teachers' emotional capacity, empathy is a factor to consider (Arizaga, Bauman, Waldo, & Castellanos, 2005). Although empathy extends to many areas such as psychology, medicine and human services, there are some unique features of empathy in the field of education. In both counseling and medical situations, the practitioner typically expresses empathy for an individual, in a discussion between the counselor and the client or doctor and patient. Teachers have different experiences from these professionals when they express empathy. A classroom with many children requires a teacher to know the individual feelings of multiple children at the same time and to respond carefully, while maintaining control of the whole classroom. Instead of focusing on another person, a teacher should be aware and aware of an entire class of students (Bouton, 2016). Cooper (2002) presents a detailed report and classification of empathy in his study, in which empathy is revealed as a very complex phenomenon, closely linked to moral development, which develops over time and the frequency of interaction and depends largely on the factors and the context of the interaction. The dissertation confirms and extends the powerful effects of deep empathy on self-esteem, relationships and learning. Nice teachers are revealed as highly moral individuals who connect mentally and emotionally with their students and generate similar responses in return. In essence, they model and project the concept of ethics in their personal interactions with students and colleagues. Positive personal interactions support high levels of engagement in learning and higher quality behaviors in assessment, relationship exchange. This has important implications for face-to-face learning. In the British education system, the introduction of competency-based teacher training by the government (DFE, 1992) required teachers to be trained specifically to promote personal, social, moral and spiritual values in schools. The promotion of the values was then evaluated by the OFSTED inspectors, which provoked intense debate about the role of schools in the moral development and nature of teacher training and the curriculum in this area. Many people wonder how we could improve the moral background of the nation.

Teachers are often blamed for promoting moral relativism, whoever works in the profession understands very well the devotion that teachers make to their students. When we begin to deal with the moral climate and relationships in education, the importance of empathy becomes clear. There is a lot of well-documented research that reveals the importance of empathy it becomes clear. There is well-documented research that reveals the importance of empathy in shaping moral values in children (Bottery, 1990) and more recently Koseki and Berghammer (1992). However, the research did not focus on the human qualities of teachers who could model moral values in school children and have not been taken into account by students. This research has chosen to address both of these issues and expand the understanding of the role of empathy in teaching and learning. Caring, Interacting, and Learning Noddings (1986) connects ethics with empathy and emotional closeness and understanding of others: Care is highly interactive and rewarding.

Caring involves going out of the personal context of the other in relation to the one we are facing. When we care, we take into account the other person's point of view, his objective needs and what he expects from us. Our attention, our mental loss is to the one who concerns us, not to ourselves. Our reasons for acting, then, have to do with the desires and wishes of the other and with the objective elements of his problematic situation. (Bottery, 1990 p. 24) Therefore, real care seems to be an exciting developmental process, which involves implications but especially recognition. From Noddings and his research we understand care as empathy, as "reception", to be open to the feelings and sensitivities of the other, to share emotion and understanding. From Murdoch (1970) we gain the meaning of "love". Vygotsky reminds us of the importance of the unity of influence and knowledge and the inadequacy of a purely cognitive approach: When we approach the problem of the correlation between thought and language and other aspects of the mind, the first question that arises is that of spirit and impact.

Separating them as objects of study is a great weakness of traditional psychology, as it makes the thought process appear as an autonomous flow of thoughts separated from the fullness of life, from personal needs and interests, inclinations and impulses of the thinker. The same idea contains a transformed emotional attitude towards the orbit of reality to which it refers (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 10). A new dimension of teaching and learning thus emerges through deep empathy in interpersonal relationships (Cooper, 2002) by showing that they are deeply interested, teachers create just the right climate in which students learn more effectively. The student's achievements consist of both personal and academic development and are constantly interrelated. The degree of empathy shown by the teacher affects the degree of empathy shown by the student and the student's ability to share and learn from others. Therefore, empathetic teachers are a model and facilitate the empathetic atmosphere for learning and development. However, contextual constraints seem to act as powerful factors in limiting a teacher's ability to use his or her empathy for the best possible effect. at their students' meeting (Cooper, op. cit.). Best (1998) argues that emotions have been largely neglected in Britain's basic education. The increasingly mechanical approach to the defined and extensive curriculum in recent years has exacerbated this neglect.

He also argues that love is at the heart of spirituality in education, which is indicated by mutual respect (Best, 2003). It is surprising, however, that rich holistic findings from previous international psychological research on learning (Rogers, 1975; Purkey, 1970) and recent developments in neuroscience regarding the importance of influence (Damasio, 1999; Goleman, 1995) are often overlooked when it comes to teaching and learning. The failure of policymakers to recognize the importance of empathy has led to oppressive examination and testing regimes in recent years. However, the findings from neuroscience confirm the emphasis placed on the influence of the older psychological literature and suggest that any learning is emotional in nature (Damasio, op. Cit.).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND CONSCIOUSNESS

Damasio (1999) explains the importance of high levels of involvement in learning, emphasizing the role of the sense of the human body and self in relation to the world that perceives and learns. It explains how the intensity of focus and engagement created by the multi-sensory interaction engages the mind deeply and how each interaction enhances the individual's sense of self, because the self-image in the brain must be recreated in each interaction. Such intense stimulation stimulates the whole brain and body. The memory of the interaction is mapped both in the brain on an emotional level as well as throughout the body and is remembered as an emotion. Therefore, all the interactions and learning associated with it are emotional in nature. Provided the interaction is mostly positive, the brain will remain curious and open to the environment. A constant, positive sense of self will produce a constant positive sense throughout the body, which leads to greater transparency and a willingness to engage in interaction. Babies' brains grow when they feel cared for (Winkley, 1996).

On the contrary, the negative effect tends to cause self-discontinuation, withdrawal, stimulation of protection and defense. So, in our learning context, this frequent positive interaction and the consequent good feeling was created. This can come from both the learning itself and the learning context, crucially integrating the emotional relationships with the teacher and with peers. Intense interaction with other people causes emotional entanglement. Leal (2002) explains how joint interactions between parents and infants produce strong emotion for the young child and thus increase our sense of self and our learning happens. It is entirely clear to teachers that the experience of "selfishness" is not a purely "instinctive" or "cognitive" issue, but is an early construction, part of a primitive spirit of desire, motives and intentions involving "selves". and "others" in a series of successful cases of social-emotional integration.

(Leal, 2002, p. 3) Emotional intelligence is associated with consciousness which increases the more we interact and through it we "know" and process our environment and people in it much more closely. This "knowledge" of a person, both emotionally and mentally, begins to be very similar to empathy, "the power of mentally identifying ourselves with (and gently understanding) a person or object of thought" (NewOxfordEnglishDictionary, 1993).

This empathetic approach to others has developed over time into an ethical concern for caring for others (Noddings, 1986; Cooper, 2002). Vygotsky's (1978) near-developmental zone must therefore include not only cognitive support but also emotional intelligence and the evaluation and emotion of emotions. This makes the teacher's task very complicated. If teachers are unable to evaluate and strive for emotional and cognitive development, the student may be overwhelmed by internal confusion. Direction, support and intervention are vital to move students at a sufficient pace, to help motivate and encourage them in their tasks and thinking. Formative assessment, which is at the heart of learning, must be emotional and cognitive, both personal and academic. Noddings argues that it takes time for real caring relationships to develop, not only through the curriculum taught but also through the usual discussions and interactions that take place between people. Sometimes these can be long conversations, but other times they can be simple interactions that confirm and recognize students as valuable individuals. Their importance should not be underestimated (Watson and Ashton, 1995).

Such an "off-the-job" interaction is more likely to enhance the community's preference and sense of clean work-related management (Klein, cited in Clark, 1996). Human relationships are central to the exponential learning atmosphere (DoES, 1989) and are the source of higher levels of the intellect (Vygotsky, 1978) Motivate and reassure students (Rudduck, Chaplain and Wallace, 1996).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, CONSCIOUSNESS AND PERSONALITY

Empathy strengthens classroom relationships but increases the openness of people to different cultures. One study examined the relationship between cognitive empathy and students' willingness to promote diversity. This study also looked at how diversity courses influenced students' beliefs and attitudes toward racism (Cole et al., 2011). A sample of 173 first semester students was divided into a control group and an intervention group. The intervention group enrolled in diversity courses that met the university's requirements regarding race and ethnicity, while the control group was not exposed to these courses. All students took a survey at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester.

The research included various sections that analyzed the beliefs about the race. The research also included a section that examined prospective skills using 7 items from the Perspective Captivity Index of the Interpersonal Activity Index (IRI). After analyzing the students' answers, the results showed that perspective-taking skills were not related to whether a student took the diversity lesson or not. The findings, however, revealed that high-prospecting skills between both the control and intervention groups were associated with a greater willingness to promote diversity and personality development. Regardless of course attendance, the level of students' perspective-taking skills influenced their willingness to promote and learn about diversity (Cole et al., 2011).

A qualitative study conducted by Warren (2013) explored the relationship between personality and empathy. The aim of this study was to demonstrate the benefits of empathy in building relationships between culturally diverse teachers and students. Through observations, three issues related to highly empowered teachers emerged: risk-taking, community-building and trust, and preventive interactions.

When teachers practiced empathy for their different students, they increased their relationship with these students by positively influencing students' perspectives (Craig, Henderson, & Murphy, 2000).

This helped teachers better understand students' culture and background. Empathy developed the willingness of teachers to adapt and violate social rules in favor of positive student outcomes. It also helped teachers to take into account the characteristics of students to inform the educational practice as well as to support the needs and interests of individual students (Warren, 2013). Being able to take on the perspective of a culturally different student allows teachers to understand their individual students, which updates their classroom practices with students. Several research studies have demonstrated the importance of empathy for preparation of teachers in the fight against bullying (Huang et al., 2018). Bullying is defined as any aggression, physical, relational or verbal, intended to harm, isolate or humiliate someone. Because bullying occurs in the classroom, it is a problem that teachers need to be prepared to deal with (Huang et al., 2018). The teacher's personal beliefs about bullying affect the likelihood of interference. Other research has found that empathy can affect the way teachers perceive and recognize bullying as well as respond to bullying scenarios. For example, Craig et al. (2000) found that teachers with higher levels of empathy were more likely to detect bullying and perceive severity, regardless of the type of aggression. This perception is important because some forms of aggression are less obvious but still need intervention. The researchers also found that teachers with high levels of empathy were more likely to intervene when they saw bullying scenarios. Huang et al. (2018) conducted a study to observe the relationship between preschool teachers' responses to physical, verbal and relational harassment and levels cognitive and emotional empathy. The researchers also examined the participants' year of study (students, college students, junior and senior). Researchers surveyed a sample of a Chinese undergraduate student to assess empathy and responses to bullying scenarios. To measure students' responses to bullying, participants received a questionnaire containing six stories describing different bullying scenarios. After reading a script, participants were asked to answer three questions that examined the validity of the event, the amount of sympathy the participant felt, and the likelihood. to intervene.

Gender studies have shown that different factors affect the levels of empathy in teachers. One of these factors is gender. Gender seems to have a significant effect on the levels of empathy among teachers. Kaya (2016) surveyed 87 male and 62 female social studies teachers to determine the relationship between gender, age, school social participation and levels of compassion. This study revealed that women scored higher on emotional reactivity than men (Kaya, 2016). According to these findings, women are more likely to experience emotional distress sensitivity to another person than males (Kaya, 2016). Another study examined the different characteristics of preschool teachers and their levels of empathy (Ahmetoglu & Acar, 2016).

Multiple Intelligences and Consciousness (Mindfulness)

Consciousness or Mindfulness includes the deliberate focus of attention on the evolution of the present moment but also its deliberate expansion in order to integrate the inner experiences of the individual with what is happening around him (Orsilo, Roomer, 2016). Through consciousness, a calm and sincere curiosity is introduced into the experiences that unfold in the individual and the familiar thoughts, assessments and personal situations are treated in the light of a new visual and compassionate perception without the exercise of critical or second thought. Essentially the skill of consciousness, "self-compassion" implies the deliberate acceptance and tolerance of the self to reactions, thoughts, feelings, actions, which are treated in a polite and compassionate way instead of criticizing the self for them. Restoring calm and full acceptance of both the internal and external state of the self-create the basis and conditions for cultivating the appropriate conditions for finding motivations for the development of positive emotions, self-control and creativity. In the work of the teacher, the combination and harmonization of various indicators of intelligence are a prerequisite for the exercise of effective work. Howard Gardner in his work "The theory of multiple types of intelligence" states that each individual has a combination of nine or more types of intelligence that work together and interact with each other, giving diversity to human intelligence and development. He also argues that intelligence is the product that is created over time by the birth of the individual through upbringing in the family, school and then society and life experiences through interaction. with its nature, its biological forces and its hereditary predispositions. According to Gardner, the types of intelligence are: Music/rhythmic, spatial, planning linguistic, logical-mathematical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and others. Let us focus on two distinct types of intelligence, according to Gartner's theory, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. According to his theory of multiple types of intelligence, interpersonal intelligence is the ability to perceive other people's feelings, what motivates them, to point out their interests and purposes, with the ultimate goal of being able to interact with each other efficiently. People who are distinguished by this type of intelligence are extroverted and practice professions such as directors, teachers, educators, psychologists, salespeople and others. In terms of the neurological process, this type of intelligence is based on the function of the frontal lobe and the cortex. People with intrapersonal type of intelligence. are distinguished by the ability to turn to oneself to understand emotions, desires, weaknesses and strengths with the aim of self-knowledge / self-perception and the proper management of logic and thought. Regarding the neurological process, this type of intelligence is based on the frontal lobe and neocortex and these individuals are usually introverted, working individually and managing to integrate other types of intelligence, thus achieving self-knowledge. People with intrapersonal intelligence are characterized by their ability to know the inner aspects of the self, that is, to recognize their emotions, to handle them and to use them as a guide to behavior. Each person has a combination of nine or more types of Intelligence that work together and interact with each other, giving diversity to human Intelligence and development. Interpersonal Intelligence refers to the ability of the individual to perceive other people's feelings, that is, what motivates them, to point out their interests and goals, as well as the way they behave in order to effectively interact. Intrapersonal Intelligence refers to the ability of the individual to turn to himself for the understanding of his feelings, his desires, weak and strong points, with the aim of self-perception and self-knowledge. In recent years, a group of psychologists, including Sternberg and Salovi, have agreed with Gartner's theory that the old notions of IQ were about an old-fashioned, linguistic and mathematical examination of limited when the student completed his high school and high school obligations and entered the path of life. Mindfulness or consciousness includes the deliberate focus of attention on the evolution of the present moment but also its deliberate expansion in order to integrate the inner experiences of the individual with what is happening around him (Orsilo, Roomer, 2016). Through consciousness, a calm and sincere curiosity is introduced into the experiences that unfold in the individual and the familiar thoughts, assessments and personal situations are treated in the light of a new visual and compassionate perception without the exercise of critical or second thought. Essentially the skill of consciousness, "self-compassion" implies the deliberate acceptance and tolerance of the self to reactions, thoughts, feelings, actions, which are treated in a polite and compassionate way instead of criticizing the self for them. Restoring calm and full acceptance of both the internal and external state of the self-create the basis and conditions for cultivating the appropriate conditions for finding motivations for the development of positive emotions, self-control and creativity. This includes Consciousness, that is, in parallel with the above, the deliberate and conscious focus of attention on what is unfolding in the present moment, through an exploratory and compassionate approach without criticism and concern but considering that this serves the wider cycle and reality of life, that is, the transience and fluidity of the situations that surround us. Jon Kabat-Zinn, a doctor who introduced consciousness to medicine and the Western world, states that consciousness is the basic human ability to be consciously and fully present, to pay full attention to the evolution of the present, to have perception. and awareness of where he is and what he is doing, without reacting to what is happening around him. The "knowledge of him" that is, to be aware of "oneself" was attributed to the Ancient Greeks by Chilon the Lacedaemonian but also Plato and adorned the entrance of the Oracle of Delphi, while the Acquired spoke about the "apathy" which becomes peace of mind and strength for dealing with suffering with sympathy. According to AALong, Stoicism (Philosophical School of Hellenistic and Roman times 300 BC - about 250 AD), concerned the spiritual orientation of people who were immune to upset and frustration because their desires and decisions depended on themselves and concerned nothing of what they could not control to obtain on their own. Consciousness, which involves deliberately focusing on the evolution of the present moment, allows us to apply new skills to prevent the escalation of our emotional response, and its deliberate expansion, to integrate one's inner experiences with those happening around him. Through consciousness he achieves the self to realize what he is thinking, not to react directly to what is happening, to focus on the present, to realize what his needs are and to take care of his body, to cultivate emotional intelligence, to increase his empathy which reduces the reaction of the amygdala to the brain, to gain better concentration and attention and to prevent the escalation of the emotional reaction. Finally, through consciousness, the awareness of the situations is strengthened and the clarity and self-confidence that are needed to take voluntary actions are gained, so that one does not react thoughtlessly and only out of habit.

CONCLUSION

It is, as already mentioned, universally recognized that the teacher is the cornerstone of an education system. It enjoys the highest honor and prestige it deserves and plays a crucial role. The whole educational system revolves around him because the final claim of the process is the overall development of the individual's personality, so that he can also contribute to the development of the nation. The development of a conscious and productive citizen depends on the standards of education and teachers are the ones responsible for this task (Thornton, 2010). It all depends on their qualifications, their education, their attitude towards this profession, their skills in managing teaching and student activities in the classroom, their interest in the professional activity and the specific environment in which they perform their tasks and how much they are interested in the well-being of the student and the modification of their behavior by adopting participation strategies (Sapieha, 2007).Referring to the Fields of application and training of emotional intelligence skills on national level.

Emotional education classes, began with the educational movement in the 1960s, which adopted the idea that if psychological and motivational education contained a direct experience of what was being taught, it would become the property of the children and better consolidate them (Goleman 1995). Practicing elementary school children, co-op games such as composing a complex puzzle, various other group games, promoting team sports and others, promote co-operation, and teamwork and promote emotional closeness. In addition, various child development programs at Eric Shaps, Center for Developmental Studies, Auckland, California, on social and emotional learning in children have had good results in terms of responsibility, democracy, sociability, and the ability to understand and feel for others (Dept.of Health and Human Services, 1991). Further study by the W.T. Grant (American non-profit foundation) for prevention programs to deal with smoking, drugs, violence, school dropout found that education is more effective when teaching emotional and social skills, such as controlling impulses, finding creative solutions to social issues and more. W.T. Grant Foundation "Drug and Alcohol Prevention Curricula" opt.136

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Consciousness/Mindfulness: The awareness that arises after focusing attention on the evolution of the present moment with a permissive mood, without the person having the intention to change anything or to criticize.

Education: Systematic process of knowledge transfer and skills development related to a specific subject.

Emotional Intelligence: The ability of man to monitor his own feelings and those of others, to distinguish them and use them to guide his actions and thoughts.

Empathy: The ability of the individual to feel and to be in the position of another individual.

Multiple Intelligences: The ability of the individual to have various IQs that work together and interact with each other.

Nation: A set of people who have the perception of a common historical, social, cultural tradition and live in a defined territorial area.

Personality: The set of physical, spiritual, mental, and social characteristics of a person.

Chapter 13
Education and Music:
A Two-Way Relationship Intrinsically Linked to a Nation's Identity

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ABSTRACT

Music education as a systematic and complex process of transmitting knowledge and skills, as well as cultivating mental, intellectual, and artistic abilities, referred to a specific cultural result of an apprenticeship system. Music is also inextricably linked with the cultural and national identity of individuals as it offers a sense of self within a social context. It symbolizes and offers an experience of collective, social, and cultural identity. This study, through the analysis of the pertinent literature in a descriptive way, will try to prove that the position of music must be fundamental in education and therefore in the formation of human personality. The main conclusion of the chapter is the significant importance of the expression of children through music, the ability to express their musicality with the help of his body and voice, the perception of the concepts of music, as well as the development of a positive image and attitude towards music.

INTRODUCTION

According to Plato, "Education in music is an urgent need because more than anything in the world, rhythm and harmony affect the innermost part of ourselves and each of us must know how to curb it." (Konstantinidis et al., 2006), while Rousseau in his work "Emil" stated that children's musical involvement should begin at a very young age, because it helps their psychological, emotional and social development. The use of music in general education has more of a moral than cognitive effect (Yudkin, 2008).

The multi-layered, multifaceted, continuous and broad function of music in society and especially in education is non-negotiable. In particular, school music education, through the development of vari-

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ous skills (listening, performance, composition, musical sense, etc.) aims at the comprehensive musical development of the child (Konstantinou, 2014).

According to Adorno, music plays an ideological role within the society (1996: 350). The 20th century British composer Ralph Vaughan Williams in his book National Music praises the art of music as the supreme art form for expressing the soul of the nation (1934, as reported by Bohlman, 2011: 67). The musical work could be characterized as multifaceted, because the interpretations that the musical text is capable of are neither stable nor categorical. Despite its immediacy and emotional impact, music remains a fluid and controversial language, due to its non-representative character, its vague expressive content that on the one hand obscures the aesthetic and ideological intentions, but on the other hand is forged for the purposes of nationalist representation, for the sake of the plasticity of the musical text (Bohlman, 2011: 58).

The Goal of The Article

Through this article, which will be a narrative review of literature, we try to prove that the position of music must be fundamental in education and therefore in the formation of human personality. Going even deeper, we find that the relationship between music and education is strengthened by other related sciences such as music-motor education through which children experience through the body and its movement, the laws of music, metrics, speech or space (Zerva, 2004).

Particular reference in this article will be made to the important role that the music teacher plays in achieving the goals of music education. This is the main factor of music education which with its personality and training can determine the achievement or not of the desired goals. Music originates from man and must concern various aspects of his existence. It must therefore be related to what one learns and be nurtured by every other educational space. Only in this way will the inexhaustible possibilities of communication emerge, with the aim of upgrading education from a mere sum of specialties, to a space of initiation into the deepest sense of humanity.

Methodology

The descriptive review to some extent follows the methodology of the systematic review but omitting certain stages and having a more narrative character. Bibliographic reviews are secondary publications and aim to present already published data in a consolidated way, in order to investigate an object from different perspectives, to compare and group the results of different researches and to highlight the specific issue in all its dimensions, according to international bibliography.

The descriptive review to some extent follows the methodology of the systematic review but omitting certain stages and having a more narrative character. In this article, we followed the method of descriptive review, searching on google scholar and google search about music education, music and nation, national identity, cultural identity. The articles found were summarized and checked for their relevance with the topic discussed, and then notes were taken in order to create the descriptive analysis of the articles.

Literature Review

The following paragraphs aim to assess the pertinent literature, as expressed in the methodological paragraph, with the use of the descriptive review method. The review will consist of analysis of theories referring to music and education, the relationship between music and national culture, and the role of music education.

Music and Education

Researchers, who have studied the beneficial effects of music on education, have also found a direct link between imagination and mental curiosity. By learning music early on, children acquire a positive attitude towards learning, while at the same time fight stress and enhance creative thinking. After all, the psychiatric science itself agrees that music therapy can be an alternative treatment to stress (Polykandrioti, Koutsopoulou, 2014).

As Education improves in this way, the whole society is improved through it and only then music may regain its place and the mission attributed to it by the great ancient civilizations, as it was recognized as the basis of the harmonious conformation of man both as an individual and as member of the society.

Music teaching can achieve a number of important pedagogical goals such as the transmission of cultural heritage, the creation and preservation of cultural life, the acquisition of experiences and understanding of concepts that cannot be approached through other paths, the development of critical thinking that offers ability for people to control their lives, the creation of individual and group identity, the development of cooperation, tolerance and moral values, the understanding of the unknown, the development of understanding in an important expression of human existence and much more (Chrysostomou, 2007).

Music is a means by which people define themselves on an aesthetic or emotional level, as a way of thinking or acting in their daily lives. This presentation or projection of oneself through music covers a strong inner need of people, especially when they come in contact with other people. (DeNora, 2000) In other words, the constant search for new musical sounds seems to stem from the need to create a musical identity, such that it satisfactorily serves the definition of the self and that will be the one with which people wish to communicate with the social environment.

Music Education

Participation in the musical process is considered a fundamental component of human culture and behavior. The integration of music pedagogy, at all levels of education, from primary to tertiary, is implemented in the vast majority of countries. The term Music Pedagogy also known as Music Education, in a large percentage of educational institutions. This term emphasizes the role of education through music. This is a course that applies the findings, theories and principles of the science of Music Pedagogy. Music can be used as a tool for educational and didactic power. For this reason, it is an integral part of the educational process, contributing to the spiritual, emotional, physical, aesthetic and social development of man.

The aims and objectives of Music Education are numerous. They are distinguished into direct and indirect. In terms of purpose, scholars' views differ: some place more emphasis on the development of musical ability while others on the educational nature of music (Ingram, & Seashore, 2003). Based on the current conditions, the main purpose is to create a fruitful relationship with music, letting its influences contribute positively to the student's personality. Indirect goals come from the main purpose and are long term. Some of them are: the expression of the child through music, the ability to express his musicality with the help of his body and voice, the perception of the concepts of music as well as the development of a positive image and attitude towards music (Eaton, 2006).

In order for the goals to be achievable, it is necessary to define the goals. The latter are much more specific and are based on the three areas of learning: cognitive (tone, rhythm), psychomotor (movement, song) and emotional (attitudes, values). An important issue that arises again through the program itself is the reference to the music teachers for their special role in the educational system. If in primary education the teacher can meet the needs of music teaching, the question arises whether he can cope just as well in secondary education, without any training or education in music teaching. Certainly, the pedagogical knowledge, as well as his contact with the needs of his class is a useful tool in his hands (Hallam, 2010).

In general, a teacher should know his students and how to approach them and should be equipped with knowledge of childhood psychology, teaching and methodology. However, it is not certain that without some special knowledge of music pedagogy a teacher will be able to fulfill his role, while he is likely to lag behind in musical knowledge, as the music-related courses provided in the pedagogical schools, especially in Cyprus and Greece are few and insufficient for the proper training of the course of Music Education.

Music and Nations

As Bennett (2004) notes, "both as a creative act and as a form of consumption, music plays an important role in the narration of the place. That is, the way people define their relationship with their local, everyday environment. This is the function of modern western non-classical musicians. Music is redefined at the base of the space in which it manifests and, in turn, redefines the space as it submits to or permits specific behaviors and relationships within it. As Guattari puts it, music defines two different types of cartography: the area of the self and the area of space. Thus, identities become the geographies of sounds that cross space and intersect, they become the mobile spaces of musical interaction.

And somehow, the music space becomes a place, where people who are geographically located in different places or places, can share the common feeling of belonging to another community of their own, which may have no borders or be different from what have been set by other people on their behalf. After all, even at the level of form or content, music as another language is indicative of origins, already in the way it has organized its own material: the native part of the audio material functions by itself as another map. The differentiation, for example, of the blues from the Epirus polyphonic song comes not only through the linguistic part, but also from the fact that people across the nations have learned to organize and recognize (even expect) specific sequences in the way in which the sounds unfold (Folkestad, 2002).

As Arblaster (1992: 5) points out, the notes that make up music do not mean something in themselves like words, so one can easily argue that there is no connection between music and the extra-musical world. In other words, music expresses something non-specificized. Music is therefore a complex historical-cultural object - in interaction with the extra-musical conditions of each era - distinguished by multifacetedness, which in turn complicates musical signification (Born, 2000: 37; O'Flynne, 2007: 25). The cultural context and the social organization are prerequisites of an organized musical system, because within them the latter is meant. Sociocultural structures define the geography of music, which relates to specific technologies and social practices such as music notation, organology, music theory and education, recording and reproduction techniques, and performance and listening practices.

Thus, music and the properties of sound are also meaningful by the respective spatio-temporal context (Revill, 2000: 605-7, 610). The non-linguistic character of music is also discussed by Applegate, emphasizing the difficulty of integrating and interpreting music in a cultural context that is built mainly on language (1998: 288). Music is intangible and abstract, but at the same time it is an international 'lingua franca', transcending national borders (Häberle, 2007: 69). Every musical event can intensely trigger collective memories, create 'places' (construction of place), define identities (Stokes, 1994: 3). In other words, there is a form of cultural imagination that enhances the sense of place, as it is transmitted through various musical works.

Musical experiences carry a strong emotional charge and connotations that activate a variety of identities. Music acts as a catalyst in the manifestation of emotions and enhances them (Keller, 2007: 113). The various types of music allow the multiplicity of the individual's participation: as an audience - a listener, as a dancer, as a performer. Thus, they offer a field of socialization and meeting of people, creating communities (Baily, 1994: 48). It is no coincidence that immigrants in metropolises-melting houses of peoples cling to their traditional music as a means of preserving their national identity within a multinational, colorful mosaic of people (Baily, 1994: 47).

The Norwegian writer Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson wrote in an article in 1860 that "because of its immediacy, music can conquer the masses more than any other art, speaking to the imagination and the emotion" (as reported by Curtis, 2008: 168). Seeking the national character in Music, the Pianist Günter Reinhold asked the rhetorical question "Where else could Debussy's music come from but France?" (as reported by Roy, 1991: 86) but on the other hand, Lithuanian singer Ovidujus Vyšniauskas, a participant in the 1994 Eurovision Song Contest for Lithuania, states that when asked what his nationality is, he answers that he is a 'musician'. (as reported by Moore, 2007: 276). The search for the national in music therefore encounters complications, "it contains endless philosophical impasses" according to Beckerman (1986: 61).

The search for the nation in music raises questions about the very meaning of cultural difference and uniqueness. Each nation has its own distinct character, which is stylistically reflected in the respective musical works and cannot be imitated or reproduced by foreign nations (Curtis, 2008: 28-29). As Connell & Gibson report, "musical differences are seen as signs of uniqueness" (2003: 123-4). According to Stokes, music contributes decisively to the cultural articulation of nationalism, as it is "strongly involved in the dissemination of the dominant categorizations of nationality, class and gender" (1994: 8). O'Flynn points out that it is by no means self-evident that the symbolism of supposed national music will find the same response in all members of society, since the relationship between music and national identity is a dynamic rather than a static social construct, subject to a continuous discursive process.

The relationship between music and national identity is two-way, so music can either construct or reflect the idea of the national self (O'Flynn, 2007: 24, 26). Life in the countryside, the natural landscape, history, traditional music and literature provided the composers with rich imaginative material for the sounding of the nation, its description with musical terms and musical conventions (Revill, 2000: 598). Vaughan Williams himself believed that the artist should try to make his art the property of the whole community. The traditional song that directly expresses the most inward emotions can contribute to this effort. As Revill (2000: 602) characteristically states, "music emanating from traditional elements encapsulates in the sound the essential expressiveness of the nation". Typical examples of musical works with the 'national' character imprinted in their title as 'musical self-portrait' are the Spanish Rhapsody by Isaac Albeniz, the Romanian Rhapsodies by George Enescu, the Hungarian Rhapsody by Franz Liszt, the Rhapsody by Cas Finlandia by Jean Sibelius (Curtis, 2008: 35).

For Curtis, nationalism or the national in music is determined by the artistic and aesthetic intention of the creator, since "a musical work is nationalistic by design" and the national is a layer of representations that is put into a musical work through speech (discourse), which develops at various historical moments and assembles a conceptual grid (see 2008: 31).

The criteria for determining the national style are fluid and negotiable and are shaped according to the respective ideological needs and historical circumstances. As the context of nationalism changes, the 'national' music creation is re-signified, 're-tuned', so that there are no disagreements and bad tones. The German musicologist Hermann Kretzschmar argues in a book in 1887 that the national in music usually has a descriptive dimension and is directly related to the use of sound colours (see Koloristik) and music program (program music) (Fischer, 1979: 11). The projected national identity can even be multiracial, multinational, multicultural (Stokes, 1994: 14). After all, nationalism itself has a chameleon form, "painted according to the context", as Smith (1991: 79) aptly states.

The production of cultural products and the consequent formation of identities is characterized by a relativism, since identity reflects the Self and the Other and the relationship between the two, is a symbolic process (Bayart, 1996: 96). According to Christoff, national style cannot be defined as a specific category but is "[…] a patchwork of aesthetic intentions and views of various composers" (1991: 38). For many scholars of the relationship between music and national identity, music reflects the people, the nation and society, while later trends in this academic field turned to the role of music as a means of constructing identities (Wade, 1998: 4). The English musicologist and composer Cecil Forsyth (late 19th century) expresses his musical chauvinism in a very brilliant and belligerent way, opposing foreign musicians: "When will we realize that where the foreign musician is? [he…] Knows very well that the safest way to stabilize his position here (Note: the foreign musician) is to denationalize our music" (1911, as reported by Dibble, 2001: 33).

The National Music Schools that were created in various European countries during the second half of the 19th century, drew their creative stimuli mainly from the folk idiom (folk music), with the aesthetic intention of highlighting the musical diversity and uniqueness of the nation (Leerssen, 2006: 570). Particularly apt is the characterization as "the pride of European metaphysics of authenticity" that Bohlman attributes to traditional music in order to emphasize the obsession of nationalism with it (2011: xx). According to Dahlhaus, musical nationalism has been most clearly expressed through folklorism, the tendency that romantically takes folk art as the deepest substratum of human action, the roots of culture (1980: 92-93). In Sifakis this music is referred to as 'primitive' music- 'Urmusik' (Sifakis, 1997: 47).

Popular culture provides the ingredients for creating a 'synthetic' national art, ingredients that have undergone a process of 'disinfection' by foreign bodies (Samson, 2001: 570-1). It is noteworthy that until the late 18th century, folklore was not highly valued, since its connection mainly with the villagers did not make it so conspicuous. But through its romantic refinement, exalted in the embodiment of the 'authentic wisdom' of the nation, "its cultural capital has been shot down" (as reported by Taruskin, 2004: p.) a nation is described as "all individuals who have the same ethnic origin and generally speak the same language and have a common tradition" (as reported by Hobsbawm, 1994: 29). However, the modern conception of the nation that emphasizes political unity and independence is, according to Hobsbawm, a 'historical modernity' (ibid., 1994: 33). Hobsbawm views the concepts of nation and nationalism as products of bourgeois ideology, adopting a Marxist perspective. The dominant elites are those who construct or more precisely invent nations and the consequent national identities within a supposedly continuous spectrum of pre-modern societies in the modern treaty (Brincker & Brincker, 2004: 582-3). Smith, on the other hand, argues that the modern nation is not entirely new, but with the help of symbols and myths it constitutes a reconstruction based on pre-existing material. This means that Smith, unlike Hobsbawm, accepts the existence of a national cell, a nucleus, and sees a construction process in place of the 'invention' (Brincker & Brincker, 2004: 583-4).

This construction process contains a dynamic of national identities, since they are not static but are produced and reproduced through the various acts of representation of the nation (Wood, 2012: 196).

Education and Multiethnicity

The role of the teacher in the music lesson is very important, especially when dealing with a multicultural class. In his hand is not only the general management of the classroom and the transmission of knowledge, but the unity of the classroom which is very important for the future of the students. The balances he has to keep are important and for this reason he must be fully prepared. Here will be analyzed the importance of teacher training and how he can prepare himself to be ready to manage such a class.

Dualism: One of the most ideal cases is for the teacher to have come in contact with another culture and type of music with which he is familiar both as well as with his own culture.

Such a process allows him to expand his knowledge of music and culture and compare his own culture with someone else. Essentially here the teacher enters the process that will put the children of a multicultural class later: he discovers the uniqueness of his culture and its similarities with others, in order to feel part of a larger whole in the world. Also, practicing through the contact of a "different" music, helps the teacher to develop his musical characteristics further. In general, however, even if the teacher has not come into such close contact with such a culture, if he decides to teach a multicultural class, he must study things about the cultures to which the students belong, in order to know how to use music. their characteristics in the classroom.

Discussion

Musical language favors mythology, because it mobilizes the imaginary and emotional listener, going beyond the codes of speech. Therefore, its majestic character can serve the needs of nation-building and feed the mythology of nationalism. "[…] If music becomes national, it is because those who put it in their heart, make it national", as Carl Nielsen - considered to be the national composer of Denmark - describes the imaginary dimension of the national character of music, in an interview in 1925 (as reported by Brincker, 2008: 694).

Because of the universality of music and its presentation as such in multicultural teaching, children learn that music is something universal. It may change based on the culture in which it is located but it exists everywhere and that is something that unites us all. On this occasion, children will have the opportunity to realize that 32 diversity, in all areas, is not something we should look at with fear, on the contrary, in the same way that we seek to identify similarities and common features, different characteristics and cultural elements should be rewarded in the same way. This perception is something that can help a lot in the unity of the classroom and help the children to understand that no matter how "different" they feel, there is always something that unites them.

In other words, we could say that music in its various forms has at times functioned as a national emblem, as a coat of arms, as an allegory that participates in the imaginary formation of the national identity, the national character. Music is a tool of 'nation-making' or 'nation-building' but also of 'nation-branding'. The musical representations of the nation are of course a complex issue. And the question arises as to whether in all cases the musical content matters itself or whether the music simply invests as incidental music a scene or a national script. Ethnoplasia often requires heroic epics and in the realm of music creation, musical 'constructions' that feed the national fantasy (Frolova-Walker, 2001).

As Stokes also states, music is "a field of symbolic activity, extremely important for nation-states" (1994: 15). In Europe in particular, music, on the one hand, and nationalism, on the other, are two central points of reference for both Europe's past and future (Bohlman, 2011: xx). Music, like other arts, is a practice of cultural expression that is put at the service of cultural nationalism for the production of semantic content and national emblems and the support of national construction (Turino, 2003: 175). In general, the view has been expressed from time to time that art is the soul of the people and that the 'natural' existence of a nation is not enough if its artistic expression is absent. The French composer Jacques Offenbach has argued that a nation is lifeless without art (1876, as reported by Gienow-Hecht, 2009: 166). Adorno in Disagreements (Dissonanzen) argues metaphysically that tonality symbolizes the homeland (1960, as reported by Frangou-Psychopedi, 1990: 171).

Music expresses but also mobilizes national emotions, therefore it can play a catalytic role in nationalism (Nash & Carney, 1996: 71). Turino observes that "national feeling is the functionally most important force that connects populations and states" (as mentioned by Turino, 2003: 174). Because it relies heavily on emotion, it has the power - according to the German philosopher Wilhelm von Humboldt - to unite people, even if there is a class gap between them. It is the 'religious' dimension of music, which as a divine function "allows all members of the nation to unite purely as human beings, without the random distinctions of society." Music is therefore superclass and brings national unity (Applegate, 1998: 295).

Regev refers to the so-called 'globalization' - a term originally proposed by Robertson (1995) - to popular music (pop and rock) which comes to enrich the 'national' musical character with cosmopolitan and exogenous elements. ' alienating influences, transforming the national cultural uniqueness. Locality is renegotiated when it interacts with globalism (globality, globalism), with the forces of globalization, producing a new cultural product, musical hybridizations, glocality (globalization) (Regev, 2007: 218). Cosmopolitanism embodies the concept of mutual understanding, tolerance and respect for other cultures.

The stylistic influences from the conventions and the musical language of pop and rock music, the orchestration, the use of musical instruments - mainly electric - but also the techniques of production, sound processing and recording create a new sound landscape and a new aesthetic place with a universal character. Thus the national cultural identity incorporates the musical 'Other' and appropriates it, 'indigenizes' it without drawing exclusively from traditional sources (folkism, traditionalism). As one realizes, this dialogue between ethnic and non-ethnic, musical congruence brings together different cultures and blurs the boundaries between the concepts of 'We' and 'Others'.

Moreover, this musical cosmopolitanism increases the proximity of different 'musical nationalisms', since different ethnic communities share a significant percentage of common musical experience and aesthetics (Regev, 2007: 318, 336).

CONCLUSION

Based on the aforementioned it becomes obvious that music pedagogy as an object offers theoretical and practical - experiential knowledge. It aims at the acquaintance with the theory and research of music education but also at the development of the critical ability to evaluate this knowledge, at the development of musicality and rhythm, at the interdisciplinary approach of music, at the knowledge of the most important music pedagogical approaches, at the ability to adapt of teaching at any age, in the exploration of the musical creative self but also in general in the connection of theory with practice.

The main purpose is to create a fruitful relationship with music, letting its influences contribute positively to the student's personality. Indirect goals come from the main purpose and are long term. Some of them are: the expression of the child through music, the ability to express his musicality with the help of his body and voice, the perception of the concepts of music as well as the development of a positive image and attitude towards music. Where the arts flourish, beauty and kindness are incubated, while ugliness and all forms of violence disappear. With the enhanced presence of music and other art classes, schools would be bright cells of culture and at the same time, poles of attraction for happy students.

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Chapter 14

Surpassing Narrative and Non-Verbal Communication:
A Cross-Modal Approach to Music Composition in Nation Branding

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ABSTRACT

This chapter develops a strategy for scoring non-narrative or non-descriptive film segments. When developing a soundtrack for a movie, the composer is faced with the challenge of incorporating other tools and elements in order to create clear communication between the soundtrack and what is happening on screen. An effective approach to musical composition is sought for the non-narrative context. The main objective is to ascertain what other elements might be considered to meaningfully associate the screened events and the music tracks and then investigate how these elements may be most effectively scored. The research analyses a specific method for crossing from one modality or style to another, enabling the viewer to relate impressions and stimuli gained through one modality to another for a fully comprehensive experience. A table will demonstrate how the specifications of one modality can be calibrated in terms of another.

INTRODUCTION

Music is a universal language. Film is also now a major contributor to cultural globalization, as more and more nations channel resources into their individual film industries. Together, music and film provide a fundamental channel for communication, allowing people to communicate their feelings, thoughts and emotions in a way that may be difficult or even impossible through spoken language. Cinema has become a powerful tool to influence international opinion. It can be termed a ‘soft power’ as it provides a window through which foreign spectators can see the richness and attractiveness of a particular country or culture (Keune 2017).

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While music is an integral part of both narrative and non-narrative film, there are significant differences in how this medium of communication is employed. Narrative film revolves around story telling. A narrative often falls into two parts. The story is the focal point, but also there is a method of disseminating the story, often with sub-plots or diversions that eventually return to the main story line. Therefore, the sound track facilitates the gradual development of the story to the climax, where a lesson may be taught, conclusions reached, or the advantages or disadvantages of a certain course of action made clear.

A non-narrative film may also have an influence on the viewer, leading them to a conclusion, or using persuasion to adopt a particular opinion. However, this method of communication is more subtle. There is no 'story' as such which unfolds. The meaning of the film may not become immediately obvious as surreal images may be used.

It is necessary however to clarify what is meant by the expression non-narrative film. In the full sense of the term, the audience would not be able to recognize any image, as it would be nonrepresentational. This is actually impossible as a viewer nearly always has a desire to 'inject narrative where it does not exist.' (Aumont 1992:71)

So non-narrative films still have meaning, often dependent on the context. Abstract concepts are represented in various ways. For example, psychological themes involving panic, entrapment, sexual tension, are explored. The composer of the sound track seeks to communicate with the viewer by illuminating, elucidating, and revealing the meaning of the visual representations in a particular context.

Music and film share many common characteristics. Pitch can be perceived as high or low. Textures can be thick or thin. Melodies can be ascending or descending. Gestures and movements are often discerned by rhythm and pace. The limits of these boundaries can be measured and mapped and transferred from one modality to another.

This article is entitled "Surpassing Narrative and Non-Verbal Communication: A Cross- Modal Approach to Music Composition in Nation Branding."

To surpass something means to go beyond, to excel, to exceed expectations. The Table presented later in this article will enable the composer to go beyond narrative and non-verbal communication by using a cross-modal approach, thus fulfilling the objective of this article in enabling the composer to provide the viewer with a fully comprehensive experience.

The Research Methodology

The author's research is mainly based on practice. By examining original sound tracks, and through a detailed analysis of each film excerpt, it is possible to apply a cross-modal methodology, which in turn, leads to clearer, unambiguous communication.

The research considers cross-modal perception in the expressive arts, with a review of literature and key works in this field. The synaesthetic multimedia experiments of Skriabin (Prometheus), Schoenberg (Die Glückliche Hand), and Messiaen (Couleurs de la Cité Céleste), intentionally linked sense modalities for expressive purposes, the first of their kind. These experiments are then examined from the viewpoint of film theorists Eisenstein (Eisenstein 1968) and Eisler (Eizler 1973), who rejected synaesthetic correspondence as an effective model for cross-media interaction. Eisenstein's and Eisler's critiques, in turn, are reviewed in relation to research by Marshall & Cohen (1988), Lakoff & Johnson (1980), and Cook (1998) who show how synaesthesia, narrowly defined, results in a duplication of information from each modality contributing to an information overlap.

A significant part of the research evaluates and applies Cook's (1988), 'quasi-synaesthesia', - the more general ability to experience or interpret the information channelled through one sense modality in terms of another. Cook suggested three basic models of multimedia namely, 'conformance, complementation, and contest'. These are reviewed and assessed as to their capability for establishing a compositionally controlled way of mapping cross-modal parameters when writing the score for non-narrative films.

The emphasis in the research is on practice rather than theory. A detailed analysis was taken of a portfolio of original soundtracks and the application of cross-modal logic to the scoring of non-narrative video. The result is a new framework in which to work, for composers and scholars looking for an alignment of media in multimedia work.

The Role of Multimedia

Various media working in harmony, combining characteristics from each form such as music, sound, images, text, lighting, is what has come to be known as multimedia.

Multimedia allows for an interchange of senses so a particular reaction or response is encouraged by the viewer. An example of this is found in the horror genre. The film maker seeks to elicit a feeling of fear in the audience. Often the visual modality is used and a scene depicted which causes anxiety and fright. However, before the scene is actually viewed, some seconds or minutes of preparation time may have been used in which music plays a dominant role. Through this interchange of the audio and visual modalities, tension develops and the audience experiences the desired effect.

Nicholas Cook (1998) proposed that the way a listener experiences music is different to the way they think and talk about it. The formal structure may not necessarily relate to the way it is perceived or interpreted. Cook therefore makes the assertion that the meaning of music can only be ascertained through other media, or in a co-relation with other media, in other words multimedia. His view is succinctly expressed in the expression, we 'never experience music alone'. When it comes to the media of film Cook puts forward the idea that music adds a coherence to the visual image or dialogue, even creating relationships that are not inherent in the images or spoken word, thus surpassing narrative and non-verbal communication.

The Universality of Music

As music is viewed as a powerful tool in nation branding, due to the popular belief that music is a universal language, it is necessary to ask: "Is it actually true?" This is a question raised by composer and researcher Ned McGown. According to McGown, there may be some qualities in music that are universal, but there are also some that are not. He therefore divides music into 3 components, the universal, the cultural, and the personal. So while there are some aspects of music based on physiological responses that resonate with people from all cultures, the cultural and personal components do not. He then makes this important point which is very relevant to nation branding: "The more one learns about the music of a different culture the more one can understand and appreciate it. This . . . is the real merit of music on the global stage: not its ability to speak the same to everyone, but its ability to teach the listener about the qualities of the maker." (McGown 2016)

More recently however, a study from Harvard University showed that music contains a unique set of codes which can be universally understood. Author Samuel A. Mehr along with 18 other contributors, carried out an exhaustive study examining ethnographic data on music going back over 100 years from over 315 distinct cultures. They come to the conclusion that music is indeed universal. Music with and without words (narrative and non-narrative) "regularly supports certain types of behaviour, and has acoustic features that are systematically related to the goals and responses of singers and listeners." Their findings showed that there was greater variation in song events within cultures than across cultures. They further add: "Music does appear to be tied to specific perceptual, cognitive, and affective faculties, including language (all societies put words in their songs), motor control (people in all societies dance), auditory analysis (all musical systems have signatures of tonality), and aesthetics (their melodies are balanced between monotony and chaos). (Mehr 2019)

Composers of soundtracks for non-narrative films therefore can use the characteristics of non-verbal communication to touch the emotions of a widely diverse audience.

Music is in fact universal: It exists

in every society (both with and without words),

varies more within than between societies,

regularly supports certain types of behav-

ior, and has acoustic features that are system-

atically related to the goals and responses of

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The Value of the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication

In view of the universality of music, and after considering Cook's theory, the author created a Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication to provide a method for writing music for non-narrative films.

Three musical characteristics were used, namely, loudness, pitch, timbre and rhythm, and three visual characteristics, namely colour, shape and size, a total of six in all.

With an application of Cook's theory to music being an integral part of the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication, almost limitless possibilities open up between the different domains, offering the composer a wide field for experimentation. Contributing to this vast potential for experimenting are further elements, specifically, similarity, opposition, and non-acknowledgement of what is happening on the screen.

As music and film are prominent tools where nations are taking the initiative in nation branding, many composers, film makers, students, scholars and really anyone connected with education and communication, will find this table very useful as a ready-made formula which can be used to pursue a new direction. It is especially helpful when composers find their creativity is waning, or when facing a mental block. Additionally, it provides a platform for further research and understanding in multimedia work.

The Non-Narrative Perspective

Before examining the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication, and for a clearer understanding of how the table works, it is important to consider the contrasts between narrative and non-narrative film. Music is a fundamental element in each of the two media.

A story is usually central to a narrative film and therefore the soundtrack illuminates and supports the event-based narrative. As noted previously, a moral lesson might be stressed or an evaluation made of decisions or actions.

In a non-narrative context, the reason for certain actions may not be readily apparent. In the case where surrealism is employed, a chain of circumstances may not be obvious and confusion can result.

Aumont (1992) argues that a truly non-narrative film is not possible as the viewer constantly has the temptation to 'inject narrative where it does not exist.' He explains: 'in order for a film to be truly non-narrative, it would need to be nonrepresentational so the viewer would not recognize anything in the image or perceive temporal, sequential or cause-and-effect relations between the elements of the image.'

It can be seen therefore that music that complements a non-narrative film may produce the same result as with a narrative film. The spectator may be influenced to adopt a certain viewpoint or reach a specific conclusion.

Understanding the Terms Diegetic & Non-Diegetic

The term diegetic is a cinematic expression for sound that occurs within the context of the story and which is heard by the characters. The source of the sound is visible on screen, for example, when the character speaks, or when sound emanates from an object visible on the film set.

Non-diegetic refers to sound that is external to the context of the story and which is not heard by the characters or implied by any action on screen. For example, a commentary, or music that sets a mood or tone, or sound effects that are added to create a dramatic effect are non-diegetic sound.

However, some music may not be clearly defined as diegetic or non-diegetic, but rather exist somewhere between the two. Winters (2010) makes the assertion that music plays a significant role in creating narrative space in a non-narrative context and could be regarded as 'intra-diegetic'.

An Overview of Contemporary Composers

The author examined the work of contemporary composers to gain an understanding of the contemporary approach to non-narrative film.

Holzer (2020) was of great interest due to his unusual approach of using electronic instruments and use of sound machines enhanced by light. The result is exciting music with numerous climaxes.

Musgrave (2014) uses natural sounds and looks for what is radical in commonplace settings and then makes a link with extreme elements. His work challenges the listener in the areas of space, perception and cognition.

Grierson uses opposition to change an audience's perception of reality. For example, his work includes a small stationery dot on a screen without any sound. When sound is added, the dot appears to move. Here therefore translates some parameters of the visual from the aural.

Chrysakis and Chion propose that sound and image are very different entities when they are used in combination. Chion coins the phrase audio-vision to refer to this specific mode of perception.

'Seeing' Music as Colours

Synaesthesia is a neurological condition in which information aimed at one of the senses stimulates several senses. (The Greek words 'synth' and 'ethesia' literally mean 'together' and 'perception'.) Research indicates synaesthesia can be genetic, and people who have this condition usually are born with it or develop it in early childhood.

One common symptom of synaesthesia is perceptions that cross over between senses, for example, tasting shapes or hearing colours. People with synaesthesia are often strongly interested in the visual arts and music and tend to be creative.

A composer therefore can utilize this phenomenon when writing a score for non-narrative film, remembering that many people can experience hearing music in terms of colour and they can perceive musical notes as relating to specific colours. It is as if they 'see' the music in colour, or 'hear' in colour.

The Russian writer, Vladimir Nabokov, gives a vivid description of his own experience with coloured hearing. He said: 'the colour sensation seems to be produced by the very act of my orally forming a given letter while I imagine its outline. The long a of the English alphabet has for me the tint of weathered wood, but a French a evokes polished ebony. This black group also includes hard g (vulcanized rubber) and r (a sooty rag being ripped). Oatmeal n, noodle-limp l, and the ivory-backed hand mirror of o take care of the whites . . . Since a subtle interaction exists between sound and shape, I see q as browner than k, while s is not the light blue of c, but a curious mixture of azure and mother-of-pearl.' (Nabokov 2006: 34).

This description gives an insight into synaesthesia, as two senses stimulate a wide range of feelings, impressions, and emotions.

The composer Messiaen used cross-modal sensory responses in his music due to his own neurological condition of synaesthesia, and the greater part of his work reflects this involuntary condition. His compositions depended largely on seeing colours, and indicative of this is the fact he wrote notes in his musical scores specifying a particular colour. Notes such as 'the bass plays red' or 'the woodwind plays blue' would be added for the benefit of the conductor. Cook (1998) describes this in detail and explained that Messiaen felt the audience should see the colours as well as hear the music. However, Block (1983) observed that hearing in colour is very much an individual experience, differing greatly from one person to another.

These were factors that influenced the author in the development stage of the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication where a search was made for an effective way to combine visuals and sound by finding correspondencies across the modalities. As part of the first deliberate artistic endeavours through experimentation to link the sense modalities, the work of Skriabin (Prometheus), Schoenberg (Die Glückliche Hand), and Messiaen (Couleurs de la Cité Céleste) was reviewed by the author.

Developing the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication

The table follows Lipscombe's model of six parameters, namely, the musical attributes of pitch, loudness, timbre and rhythm, and the visual attributes of size, colour and shape. The phenomenon of synaesthesia was also seriously considered and as a result, colour was used as a main parameter. As this sound-colour relationship is subjective, no colour tables were used from any particular composer.

The main concept underpinning the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication was an adaption of Cook's theory to music. Using the most appropriate instruments, pitches, and rhythms, visual characteristics were interpreted aurally through music. Additionally, three strategies were used systematically in partnership with the Table, namely, 1) acknowledging (events) by similarity, 2) acknowledging (events) by opposition, and 3) not acknowledging the event.

The application of these three strategies, after Cook, formed the core of the research method. The first two options should be seen as the two poles of a continuum, offering virtually limitless possibilities of nuancing the relationship one way or the other. The complexity results when a relationship set up in one direction shifts over time to a different degree, or 'morphs' into the opposite direction and when several levels are each dealt with in different ways, with outcomes of similarity at one level and opposition at another. In this way the composer enjoys scope to 'play' with a network of possible relationships. (Georgiou, 2014)

The Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication provides a structure in which the six parameters plus sub-parameters can be used. The parameters have been mapped from one domain to the other and are translated sonically. Strategies involving repetition, alternating acknowledging by similarity or opposition, the use of silence, and the use of energy in equal measure in the visual and aural domains, gives an almost limitless potential for creativity.

Griffiths made an interesting observation from her experiments. She said that art can 'annoy, excite, disturb or please' an audience, thus provoking a reaction, even when deliberate attempts to obtain a reaction from the audience were not made. She added: "Audiences were invited to share my personal selections of time and space. The researcher, the audience, the environment and the respondent were becoming inextricably linked to the research." (Griffiths 2007: 171) The author concurs with Griffiths. From her experiments, a decision had to be made as which events had a higher visual importance, and greater significance, so that the audience unavoidably 'shared her personal selections of time and space.'

Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication

Based on 6 main parameters that apply equally to the aural and the visual domain:
SPACE–TIME–TEXTURE–LIGHT–COLOUR–ENERGY

PARAMETERS	Static	Dynamic	Quality
SPATIAL	up – down left – right foreground – background	ascending – descending panning advancing – receding zooming	smooth – jerky (motion)
TEMPORAL	rhythm/pace	speeding up – slowing down zooming	regular – irregular
TEXTURE	dense – sparse	getting denser – getting thinner	coarse – fine
LIGHT	dark – bright	brighter – darker fade	contrast: sharp / blurred
COLOUR / TIMBRE	colour / timbre	colour/timbre change fade	hue / saturation / orchestration brightness
ENERGY	N/A	increasing / decreasing high / low	positive / negative / neutral

Connecting Non-verbal Communication and Non-narrative Films

Every day we respond to numerous non-verbal indicators and behaviours. The most prominent of these is facial expression. Even before a person speaks, their facial expression can reveal much about their current mood so certain behaviour can be anticipated. There are many facial expressions specific to a certain culture which could be misinterpreted by people from another culture. However, emotions such as happiness, fear, sadness, anger are similarly communicated through non-verbal means all over the world.

Gestures are another key element in non-verbal communication. Deliberate movements and gestures with the hands or fingers can be powerful and influential signals.

Body language and posture can communicate a wealth of inner feelings and emotions. Crossing or uncrossing the arms, crossing or uncrossing the legs, can be interpreted as defensive or open, although many times their meaning is ambiguous.

Eyes and gaze can communicate honesty or shiftiness and lack of trustworthiness. Staring or blinking can be important non-verbal aspects of communication.

Personal space, the distance a person maintains when speaking to another, is another factor in non-verbal communication. Closeness can indicate an intimate relationship while distance can be a non-verbal clue of a formal or business-like relationship.

The way a person dresses can reveal much about their personality. Clothing therefore is another means of non-verbal communication. The type of clothing an individual wears can provide non-verbal clues about their financial status, personality, age, authority, confidence, and background. (Cherry, 2020)

This then is the challenge facing the composer who has to find ways and use a framework of parameters to interpret these characteristics of non-verbal communication. He must be aware of the many nuances in non-verbal communication across cultures.

Music Composition in Nation Branding

The music composer involved with nation branding, needs to have a clear vision of exactly what is being branded. National stereotypes and the world's perception of a nation's history can be extremely difficult to remove or change. Additionally, it is almost an impossible task to try and communicate a single image that would be understood and appreciated by all audiences in all cultures.

In marketing terms, the purpose of nation branding is to 'sell' its products, culture and people. An attractive feature of a country or nationality needs to be identified with the purpose of making it the centre of a nation branding process which will have broad appeal across the world.

Once a specific theme has been decided upon, the music composer can then utilize all the tools at their disposal, including the Table of Audio-Visual Correlations in Communication shown above, in scoring a film or video that supports that aspect of the nation's branding.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Composition: The act of combing various elements to form a whole.

Correlation: The relationship or connection between variables.

Diegetic: Sound which is heard by the characters in the context of the story.

Narrative: A spoken or written account.

Nation Branding: Promoting images and information that enhance the perception and reputation of a state.

Non-Diegetic: Commentary sound that does not originate in the film but added later for effect.

Non-Narrative: Does not relate an event or tell a story.

Synaesthesia: A neurological condition in which stimulation of one of the senses also stimulates other senses.

Chapter 15
Cultural National Branding as a Proposal on the Grounds of the Formation Ministry of Culture of the Republic of Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

The broader notion of national branding has lately evolved to a primary field of research and practice, attracting attention from a wide range of disciplines. Accordingly, the chapter observes the concept of nation's branding as a strategic asset under the circumstance of the formation of a unique ministry of culture, Cyprus, by examining the certain condition and by recommending research and further steps. In this logic, the chapter stresses the synergies may emerge and discusses the managerial implications and the limitations of the given framework and proposes the steps.

1.0 INTRODUCTION – RESEARCH CONTEXT

The wider understanding of National branding has lately evolved to a primary field of research and practice, attracting attention from a wide range of disciplines. However, is not so far universally accepted that national branding consists of a valuable asset, or, essentially, conceivable, applicable and measurable tool towards creating competitive advantage. In this logic, the current chapter receipts its context from the procedures for the creation of a unique Ministry of Culture in Cyprus, which currently seem to be intensifying after the decision of the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports and Youth to set up an advisory committee of personalities active in various fields of culture, in order to advise in the formation of the culture policy proposal. More specifically, given the deep cultural roots and the valuable and long-lasting cultural heritage of Cyprus, the chapter viewpoints the creation of the new ministry as a benchmark and as a unique opportunity for the development and the establishment of a solid strategy of national branding (Sophocleous, Masouras, and Papademetriou, 2019), which will characterise Cyprus

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and provide multilevel benefits to the economy, the society and in particular the cultural development of the country.

What is National Branding?

National branding is a relatively a newly established notion. It involves the process of employing corporate branding procedures to elevate countries, the primary purpose is to develop and operate the character of a country. Nation branding is accomplished by numerous nations including France, the UK, USA Canada, Japan, China, South Africa, etc There is a rising interest amongst less prosperous nations to exercise national branding as it has the capability to recover their image internationally and endorse trade, tourism and investments. Likewise, national branding - if accomplished appropriately - has the capacity to engage in battle with stereotypes that are correlated with specific nations. Anholt (2007) spotted the importance as well as the effects of nation branding and identified that ,nations have become far more cognizant of the value of their brand as an asset.

Anholt (2007) divides the idea of nation branding into six main subfields. These are: tourism, exports, authority, citizens, civilisation and inheritance, and investment and migration.

Accordingly, the nation's brand value of a country (Anholt, 2007) is constrained from the pattern of results for diverse standards that encompassing citizens, authority, exports, tourism, culture and inheritance, along with investment and migration. Recognizing the importance of national brands supports nations to improve their deals they produce in fields that influence their global appal. Present-day governments have launched to employ public relations organizations to assist them introduce advanced branding strategies targeted at appealing imported investing, inspiring exports and yet enhancing general geopolitical impact.

1.1 Problem Formulation

More specifically, by considering the settings and the cultural inheritance of Cyprus, as a strategic asset and by reviewing relevant issues, the chapter suggests the projection of a suitable and dynamic national branding following the projected creation of a unique Ministry of Culture in Cyprus, strategy that could be act. The new/projected ministry is going to take under its umbrella all the existing cultural functions, which at the moment are spread among different ministries and boards/committees. For example the archaeological heritage is under the umbrella of the Ministry of Transport, communication, and works, the cultural affairs under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education, While the State theatre is under the authority of an independent committee (Theatrical Organisation of Cyprus). In this manner, the chapter proposes a sole and comprehensive strategy and a solid brand (Sophocleous, Masouras, and Papademetriou, 2019) that could act as implementor of the anticipated entity and to as a facilitator of the core competence of Cyprus.

Accordingly, the chapter examines the notion of branding as a strategic asset for a forthcoming cultural organization in Cyprus, by examining the given situation and by proposes research and additional actions. More specifically, the chapter evaluates the assets and the branding inheritance of the forthcoming entity and suggests ways on how to establish a brand (Sophocleous, Masouras, and Papademetriou, 2019) that will add the value of the country in general.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

The chapter examines the concept of branding as a Strategic Asset for an upcoming Ministry of cultural affairs of Cyprus and thus an asset for the country in general, it has been considered as essential to simplify a set of more obvious and measurable aims and objectives to accomplish of the projected aim.

- To assess the present situation and define the socio-economic and cultural environment and the implications of the brand that is needed.
- To determine the Branding inherence and therefore, to clarify the attitudes of the suggested branding.
- To outline the positioning and the wider strategy of building, launching and establishing Cyprus national branding in an effective and beneficial way that will transform the particular brand as a national strategic asset.
- To propose research further steps in order to facilitate and implement the accomplishment of the proposed Brand.

2.0 Literature Review

As it has been already mentioned, nation's brand value of a country (Anholt, 2007) is constrained from the pattern of results for diverse standards that encompassing citizens, authority, exports, tourism, culture and inheritance, along with investment and migration. In this respect, the accomplishment of a certain entity of every kind is not simply the result of the correct strategy. Consequently, the success of an organisation is the result of applying a strategy that is flexible enough to respond to changing situations (Dutton, Jackson, 1987; Mintzberg 1979) as well as adapting to the changing environment (Ginsberg, 1988; Hedberg &Johnson 1977; Staw, Sandelands, Dutton 1981Consequently, a successful strategy is the one, which could be competitive even under a changing 'competitive structure' (Cook, Shortell, Conrad, Morrisey 1983; D' Aveni R, MacMillan 1990; Tushman, Romanelli 1985). Thus, the 'competitive structure' of a particular sector, in the specific incident the public establishment of culture, alongside with the 'strategic assets' of an organisation, creates 'the core competence' of the specific organisation.

Accordingly, the chapter evaluates 'brand' as a 'marketing asset' and as a 'value' creator, by clarifying the meaning of the term 'brand', by investigating the 'structure of branding' and by highlighting its attribute as a facilitator of consuming preference ("…branding is the 'DNA' of 'competitive strategy") (Rubinstein, 1996; Macrae 1991). Consequently, a successful brand be able to work as a dominant marketing resource and as a cause of barriers to additional market entries. The specific declaration might imply the importance of the role of 'branding' inside the total strategic tactic of a corporation or a public entity. This might recommend that 'brand' is one of the main mediators of an entity's corporate strategy. Nevertheless, the viable approach of an entity, even in the case nonprofit organizations, is one of the first issues that is mirrored by the brand of the specific organisation.

Product is somewhat that is produced in a factory and can be rapidly outmoded; a brand is rather accepted by a consumer [1]. Additionally, it could be argued that a successful brand is rather eternal. The presence of a positive 'brand' extends further than the 'life cycles' of the products under the specific 'brand' and gives a lasting impression of 'value' to the organisation, which utilizes it.

In the argument of an altering 'operating environment', as it occurs with the given situation, if the forthcoming entity intends to construct and to effectively develop a brand, it must be capable of con-

Figure 1.

Source: Adapted from Anholt (2006, p. 186)

structing a fundamental awareness of this brand. Therefore, the entity could require to comprehensively explain the significance of 'efficient brand management'. 'Efficient brand management' is the mechanism that benefits the predilection of the consumer. Moreover, as it has already been argued, branding is the 'DNA' of competitive strategy' (Kavoura & Bitsani 2014). Therefore, 'brand' is something that suggests the mission and the purpose of an entity, and it gives an impression of identity and uniqueness to the particular entity. Additionally, it could be argued that brands are accomplished by enabling and making more operative the consumer procedure in the logic that the presence of precise brands empowers the consumer to acknowledge the set of attributes that are offered by the products and the services of an organisation. Moreover, it could be uncomplicated to appreciate that brand is not just an issue of communication, but rather provides a perception of identity to the organisation. Accordingly, 'Nations Brand' is somewhat that should be judged in the primary steps of the formulating procedure, and is linked to numerous organisational aspects, activities and functions (see Fig. 1.). Consequently, in the particular circumstance of the new entity, the efficient and capable use the specific model, it is expected to acquire the formation of a solid identity and thus of a strategic asset.

2.1 The Worth of Branding Assets in Altering Operative Environments

It has been considered as essential to identify 'strategic change' and assessing the aspects in which a / branding inheritance', i.e. an existing brand could assist in that direction. In this sense the chapter attempts to provide a description by considering the independences and the distinctiveness of such an entity. In a similar manner, Ginsberg Ginsberg A (1988) tried to define 'strategic change' by focusing his research in identifying various definitions of the term 'change in strategy', which are classified along two fundamental dimensions. The first dimension through which strategic change is defined makes a distinction between conceptualizing strategies. Firstly, hypothesizing strategy in regard to a position that is reflected in the choice of product/market domains or competitive advantages through which firms define their relationship to the environment. Secondly in terms of a perspective that is reflected in the integrated sets of ideas through which problems are marked and understood and from which decisions are taken (Hedberg, Johnson, 1977). On the first point of view, which classifies 'strategy' as a 'position' look outward to situate the organisation in its 'external environment'. On the other point of view, the perspective that characterizes 'strategy' as 'perspective' look inwards in an effort to understand the collective mind, or in other words the culture of an organisation, which formulates the organizations continuing relationship with its environment (Mintzberg, 1979; Varelas &, Georgopoulos, 2017).

2.1.1. Cultural Branding and Urban Living

The previous sections made an attempt of analysing and emphasizing the essence of branding as a facilitator of strategy and as a strategic asset, by observing literature relevant to the over-all notions of branding, however in order to connect the concept of branding with the notion of culture and in relation with cultural activities, it might be necessary to make an insight view upon the application of branding for cultural purposes, as this has been reported by relevant literature (Pasquinelli, 2017; Jenkins 2005; Caldwell & Coshall, 2002). Accordingly, another issue that derives from the scope of the paper is the discussion of challenges, potential and problems of urban living [21]. Likewise, the concept of "Nation Imaging" describes to the approaches that specific nations are labeled and promoted. It presumes that public illustrations may possibly be modified to facilitate tourism and enhance development (See figure 2.). Consequently, a prosperous and thorough brand of the principal cultural facilitator, could determine an efficient branding influence for the wider welfare of the country.

2.1.2 How do you Determine the Power of a Nation's Brand?

The Nation Brands Index, consiststhe main resource of quantitative information regarding the relative strengths of national brands. Every three months, the particular index recording the judgments of clients in thirty-five separate countries, primarily in developed markets, tracing their perceptions of various distinct attributes of a country's picture. Anholt (2007) separates the notion of nation branding into six major fields. These consist of: tourist industry, trade, authority, citizens, civilization and inheritance, etc.

Provided all this, Iversen and Hem (2001) have defined a model (Fig. 3) when an image of a nation is established in the opinion of the user, considering cultural and psychographic traits of citizens and adding to these, the products from that nation; they researched the categorization given above Balabanis et al. (1996).

Figure 2. The dimensions and the associated functions of brand strategy. Sophocleous ed All 2019

2.2 Different Perspectives on Nation Branding

Kaneva determines that a comprehensive distinction could be done amongst technical-economic, political and cultural-critical perspectives, (Kaneva, 2011). The key characteristics of each of the three approaches are outlined as follow:

Economic, functionalist perspective
Political perspective
Cultural-critical perspective

2.2.1 Cultural-Critical Perspective

Cultural-critical perspective Research, which, amongst above perspectives is the most relevant to the chapter viewpoint, implementing a cultural-critical methodology to the evaluation of nation branding regarding their national identities, social relations and agenda-setting (Kaneva, 2011). Subsequent this approach, the exercise of marketing and branding is to be considered with concern, since marketing is not a value-free, unbiased method of delivering products or services to meet with basic needs (Moufahim, Humphreys, Mitussis, & Fitchett, 2007). Rather, through its usage of particular codes, ideological debates

Figure 3.

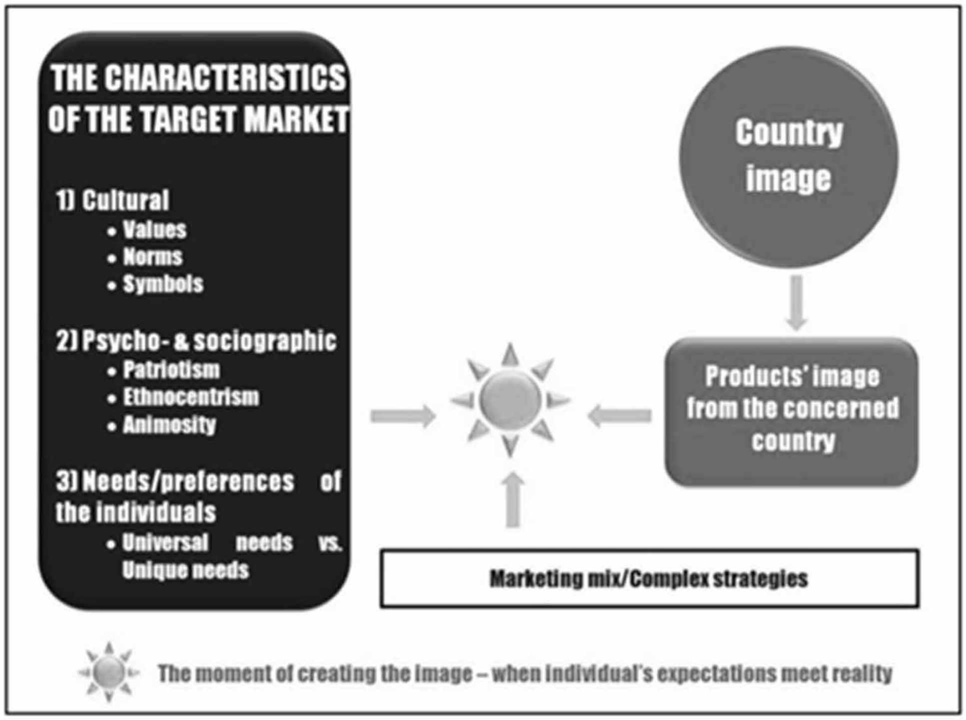


Figure 1. The moment of image' creation
Source: adapted after Iversen et al. (2001)

and methods, branding actively shapes social relations, for example by granting material consumption a central role in people's lives (Moufahim et al., 2007).

Cultural-critical researchers worried about nation branding aim to discover how marketing and branding influence the social sphere and how those practices alter people's perceptions of self and their national identity, linking the expansive dimension of nation branding to constructivist ideas of nationhood.

In this consequence, as Volcic and Andrejevic (2011) indicate, the community develop into the "brand community" and authorities a country's principal marketers, projected to line up foreign and local strategies with the nation brand. Recognized as "a compilation of sermons and procedures intended at modifying nationhood via marketing and branding paradigms" (Kaneva, 2011, p. 118), nation branding funder a cultural-critical perspective uncovers a particular path of believing about the role of a nation and its citizens, whom it pursues to activate in the name of trade and industry growth (Volcic & Andrejevic, 2011).

In general lines, although scholars determining nation branding from a cultural-critical perspective understand it as a way to reconstitute nations both by means of ideology and praxis (Kaneva, 2011).

2.3 Cultural Management – Conceptual Framework

The term ‘cultural management’ is used to label an extensive set of practices connecting to the management of cultural organizations and cultural activities for achieving a variety of aims including production, distribution, exhibition, education, and other related activities within a variety of sectors including the non-profit, for profit and public. Such diversity and fragmentation makes it difficult to define a specific set of characteristics common to all cases,

An evaluation of the given literature shows that lots of cultural management research is cantered on a realist perspective both at ontological and epistemological levels, and adopts a positivistic approach (Aycan, 2000). Therefore, culture is measured as standing and actual structures of principles and values with deterministic relations amongst the fundamental parts.

While culture is a complicated concept, a rational and common method amongst scholars is to distinguish numerous of its key attributes and contrast them throughout boundaries. These attributes are frequently described as culture orientations or dimensions. By dimensions we imply those cultural characteristics that are bipolar and dichotomous. For example, the structure recommended by Hofstede (1980) depend on four (later five) bipolar dimensions with excessive points at every end. Cultural dimensions have been comprehensively condemned. Osland and Bird (2000) called dimensionalization a ‘sophisticated stereotyping’ incapable of understanding cultural behavior.

3.0 The Cultural Context, the Current Situation

Cyprus, situated in the Eastern Mediterranean nearby to Syria, Turkey and Egypt is geographically designated as part of the Levant, a strategic crossroad between East and West. Accordingly, it has a long, well- acknowledge history of and Cultural Inheritance and human. At the beginning of our joint age, Cyprus was part of the Roman Empire. Likewise, in the rest of the eastern Roman domain, was previously subject to the Hellenistic successors of Alexander the Great, Greek was the lingua franca of the island. Cyprus was famous for its cult of the Greek goddess Aphrodite and was reputedly her birthplace. Christianization of the island began with the visit of St. Barnabas and St. Paul in 45 CE. By the fourth century, the bishops of Cyprus were strong and influential, achieving autocephalous status within the early Orthodox Church in the fifth century. Many large basilicas were built all over the island from the fourth to sixth centuries. The wealth of the church attracted Arab raids in the seventh and eighth centuries and these together with numerous earthquakes destroyed many of the buildings of the previous centuries. In the ninth century, Byzantine administration was restored and some privileged circumstances recuperated throughout the following two centuries (Coldstream 1981: 18). Overall, the above circumstances, the Orthodox Church lasted and restated its existence. Towards this period date the earliest painted churches that are now included on the World Heritage List. The Crusaders attained in Cyprus in late twelfth century and later found a Latin kingdom on the island beneath the administration of Lusignan’s. Three centuries later, the Venetians took over, lasting 82 years until the arrival of the Ottoman Turks in 1571. In the early nineteenth century, the Greek fight for freedom from Ottomans 1818-21 had consequences in Cyprus. The appearance in Greece of ‘The Great Idea’ visualising the refurbishment of the Christian Orthodox Byzantine Empire and the freedom of all Greeks under Ottoman regulator was the basis of future attempts in Cyprus to attain union with Greece. Britain took over the government of the island in 1878 after a reimbursement of conflicts between Russia and Turkey and made Cyprus a Colony of British Grown in 1925. The British era completed with Independence and the formation of the Republic of Cyprus in 1960. Britain engaged sovereignty over its military bases, and the rights of the two major ethnic communities, Greek and Turkish were to be guaranteed by Britain, Greece and Turkey. The first president of the Cyprus Republic was Archbishop Makarios, prelate of the Cyprus Orthodox Church. Ongoing troubles between the Greek and Turkish Cypriot communities finally led to the Military Junta then in control of Greece attempting a coup to remove Makarios in 1974. As reaction, Turkey invaded and occupied the northern third of the island. The ceasefire line or Green Line still divides the island and the old walled capital, Nicosia is divided in half from east to west historic walled city, Famagusta is included in the Turkish occupied area. Approximately 180,000 Greek Cypriot refugees from the north were resettled in the south, initially in specially created villages. About 71,000 Turkish Cypriots from the south moved to the north and were mostly accommodated in vacated Greek Cypriot property. Additionally, in a reverberation of Ottoman practice, Turkey resettled 60,000 Turks from the mainland in the north (Drousiotis 2006: 263). With the parting of the ethnic communities, the country was effectively partitioned. UN forces patrol the Green Line, and the Turkish military continue to occupy the northern third of the island. In 1983 the Turkish administration in the north formalized itself as the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), but as an occupying power is not recognized as such by any State except Turkey. The most recent attempt to solve the Cyprus division, the Annan Plan, was accepted by Turkish Cypriots but rejected by Greek Cypriots in the referendum of 2004.

Nevertheless, since 2003, when accession of the Republic of Cyprus to the EU was forthcoming, there has been an agreement between both sides to open crossing points to allow Cypriots from either side to visit their former homes and participate in each other's economies. Some trade is allowed across the Green Line, and there is cooperation between municipalities in relation to power and sewerage. It is extensively acknowledged that the Cyprus government in the south achieved a super- human task in providing homes, employment and Cultural Heritage and human rights in divided Cyprus infrastructure with a stable and increasingly prosperous economy in the wake of 1974. One of the main reasons of the prosperity of the Republic of Cyprus has been tourism. Cyprus' most favoured destination before 1974 was the white, sandy beach stretching to the east along the coast from Famagusta. Mainly developed by Greek Cypriots with the then fashionable high-rise hotels. Disadvantaged of this area, Greek Cypriots were confined to the south part of the island, where, however, the sand is mostly grey or the beaches stony, but nevertheless developed hotels and resorts around harbours and small fishing shelters.

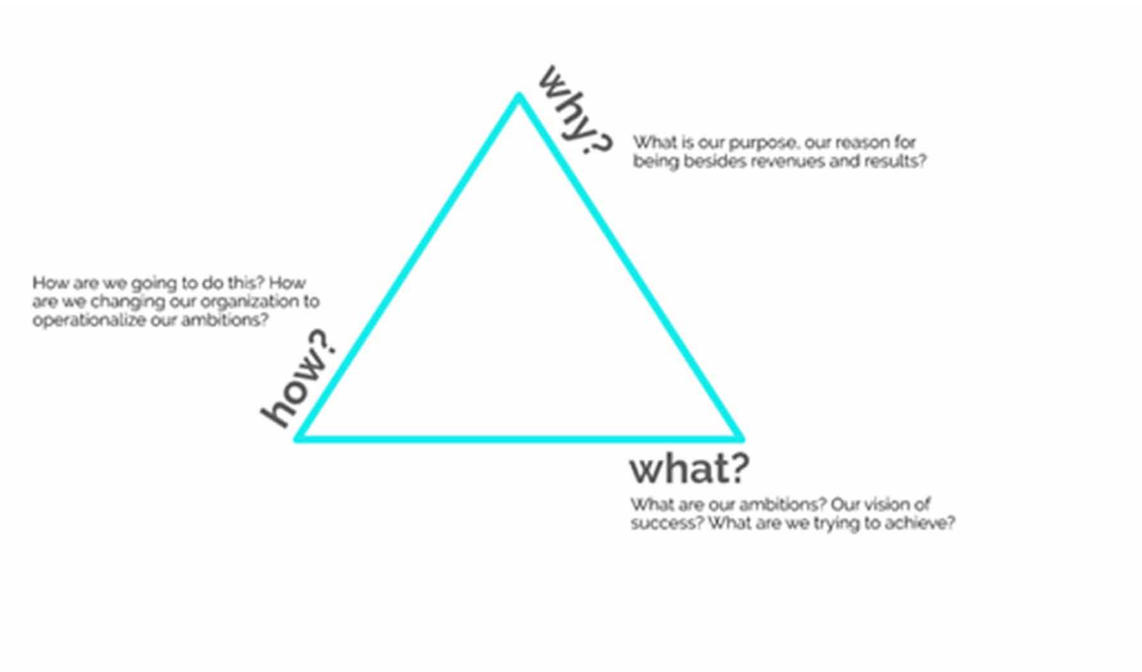
4.0 The Recommended Brand

Accordingly, as it is suggested and by the vital scope of the chapter needs a strong and suitable branding entity to act as the communicator and the implementor of those collaborations and therefore to operate as a strategic asset that will enable the integration of the values of all the contributing elements. In this manner, the following sections of the chapter are attempting to outline the basic profile of a potential national branding, based on the particular situation and considering the given history and the given inheritance of the island, as it has been pointed out in the previous section. In this manner the following sections are suggesting a probable Strategic brand triangle and its fundamental components (Mission, Vision, Core Values & Personality), as the basis of a sustainable and competitive national branding and suggest s possible positioning of the projected brand, by implying the two-dimension conceptual map and by considering relevant factors.

4.1 The Strategic Brand Triangle

The strategic brand triangle characterized as the viewpoint on how an entity should construct its strategy. This model measures that the strategies are based on the fundamental Identity of the brand and organisational distinctiveness. Any branding or strategy — progress should ground itself on responding to this triangle. There are certainly numerous aspects to expanding this strategic viewpoint, however the WHY, WHAT and HOW of every brand or corporation are vital to acquiring an effective prospect.

Figure 4.
Source: XY01 Elevating good businesses to great brands (2019).



Some parts of this triangle are presented in the following sections in manner that they propose and facilitate the basis of a national brand.

Purpose

The purpose of a brand, is the reason of existence, outside making money and lead the sector. In order to obtain an efficient level of sustainability and to establish competitive advantage a certain brand should have a clear purpose. According to the context and the scope the specific chapter, the purpose of the projected brand, is to rebrand Cyprus on the basis of its inheritance and its cultural background, the fundamental values and the factors that mainly characterize the country. Both the vision and ambition and the mission of the proposed brand as they are described below, are acting as indicators and facilitators of the purpose of the brand and they are clarifying the means through which the particular purpose it could be obtained.

Vision or Ambition

The definitive long-standing objective for the next 10–20 years. In the particular case, vision of Cyprus is to be identified as a cultural destination and to be placed on the world cultural chart, while at the same time to be identified as a provider of a unique and sustainable tourist product. Stressing this demand to shape a contemporary Cyprus Brand based on flexible organizational, and creative frames that are capable of responding to consecutive international challenges, the Cypriot government should establish strong links between reflection and exportation of the cultural inheritance of the country, in order to procedure a harmonious scheme within the state-policy aiming at changing the image of Cyprus abroad, boosting exports and upgrading national industry through modern international technology and expertise in order to produce high-quality, competitive and market-accessible products. The objective of branding Cyprus as a business destination is essential. Cyprus has been a 'must see' destination for generations of visitors and tourism remains its leading sector, Even Though Cyprus is now a vibrant emerging economy, its image has not developed beyond basic tourism to include other essential elements of a more sustainable tourist industry

The accomplishment of the recommended plan is intended to create a new image for Cyprus to be recognized as a cultural destination. It is attainable throughout a mission involving erasing the old negative image and replacing it with the new image. Cyprus has to generate and construct a modern image of Cyprus's competitive environment to wipe out the previous figure and restore it with the new vision underlining the cultural aspect. This mission encompasses establishing awareness among international market. Key success factors for the image campaign are ownership; availability of information; acquiring a set of values; a comprehensive efficient communication campaign

Mission

In order to facilitate the specific vision, it is vital to follow a suitable and transparent Mission. The Mission is the vital (brand) plan for establishing value, and a brand's basic description of how you will reach the proposed vision. This dedicates organization to the method of running. In this respect, in order to response to chapter's perspective and being capable of outlining the mission of a Nation's Branding Strategy, it might be necessary to clarify the country's core values and personality.

Core Values and Personality

The geography, culture, politics and daily life of Cyprus have become deeply characterized by the 'Cyprus Problem'. As such, the island has a unique psyche. People tend to be very loyal to their ethnic communities. Nevertheless, Cypriots share strong values of hospitality and personal honor. The increasing globalization of the island has seen the people become more urban, internationally focused, cosmopolitan and outward-looking. In this response the major values that could act as a facilitator of a unique brand for Cyprus are the following:

- Long Lasting Cultural Heritage

- Mediterranean Climate
- Partition
- Sovereignty
- Honour
- Honesty
- Integrity
- Hospitality

Brand Promise

Brand Promise involve translating the proposed vision and the proposed mission into brand /consumer value, by reflecting the aforementioned core values and country personality. The value delivered to brand's consumers defines country's brand promise. Otherwise known as a "value proposition," the brand promise summarizes how to create benefit for the consumers of the brand. It's the principle of wherefore they must prefer. In the context of the specific chapter, a sufficient and effective Brand promise, should reflect the aforementioned, values and the country's personality elements (Cultural, Heritage, Mediterranean Climate, Honesty Hospitality, etc.)

Brand Stories and Messaging

In order to facilitate the brand promise Brand Promise and to transform the proposed vision and the proposed mission into brand /consumer value, by indicating the aforesaid core values and country personality. The basic storyline incorporated in a message map and brand design. Brand Pillars: Brand Pillars are major themes from your brand DNA, in the case of Cyprus, a probable brand story should incorporate the above stated core values Heritage in a creative, representative and attractive manner. These themes assist to structure a unique and representative brand story by focusing on your market-facing beliefs and values.

4.2 Why Strategic Expansion Demands to be Identity Focused

Accordingly, there is a explanation why the strategies are at the foundation of this brand triangle, of this organizational expansion ladder. It is actually relatively straightforward. This triangle characterizes the distinctive DNA of the entity, and shapes the foundation for any transformation, improvement or relocation attempts. If a nation for instance builds its approach preceding to its identity, how can the strategy really create growth? It would not be customized for the brand it is intended to lead, and growth possibility is not amplified. Wit is considered that strategies would be based on a distinctive identity.

4.3. Positioning of National Branding

The notion of positioning is a vital matter in brand management and strategy. The research on the particular issue is ample. A decent awareness of what positioning involves is a key prerequisite for anybody engaged in nation- brand growth. This is mainly so when it happens to trade with promotion organizations or branding consultancies, whose effort stands mainly on creating efficient positioning proposals and later constructing suitable creative implementations to accomplish effective execution of the required positioning. Positioning identifies where your product (item or service) stands in relation to others offering similar products and services in the marketplace as well as the mind of the consumer. A respectable positioning generates a product exceptional and enforces the consumers think employing it as a distinctive benefit to them.

A proper position delivers the product with a USP (Unique selling proposition). In a market cluttered with many products and brands presenting comparable advantages, an excellent positioning creates a brand or product stand out from the rest, presents it the capacity to charge a higher price and stave off competition from the others. A good position in the market also allows a product and its company to ride out bad times more easily. A decent position is additionally one which permits elasticity to the brand or product in expansions, alterations, dissemination and promotion.

To recognize suitable positions that an entity or brand could dominate in a certain market, analysts often turn to techniques such as perceptual mapping or correspondence analysis. Perceptual maps are a diagrammatic representation of consumers' mental perceptions of the relative place various brands occupy within a category. Traditionally perceptual mapping selects two variables that are relevant to consumers (often, but not necessarily, price and quality) and then asks a sample of the market to explain where they would place various brands in terms of the two variables. Results are averaged across all respondents, and results are plotted on a graph to indicate how the average member of the population views the brand that make up a category and how each of the brands relates to other brands within the same category. While perceptual maps with two dimensions are common, multi-dimensional maps are also used. A key advantage of perceptual mapping is that it can identify gaps in the market which the firm may choose to 'own.'

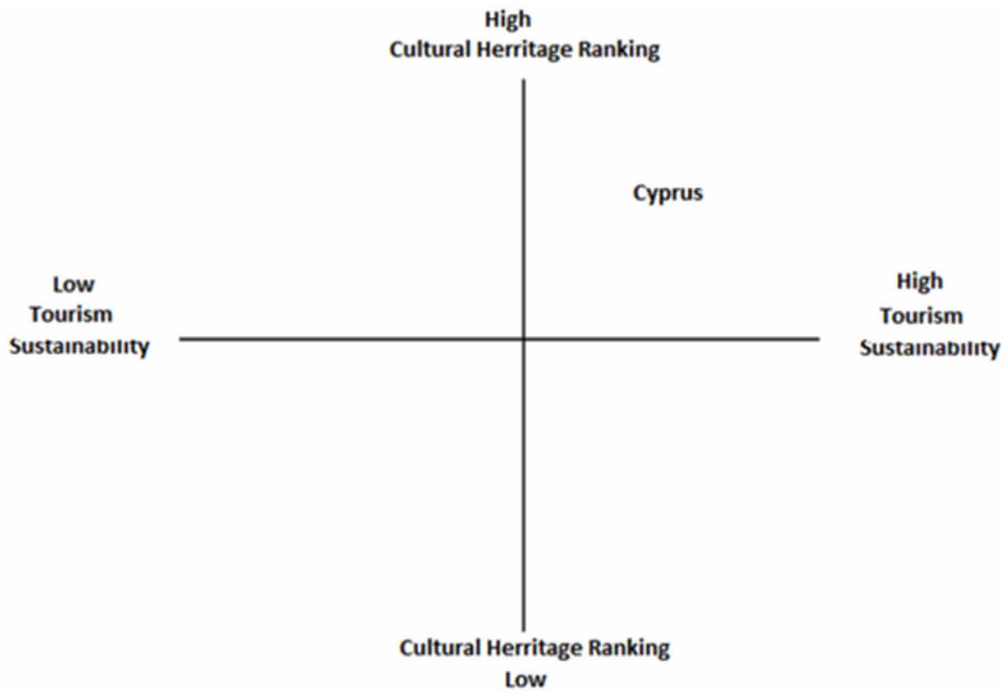
Obtaining an obvious, distinguished positioning provides a country a benefit in appealing investment, business and tourism, and in developing markets for its trade.. Nation such Greece, Spain, etc, are effectively repositioning themselves utilizing synchronized marketing and exceedingly visible events as the Olympics.

Accordingly, in the context of Cultural national branding as it is examined by the perspective of the current chapter, the perceptual mapping and the positioning could illustrates the positions of National Brands, in regard to relevant positioning dimensions, in a manner that enables the positioning of Cyprus national brand in a comprehensive, thorough and representative way. In this respect the two dimensions of the probable perceptual map that might suit to Cyprus Nation's brand, might be the cultural heritage ranking of the country and the Sustainability of its tourist industry and the desirable positioning of Cyprus as a National Brand should be situated somewhere on the upper right quarter of the perceptual map (see figure 5).

5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTED METHODOLOGY

The current section refers to the research methods of the project and establishes some researchable objectives that reflect the basic scope of the thesis. In this respect, it uses the researchable objectives derived from the paper as a basis for the research design of the project. Zikmund WG, 1997) Defines research design as: "…a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing needed information." In order to facilitate and accomplish the aims of the paper as they have been stressed in the previous sections, it has been considered as essential to deploy some methodology and certain research tools, which could create some evidence for the essence of Branding as a strategic as-

Figure 5.
Source: Adapted from www.marketingstudyguide.com



set for the forthcoming organisation. In a similar manner the application of methodology will assist to the evaluation of the existing strategic asset, for example the value of "Cyprus national branding", as a component of the suggested brand.

5.1 Research Tools

The research methodology might involve both primary and secondary data. Primary data might involve the utilization of qualitative and quantitative methods. Secondary data might be collected by studying the current literature in regard to branding as debated academic journals, info records, specialized journals, government publications and websites. Data collected from secondary sources could be treated as investigative and descriptive.

However, before proceeding to the selection of the appropriate research methods, it might be necessary to clarify the type of research conducted. Accordingly, there are four different perspectives (purpose, process, logic and outcome) under which one could classify the type of a given research (Hussey J and Hussey R, 1997) Firstly, specific research could be classified according to its purpose. Furthermore, research could be classified as 'exploratory', 'descriptive', 'analytical' or 'predictive'. Secondly, specific research could be classified according to its process. Research could be classified either as 'quantitative' or 'qualitative'. Nevertheless, in order to implement the scope of the specific section, within this particular section we will try to clarify the type of research (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). (Zikmund WG, 1997; Saunders ed all, 1997)

In a similar to manner Mendez ed all,(2017) in order to discover the positioning of Canada and the United States in China, a two-stage approach was used: First, a multi- country qualitative exploratory study was carried out, in order to generate a list of nation brand personality traits, so as to avoid or reduce the culture-bound problems that might emerge if the traits list is developed in a single country. This was then followed by the main study, in which the traits generated in the previous study were applied to samples of users through surveys.

Consequently, if we consider the proposed objectives, we may conclude that the objectives of the proposed research might need to be approached with a mixture of ‘descriptive’, ‘analytical’ and ‘predictive’ research. Predictive research goes further than explanatory research. The latter establishes an explanation for what is happening in a particular situation, whereas the former forecasts the likelihood of a similar situation occurring elsewhere (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Therefore, the nature of the project, suggests the deployment of some qualitative research, which could lead to some outcomes concerning the appreciation and the perceptions of people that are related and are interested in the potential outcome and the potential entity of the suggested organisation. Focus Groups. Given that the scope of the proposed project suggests the use of qualitative research, we could consider the use of Focus Group. “…focus groups provide insight into how people think and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomena being studied…” (Gill J, Johnson P (1997, pp 51-67.)The specific method suits to the scope of the project since it supports the gaining of more thorough and comprehensive qualitative data. Focus groups involve group interaction between members of the target population during focus groups may encourage participants to make connections to various concepts through the discussions that may not occur during individual interviews.

5.2 Research Measures

After formulating the researchable objectives of the project, it might be necessary to clarify the constructs of the major research variables (Zikmund WG, 1997). In this sense the current section makes detailed reference to the researchable measures of the project. Accordingly, in order to accurately assess the two tested objectives, it was necessary to make a careful selection of the researchable measures (variables). In other words, as it is reflected by the proposed objectives, the proposed research should involve the measurement of the following major variables: ‘The existing Branding Assets, ‘The desired Projected Brand’ and ‘The Brand Essence in the spectrum of Cultural functions’, the tourism sustainability of Cyprus.

6.0 CONCLUSION

According to the given literature review, it could be argued development of branding supports a particular Nation to detect its identity, to publicize itself, to obtain attention and to distinguish. For a Nation to attain a solid brand, there are essential citizens and authority who demand this factor and to work out all those factor that will make it happen.

Accordingly, nation’s branding could be based on different perspectives: as a tourist destination, as a trade or business centre, as a cultural destination etc. It is therefore essential to distinguish the key characteristics and assets; or. What is vital to appreciate is that nations have to propose a remarkable experience and unique image and to position their brand in a coherent and thorough manner. The elements that perform an essential role in the formation of a nation's brand should distinguish what the nation has "to trade" to those outside the borders and most importantly to make it credible to its citizens.. In this respect the, the perceptual mapping and the positioning could illustrates the positions of National Brands, in regard to relevant positioning dimensions, in a manner that enables the positioning of Cyprus national brand in a comprehensive, thorough and representative way. In this respect the two dimensions of the probable perceptual map that might suit to Cyprus Nation's brand, might be the cultural heritage ranking of the country and the Sustainability of its tourist industry and the desirable positioning of Cyprus as a National Brand should be situated somewhere on the upper right quarter of the perceptual map (see figure 5).Consequently, in order to facilitate a proper branding strategy and sustain a desirable positioning or the proposed national Brand, it might necessary to deploy some research in context similar to the one that have been used for the cases of branding and positioning other countries.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Brand: A brand is the way an organization is perceived by those who experience it. Brand assists the creation of commercial value.

Brand Promise: The proposed vision and the proposed mission into brand /consumer value, by reflecting the aforementioned core values and country personality.

Brand Stories and Messaging: Facilitate the brand promise brand promise and to transform the proposed vision and the proposed mission into brand /consumer value, by indicating the aforesaid core values and country personality.

Branding: Is the process of communicating a unique selling proposition, or differential, that sets a product or service apart from the competition.

Branding Positioning: Is the theoretical spot that somebody intends to own in the target consumer's mind. In other words, are the benefits that somebody wish for them to feel of when he/she thinks of a certain brand.

Cultural Brand Management: Is a marketing act that applies methods to enhance the perceived value of a brand.

Cultural Branding: Illustrating a lifestyle that is culturally relevant to the brand audience. Content is powering the consumer understanding.

Cultural Context: The environment or situation that is relevant to the beliefs, values, and practices of the culture.

Nation's Branding: Concerned with a country's whole image on the international stage, covering political, economic, and cultural dimensions. aims to measure, build, and manage the reputation of a Nation.

Strategic Brand Triangle: Characterizes our viewpoint on how an organization could develop its strategy.

Chapter 16
The Science of Archaeology in Secondary Education as a Gateway for Cultural Approach Amongst EU Students:
The Case Study of Archeon in Alphen aan de Rijn in the Netherlands as a Role Model

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ABSTRACT

The main research question of this chapter focuses on how archaeology as a science in secondary education could work as a doorway for cultural approach between the European students. How can the archeological practices conduce to the promotion and understanding of archeological culture and heritage among students in Europe? This subject is examined in the case study of the archaeological park of Archeon in Alphen aan de Rijn in the Netherlands. Under the perspectives of community archaeology and the context of Archeon, the research presents a short analysis of its school programs and their intentions, addressing educational and cultural purposes as an example of community archaeology in order to approach the public and its cultural awareness. Hence, the main aim of this chapter is to explore the possibilities of a more collaborative archaeology in the Netherlands and to promote suggestions for future approaches.

INTRODUCTION

The majority of museums moved more and more to present accessible displays and programs aiming not only to larger but also various audiences. According to Merriman "One of the most important trends in post-war museum development has been the thinning out of encyclopedic displays and their positioning

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into some sort of interpretive framework, which has made displays more appealing to the non-specialist." (Merriman, 1993)

One of the reasons for the foundation of ICOM was the promotion on a national level. The European Union (EU) has funded a number of international projects, often with an aim of promoting Europeanism. (Skeates, 2005)

COMMUNITY ARCHAEOLOGY IN THE NETHERLANDS

In the Netherlands, the public is and has always been attracted to archaeology. Dutch archaeologists primarily answer this interest by inviting the audience to experience archaeology through a variety of options, like open days, exhibitions, books or school programs. There is, however, little inclusion and active participation of the public in the actual fieldwork and in knowledge production. There are no community archaeology projects as they exist for instance, in the United Kingdom, and the United States, in which (part of) the control in fieldwork lies in the hands of the participants and in which multiple voices are included in research planning, design, and interpretation.

Unfortunately, the engagement that the European programs offer to the visitors or students aims to passive engagement. The main purpose is to inform, educate and entertain people. Under this perspective, we talk about concepts that do not offer the audience the chance of inclusiveness, empowerment, multivocality, or the democratization of knowledge production.

Even though there are both practical and historical reasons for this current practice of public engagement, it is increasingly being acknowledged by members of the archaeological community that it is no longer the answer to the modern-day societal wishes and needs.

The main aim of this article thus is to explore the possibilities of a more collaborative and participatory archaeology in the Netherlands through Archeon and to set an example for other museums in the European peninsula focusing on two main premises:

1. the constructivist educational theory as applied to the study of archaeology and education and its impacts in both formal and informal settings and
2. the Pedagogical Content Knowledge approach to study the way teachers deal with indigenous heritage as a subject matter in their classes, and how the collaboration between teachers, archaeologists, and specialists in heritage and museums can contribute to enhance research in archaeology and education.

Archeon in Alphen aan de Rijn: A Role Model?

Archeon is an archaeological park in Alphen aan de Rijn, a small city in the Netherlands. The main purpose of this park is to preserve the relics of the Dutch prehistory, of the Roman period and the middle ages. The Archeon is not only a park in which someone could visit an archaeological site, but also an Archaeology house based on a reconstruction of a Gallo- Roman farmhouse.

Archaeology House

The Roman museum in Archeon, is based on a reconstruction of a Gallo-Roman farmhouse. A variety of collections is on display. On the upper lever is the Archaeology house South Holland, which exhibits the kinds of objects discovered in the ground, from all periods, distant prehistory to early modern. The significance of all the items is explained by a special presentation. For example, an entire grave from the bronze age has been constructed, accompanied by the telling of a sensational story. This holds a number of worktables, where young- especially students- visitors can learn more about archaeology by engaging themselves in the work (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

On the same level is the studio of Archeologische Werkgemeenschap Nederland (AWN)[1], Rijnstreek. During the weekend here, AWN volunteers study and interpret all kinds of material that has been found.

On the ground floor, you enter Archeon's Roman Museum (Museum Park Archeon), where the Roman period in the Netherlands is brought to life interactively. Display cases contain original ancient Roman artefacts. Using films, touch screens and hands-on replicas, a living picture is drawn of the Romans and the original inhabitants at the time. But as it has been also said, there are different periods in this area and these periods follow below.

Prehistory

8800-12 B.C Travel along, far back in time to the camp of the hunter-gatherers, the first farmers, the Bronze Age and the Iron Age.

Activities

Sailing in a real canoe, is an option; the visitors can let themselves be painted like a real hunter, bake a prehistoric bun on stick, pull a heavy boulder stone and learn how to make a fire with a real flint (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

Roman Period

12 BC- 406 AD: the visitor has the opportunity to see a Roman village, named Trajectum ad Rhenum and meet the Romans, see how they lived and how their society was organized.

Of course, during this tour the visitor can march in the Roman legion or enjoy a Roman massage in the bathhouse, make a nice fibula (Roman pin) and discover the Roman herbs (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

Middle Ages

In the year 476 A.D. the Western Roman Empire was formally dissolved. An army commander of German origin deposed the last Roman Emperor. Numerous internal problems and external incursions finally put an end to this imposing Empire. The most northwestern Empire area on the European mainland at the mouth of the Meuse and the Rhine had been lost to Rome much earlier, in 406 A.D. the Rhine border had been definitively abandoned by Rome (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

The reasons for this were the constant invasions of the Germanic tribes, who had already crossed The Rhine border from the north from about 270 A.D. Even calling in Germanic mercenaries in the border defense had not helped keep the barbarians at a safe distance.

With the end of the Roman era, a period began where historical sources are hardly available. We are, therefore, largely dependent on archaeological research. Two related issues can be ascertained from the late Roman period:

Firstly, there was a sharp decline in the population in our regions, secondly, there were all kinds of migrations. The explanation for these migrations or Migrations was the power vacuum that arose after the disappearance of Roman authority. In addition, a large part of the population probably went with the Roman army, because many people had become directly or indirectly economically dependent on it. The army offered many jobs because it needed all kinds of products, such as grains, meat and hides. This was often obtained from the immediate vicinity (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

Historical sources indicate the settlement of Germanic tribes in the area declared by the Romans for this period. They settled in Northern France, Belgium and the Rhineland and are known collectively under the collective name “Franken” (‘brave’, ‘impetuous’). They founded numerous kingdoms there. In the 5th century, the Frisians expanded their power in the north to the center of our country. Groups of Angles and Saxons caused unrest when they invaded the north; these Germans were largely in transit to England (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

In addition to population movements, agricultural land depletion, epidemics and environmental degradation have been cited as explanations for the population decline. Certain areas, such as the western Netherlands, seem to have been completely depopulated in the 4th and 5th centuries. Only a handful of finds and onomastic data point to continuity of habitation (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

In Drenthe, in the area of Veluwe and especially in the northern Dutch area, a clear continuity of habitation can be observed. After their passage in late Roman times, the Franks came back from the south in the course of the 6th century.

At the beginning of this century, the early Frankish kingdoms were united in a series of wars by one of the Frankish rulers, Clovis. His Empire is called the Merovingian, after his grandfather Merovech. In 496 Clovis converts to Christianity. From then on, he and his successors used the Christian religion to legitimize their political and military actions. In addition, the Frankish rulers see themselves as the legal heirs of the former Roman authority (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

Clovis’ successors continued his expansion policy. An important development around that time was the arrival of Christianity. In the course of the 7th century, the local nobility in the southern Netherlands seems to have been converted. Because the Frankish rulers were Christian, the Dutch elite would have probably have been more open to the new faith.

The rest of the Netherlands would follow in the course of the 8th and 9th centuries. This is partly a result of Mission activities from England, from which men like Willebrord and Boniface departed to preach the gospel among the Gentile tribes. That they were not always welcomed with open arms, evident from the fate of Bonifacius, who was murdered near Dokkum in 754 A.D. With the advent of Christianity old customs disappeared. The burial fields, in which the deceased received grave goods, fell into disuse. The dead were also no longer cremated. Gradually, churches appeared with cemeteries where the dead were now interred without grave goods. After the collapse of the Western Roman Empire (AD 476), the western, Netherlands was almost depopulated. The rest of the Netherlands remained more or less inhabited and a system of serfs, feudal men and lords emerged (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

Between 630-690 A.D. this region was annexed by the Franks. They brought Christianity and founded settlements here. One of those settlements were Dorestad (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

In the Middle Ages, the rivers played a major role in trade; they were the arteries. In the 7th century, for example, the remains of a Roman fort were found at the junction of the Rhine and Lek. Dorestad was founded (Wik, bil Duurstede). Between 750-900 A.D. Dorestad. was an important transshipment and trading place. Repeated raids by the Vikings and silting up the river caused Dorestad to fall into disrepair (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

During the Mid- Middle Ages, around the year 1000 A.D, about 200,000 people lived in the Netherlands. The first inhabitants of the marshy Dutch peat area around 1100 A.D. made the area suitable for habitation and agriculture, by damming brooks and creating a system of ditches and dikes.

From 1000 to 1300 A.D. the population of the Netherlands grew from 200,000 to 600,000. Due to the settlement of the peat areas due to dewatering, agriculture on these lands was no longer possible after a century and they switched to livestock farming. Fewer workers were needed for cattle breeding. The people who were out of work in the countryside moved to the settlements, which grew into villages and towns: Heerestrate, in which there are houses from the 14th century (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

The houses were made partly of wood and partly of brick. The more stone used, the more expensive the house. (very rich) The floor fireplace could become a wall fireplace by using brick. Because the smoke could now pass through a chimney, ceilings could now be installed over the entire floor surface. These attics were mainly used as storage space, and life still took place in one room. The stained glass in the window openings was also new. Five of the houses you see in Heerestrate are variations of a house that can still be seen in Edam (1350) (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

At the end of the Middle Ages, the floors were also used for habitation. The wooden houses with the thatched roofs lurked the risk of fire. Entire cities were repeatedly reduced to ashes when a fire started somewhere in the city. In 1324, for example, almost the entire city of Zwolle burned down: only nine houses were spared, Haarlem was even largely destroyed by fire three times in the first half of the fourteenth century. That is why several city authorities decided to grant subsidies to people who built a house of brick or replaced wooden walls or thatched roofs with stone. An example of this is the stone house from Utrecht (1350) (Museum Park Archeon, 2015).

In the medieval town of Gravendam (that was the name of Alphen aan de Rijn during the period 406 - 1500 AD) you live in the 14th century. Hard work is being done in the craft houses. You can create your own candles or learn archery or you can follow courses in order to learn how to fight with a sword in order to have fighting skills and make a bracelet from felt. Taking into consideration the activities and the different programs (Fig. 4) that the visitors can follow in this park we will examine the role of a museum in collaboration with education and especially with the schools.

THE ROLE OF THE MUSEUM

The Museum as an Educational Institution

The relationship between school and museum includes the knowledge of the history, of the past, of the cultural evolution of people, elements necessary for the preservation of the historical memory but also for the development of the historical consciousness (Kalouri-Antonopoulou & Kassaris, 1988.)

The educational use of museums and the wider cultural environment by schools is an issue that concerns most international societies. In many parts of the western world, the corresponding practice, especially in the last three decades, has resulted in the construction of substantial experience which has created suitable ground for further searches and prospects. Modern pedagogical perceptions argue that man is determined on the one hand by his relationships with other people and on the other by his relationships with his environment- natural, social, historical, cultural and that knowledge is not provided but structured. It becomes clear that modern pedagogical perceptions support the experiential dimensions of museum-pedagogical learning, which aim to provide everyone with the opportunity to read and creatively interpret material culture, with the wider social, cultural and natural environment (Nakos, 2001).

Because it is impossible or very difficult to gain the interest of the general public for the museum overnight, museums have turned in recent decades — and especially nowadays, to schools and students, with the design and implementation of an educational organisation. Greece, for example, this effort finds expression in the 70's mainly through the efforts of private museums (Benaki Museum. Goulandris Museum etc.) with the organization and implementation of educational programs.

If the student is led to the museum through school, aiming not at an occasional educational activity, but at providing motivation for a continuous and creative engagement, then he will embark on the museum as a place of interpretation and will experience joy and spiritual cultivation, ensuring comfort to return to this time (Nakou, 2001).

Students led to the museum through a well-organized action will come in contact with time and objects, with images, representations and emotions that will represent social and historical development. For a school unit that attends such a year, the experience is really useful. In fact, its results are seen in the long run and work multiple ways (Chrysoulaki, 1997). Museums offer experiences based on contact with real objects that have the potential to arouse students' interest, as they stimulate their natural curiosity and exploratory mood, while also providing the possibility of education (Kontogianni, 1996).

The child's contact with the museum, educational programs and creative workshops offers a variety of knowledge and at the same time creates opportunities for the development of social behavior. The conditions for a pleasant and creative education are ensured (Kontogianni, 1996). Museum-school cooperation today is more than ever necessary given the change of textbooks for compulsory education and with a recorded orientation of education in the provision of spin, but also the cultivation of skills and the formation of values and attitudes (Maistrellis et al., 2006).

The benefits that will result from this collaboration concern both the museum and the school. More specifically for the museum, the collaboration means creating a stable and active public and this in turn will increase the resources for sustainability and development of the organization. The benefits that will arise for the school are the provision of incentives for active learning, the aesthetic education and cultivation through the placement of authentic objects, the familiarization and appropriation of the museum space as well as the opening of the school and its communication with the world (Hein & College, 1995).

In conclusion, we would say that the museum, as a provider of non-formal education, assists the school curriculum and contributes to the acquisition of knowledge experientially. objects and the viewer on the other. In addition, it develops cultural awareness. Important in this direction are the museum educators, who support the work of educators who undertake to organize visits and design educational programs with the aim of always opening museums to the public so as not to fall into a quantitative increase of the public that simply 'consumes' culture (Memiman, 1994).

According to the scientific view that prevails today, the museum is an institution in the service of society, which has the task of collecting, preserving and presenting the creations of man or nature to the public for the purpose of knowing, saving and utilization of cultural tradition, as well as the strengthening of education and culture in general (“Article 2”, 2017). The above definition summarizes the basic functions of museums and emphasizes their long-term and stable character. The museum is directly connected to the social reality in which it operates, the development of which it serves. It is not a private affair, even when it is a private institution, because it is directly connected to the wider social, political and cultural reality, which determines the forms, the terms and the purposes of its operation.

A key mission of the museum is the collection, preservation, storage, research and exhibition of human testimony. The need of man for the collection and preservation of objects is witnessed all over the world, as in ancient Greece, where the great sanctuaries from ancient times were a precursor form of the museum and other outdoor places of worship. During the Middle Ages, the Renaissance and especially in the 16th and 17th centuries, the museum is defined as a place of preservation and promotion of a private princely collection. In the next two years, museums appear open to the public (Oikonomou, 2003).

In modern museums, although their core is collections, the center of gravity shifts to man himself. The museum no longer functions as a mere custodian of the collections, but is a more complex institution with a scientific, educational, social, recreational and developmental role. It offers a huge field of experience and is a place where all generations meet, where man opens a dialogue with man through material and intangible objects. It is the place where sensitivity is cultivated, the imagination is stimulated and the visitor’s cognitive world is expanded. It offers a wider education and culture without marginalizing entertainment. Furthermore, the modern museum, focusing on the needs of man and the demands of his society, aims to serve the public interest, provide equal opportunities to everyone and ensure social prosperity and development.

The concepts of individual freedom and equality vis-a-vis exhibits are key prerequisites for the proper functioning of a museum. The modern museum is aimed at visitors who differ in terms of age, profession, interests, individual characteristics and benefits from securing access to and artistic goods regardless of race, law, education, geography or other criteria, claiming the democratization of the arts (Kakourou-Chroni, 2006).

In addition, the museum can undoubtedly contribute to ensuring social well-being and strengthening the national consciousness of people. Already, from the 19th century, the patriotic and national tendencies that prevailed, resulted in the museum opening its gates to the wide public. The need to preserve the national tradition of each person was prominent and thus museums became the instruments that facilitated a people to identify with the nation. They aimed to present the national tradition, and were, therefore, foolish to the whole world without restrictions (Kakourou-Chroni, 2006).

An additional mission of contemporary cultural organizations, and consequently museums, is the artistic mission, on the basis of which museums benefit from strengthening and protecting artistic creation from market pressures by ensuring the artist’s freedom of expression. According to Kakourou, the artist is recognized as a free being with a very important role in the modern democratized society. This implies the promotion of artistic education and the granting of creative talents (e.g. scholarships, awards, project assignments, etc.) but even more the protection of the artist from economic downturns or the intervention of the respective financiers, so that he can he consistently express his vision and seek new, experimental forms of expression without being bound by censorship or the need for wider acceptance and commercial success (Kakourou-Chroni, 2006).

Contemporary museums, therefore, welcome the pluralism of contributing to the promotion of innovative new ideas, which they do not hesitate to adopt and provide opportunities for creation, and young, non-established artists. However, they must take care of securing the necessary resources for their proper functioning.

Museums in our time function as places of meeting, dialogue, reaction and reflection of different continental and cultural worlds, hence their physiognomy is based on their exhibition logic and the communication policy they pursue. They are thus divided into three categories: traditional museums, which focus on objects, act as guardians of our national heritage and producers of our national past, our national cohesion and strength, and modern museums, which focus both on the different periods and in the power (object and people connected) and present the objects in position with their conical frame. The complex relationships of objects and subjects, rare and present, are not intended to formulate alternative inconsistencies with empathy (Pikopoulou- Tsolaki, 2002).

In Greece, although many museums retain their traditional character and many cultural sites are abandoned, significant modernization efforts are being made, mainly with the development of innovative museum-pedagogical science.

Museums as an Important Factor of Cultural Knowledge

The museum through its modern perception, which prevails more and more in our time, has experienced characteristics such as anthropocentric or focused on visitors through which the changes that characterize it in its nature and organization can be seen (Falk and Dierking, 1995). This is the museum that places the visitor at the center of its activities, trying to be a recognized place for education and entertainment (Μούλιου, 2005).

The educational offer of the museum will be presented below: the modern museum is an organization with a strengthened social role as it is a place where social interaction can be developed between its visitors both during the visit of an exhibition and through participation in organized educational activities (Falk and Dierking, 1995). According to John Dewey, one of the main functions of educational organizations is the ability to enable people to escape from the social group to which they belong and to communicate with the wider social whole, a possibility which is particularly evident in the museum (Falk and Dierking, 1995).

The social dimension of the museum is obvious and through the opportunity it promotes social change with the ultimate goal of building more democratic and progressive societies. This is why the constructivist model of meaning creation is embraced, asking multiple questions instead of 'correct, closed-ended answers. The museum is repositioned against the hitherto generally accepted truths, it risks not seeking the painless first political subject and exhibit, it recognizes the importance of multiple interpretations of objects and ideas and therefore seeks them (Μούλιου, 2005). Hence, visitors formulate their personal interpretations and objects offer alternative approaches through which change can be promoted (Excellence and Equity, 1992). More and more museums are organizing idea-central exhibitions that allow the development of endoscopic reasoning. The issues that concern them promote epistemological, metaphysical and social problems, thus enhancing the development of critical thinking. Visitors have the opportunity to interact with objects and approach them critically (Μούλιου, 2005).

Museums can also meet the challenge of truly understanding the world. As spaces for the preservation and interpretation of tangible and intangible heritage, they express a variety of ideas about the world that may change over time. Through their symbolism and the educational possibilities, they are a rich source of knowledge. Museums through the variety of subjects can approach the world holistically in order to truly understand it (Falk and Dierking, 1995). The objects they exhibit are samples of human experience and the natural world which can be understood by its visitors as they observe them through their passage of time. Through contact and acquaintance with history, individuals can better understand themselves and the world while at the same time reaping significant benefits for the future.

Modern societies are characterized by multiculturalism in which there is a need to know and learn about cultural differences. Museums offer important opportunities for multicultural learning as through the themes of their exhibitions they often present cultural elements of other peoples in such a way that they are understood and respected by all (Belanger, 2016). Museums also often include objects that represent the national minorities of their region, constituting in this way a place of promotion and acceptance of diversity (Chadwick 1980). Particularly important in this area was the exhibition entitled ‘The Settlement of London’ organized by the Museum of London (1993-1994) which focused on the timeless phenomenon of migration, for to ‘exorcise’ phenomena of racism and xenophobia in a city where multiculturalism is not only a given, but also beneficial. Also, the Benaki Museum, in the context of the Cultural Olympiad, hosted the exhibition ‘Our Place: Indigenous Australia Today’ in 2004, which presented the culture of the Australian Indigenous people and the influences it received during two centuries of European colonization (Μούλιου, 2005). According to ICOM (2002) museums, in addition to being agents of social change and scientific development, also contribute significantly to the dissemination of the idea of lifelong learning (Cristinada Milano, 1989).

The very objects of the exhibitions, the way they are displayed and the educational activities that are organized arouse the curiosity of visitors, creating new questions that will motivate them in further educational processes. At the same time, the active participation of visitors in educational activities cultivates a sense of confidence and familiarity in learning environments, contributing to the dissemination of lifelong learning (Falk and Dierking, 1995).

Museums generally encourage learning to people of all ages and social strata and all levels of ability, perception and interest (Excellence and Equity, 1992). Museums of course have been existed since the 19th century, with the first national museums and will be places where the cultural characteristics of a people, its values and tradition are displayed. Through the contact with the cultural heritage the individual acquires a better sense of identity, community and culture and that he belongs somewhere. The museum contributes to Aesthetic Education. Bringing visitors in contact with art helps to cultivate their imagination and aesthetic criteria. The museum due to its informal and non-formal educational character has the unique privilege of respecting the rhythms of individuals, their preferences and curiosity, constituting an enjoyable learning space even for students or teachers who are unfamiliar with educational activities.

The Importance and the Aims of School Programs

Museums are therefore a pleasant environment in which the student receives multiple stimuli for the development of informal learning processes. At the same time, however, the museum can be a source of teaching for students, a space in which organized educational activities or programs with non-formal character, which are related to a specific topic, set learning goals and develop tactics of effective approach to their audience. More specifically the museum can be a place of education for minors covering a wide range of fields.

For subjects such as geology and archaeology there are many museums which with their collections offer a wide variety of specimens, fossils that show the evolution of plants and animals and human tools at different stages of know-how. Such collections offer a much more vivid picture than a written text and can be the subject of educational programs. The museum in general is one of the most effective sources for teaching evolution both in the natural environment and in the field of technology and science. One such example of well-known museums is the Oxford History of Science Museum. Additionally, the possibilities offered by a museum for the development of educational programs related to history are many, as is the case in Archeon, whose educational programs were presented in a previous chapter. The collections of many museums have the potential to be a living representation of home life and work within a specific period of time, to highlight the differences between nations, customs and traditions and the differences between social classes. In addition, the museums effectively project the evolution of the design and the aesthetic criteria that had been established in different eras (Excellence and Equity, 1992).

The history of economics can also be understood through museum objects. In particular, museums that include collections of coins, such as the museum studied in this article, can teach the evolution of coins and their value through tangible examples, while coins also provide important information about the political history of a place, as they are an indication of its economic power but also of the succession of politicians because of the inscriptions and busts that characterize them (Excellence and Equity, 1992).

In addition, the art objects of this museum can be a source of inspiration and creation through the teaching of various methods of painting, sculpture, engraving, etc. making this museum in this case a place for the development of artistic skills (Excellence and Equity, 1992, p. 39). The museum in this case can also offer important historical elements that compose the historical conditions of the time, offering a complete picture to the learner (Excellence and Equity, 1992).

Intercultural education also holds an important place in the volume of educational topics that can be approached by museums for the benefit of their minor audience. Museums are a place rich in ethnographic elements of various peoples that promote diversity and cultivate its acceptance. The ‘different’ element is no longer displayed by modern museums in order only to arouse the admiration of visitors but is placed in the sociocultural context to which it belongs, offering the possibility of its essential understanding and ultimately its acceptance (Excellence and Equity, 1992).

As it is understood, the museum covers a wide range of topics and scientific disciplines that make it an important area of education for minors as well (Sophocleous et al, 2019). Adult educators through the organization of various educational activities can take advantage of its non-formal character and make the museum a place of education for minors, expanding its educational role beyond the student public.

School Programs in Archeon

The main goal of this museum is the essential communication with its public and the preservation of its undiminished interest in the increasingly competitive cultural environment. In this direction, several efforts are made to attract visitors, to explore their needs, as well as to meet their educational, spiritual and social needs, with the exhibitions, events, educational programs and in general the education and entertainment they offer to the public interaction between the two institutions, the museum and the school (Hooper-Greenhill, 1994; Falk & Dierking, 2000).

By designing successful educational programs for school groups, the museum invests in its future audience and achieves its viability. However, the factors that characterize a program as successful are subjective, and the views of museum educators, teachers and students differ significantly from each other.

Researchers claim that the Archeon museum experience for children is more likely to lead to the expected learning outcomes faster and to visit the museum positively in their memory (Caulton, 1998). So, when children have a pleasant experience by participating in an educational program, it is very likely that they will ask to visit the museum again and participate in activities organized by the latter, as its ardent supporters.

There remains an unfortunate and self-imposed, divide in museum concepts between formal education and entertainment. Such a divide also exists between education aimed specifically for schools and education for other audiences, although the philosophy of life- long learning is at least eroding this. Most museums provide programs of events for school children, adult learners, families, and other groups of visitors. A further false divide is the current concern with "communities" and the need to address problems of "social exclusion." All of these subjects, formal education, public programs, and community initiatives overlap and are often not addressed directly through museum galleries and exhibitions.

Problems

A key feature of modern museums is the development of a conscious communication policy aimed at transmitting information and experience in a clear and enjoyable way. From the general public we have passed to the active visitor and now he is treated as an individual with his preferences, in his social and spiritual ideas.

Museums can be open educational systems for all and at the same time be a good partner of the school for children with special needs. Attention is given to fans of the museum education who see in it a dynamic body of educational nature and claim that the museum education contributes to intercultural education as it provides the opportunity to get to know and appreciate other cultures.

The problem is even greater in the case of visits to museums, where the experiences of visitors are complex and the way they interpret them is distinguished by its complexity (Hooper-Greenhill, 1995). The views expressed about museum pedagogy are based mainly on experience. According to them, the operation of the educational departments of the museums encounters significant difficulties, both in terms of staff qualifications and in terms of financial resources.

Most museums do not have a special room for preparing educational programs or even if they do they are not properly equipped (Ambrose & Paine, 1993). In some cases, the training of a museum educator is not appropriate for undertaking an educational project, which has requirements. The museum-school relationship is not direct and there are often tendencies of competition between institutions, as educational institutions.

The approach of the past through museum collections differs significantly from the academic approach attempted by the school. Museum collections help to bring the past to life through the imagination during eye contact. This contact takes the form of communication, assuming that the object is the carrier of a message and the visitor is the recipient. Observation is undoubtedly the basic condition for the development of a dialogue between the visitor and the museum exhibits.

The suggestions of museum educators for the development of educational programs are not necessarily related to educational reflection as well as to modern didactics.

It also seems that museum educators have the time when students can work on an object is unlimited, so they often suggest educational programs that require the provision of many hours. Many of the suggestions of museum educators for the adoption of principles and teaching methods are related to the teaching approaches that have been presented from time to time in pedagogical theory. The most recent ones concern the application of active teaching methods and the most serious of them is the research mood.

Freedom of choice of fields of knowledge, need to encourage students to think, to conclude, to evaluate, to meditate, to imagine and to create is supported. The approach of the exhibits by the museum educators is done in ways that rely on the emotional charge, revealing the belief that the objects speak for themselves or the expression of admiration for the works is expected (Delivorrias, 1999).

Visits to museums often face difficulties in the operation of both schools and museums. Examples include: the lack of coordination for joint planning between schools and museums, the indifference of students, the organization of unplanned visits, the lack of training of teachers and the lack of museums in funds appropriate to the respective teaching staff. Based on the above, the need for correlation of museum collections with the school curriculum is confirmed and at the same time the fact is realized that a museum object can be examined from many perspectives and for different didactic purposes.

For the fulfillment of its goals, museum pedagogy is based on the principles of modern museology and the theory of material culture on the one hand and on the findings of modern pedagogy and didactics that mainly concern the multiplicity of museum colors and objects as well as its extensions. However, despite its diverse links to museology, material culture theory, and the sciences of education and behavior, museum pedagogy is developing as a distinct discipline with research approaches aimed at making better use of the educational significance of material culture through alternative forms of communication. and learning in relation to contemporary multicultural reality. In particular, the component of the pedagogical work carried out in a museum, as well as the mission of the respective educational activity can be analyzed in three components (Potvin, 2000):

1. the training of teachers, to use and further the school time to transmit knowledge. This factor cannot be fulfilled only through the information that are given to the teacher before their visi to Archeon.
2. the acquaintance and familiarization of the students as far as possible with artistic proposals related to the way of work of the selected artists (when it comes to activities in art museums), a fact that is not accepted by all, as the prevailing view is that to be cultured to get in touch and be moved by works of art
3. the cultivation of cultural sensitivity as the main destination of the Archeon for anything that surrounds us and can be a vehicle of culture.

Pedagogical practices in museums are different from those in schools. The marginal application of this logic is seen in the rejection of writing in the implementation of an educational program in the museum and in favor of the education of the gaze of observation, not as executors. Thus, the central idea regarding the representations of the museum executives is formed around the following axes (Zafeirakou, 2000). The museum needs the school because it is the feeder of its future audience. The museum applies innovative pedagogical practices based on the pedagogy of the gaze.

Museum knowledge involves not only a cognitive but also an emotional dimension. It is a fact that Museums in the future will function as gathering places for social interaction and involvement. The challenge will be to institutionally strengthen their social role in the dimension of social development and cohesion.

At the same time, rapidly evolving advances in technology are having a profound effect on the way people access and use information. Museums, therefore, should define their role through the evolution of their policy regarding intellectual property, digitization, preservation, access to their content, etc.

In addition to this, museums can continue to enrich the education and build knowledge in society by consciously adapting their services.

Finally, cooperation is essential for the sustainability and future development of museums and can increase the capacity of institutions to meet the opportunities and challenges of the 21st century, with the ultimate aim of meeting the needs of the community. Developing appropriate and effective measurements can be a key tool in ensuring the value of museums in order to ensure future success and interpret the information that people want by creating meaning to gather and the design of a sustainable future will not only be financially but also in relation to the world they serve.

CONCLUSION

The modern museum function, as developed in the “open-air museums”, upgrades the museum from a simple custodian of values to a living organization, which, through experiential experience due to in situ presentation organically connects the incoming public with its archaeological environment excavation. This goal is often achieved through its multiple use of modern technology, but taking care not to disturb the archeological environment, which is why the relevant facilities are not located in the immediate vicinity with the ruins.

Mainly what for a museologist is in the management of one open-air museum, is the installation of its sought-after dialectical relation past to present so that through this process the final osmosis can take place between the visitor and the culturally charged space called to exploit. In the past, archeological museums in Greece based their existence in the fact that they gathered findings, which in themselves were so symbolic importance for the Greeks, so that they do not need any other interpretation and support.

Curators, therefore, being over-sufficient for the management and museology of these places did not need to be included in the process of their interpretation, which would integrate them into the wider cultural environment from which it originated and which has since evolved. The national criterion, however, is gradually receding in the light of the principles of the new Museology.

In addition, historical memory in open-air museums is active and present, since museology supports a charged space where one culture evolved into the past and evolved into a present, which exists as a physical presence around it. Now, it is not enough to use cultural heritage not only as an object of admiration for the works of our ancestors, but it must also be offered as a historical process and of course as an education that can provide answers to contemporary problems. For in situ museums, which operate on this principle, restore in the foreground principles, ideas and views that have shaped the time physiognomy of a place and a people. After all, in their interpretive approach modern museologists are greatly facilitated by the authentic Archaeological environment of the open-air museums that highlight. In open-air museums the exhibits are not alienated from history and their cultural context to be exhibited elsewhere. In this light the museological management of these spaces has additional margins interpretive interventions if, in this case, the specific procedure facilitated by the fact that as a contextual exhibition environment sets is offered the place that created them. In situ, therefore, promotion, in the place where the culture they highlight was born, is the their most suitable complementary material and, of course, the laborious museographic support is not necessary.

And this is what exactly Archeon does, as an open-air museum; trying not only to preserve, but also to promote archaeology, to make an impact on formal education not for the archaeologists’ concerns and interests but for helping teachers, deliver their educational programs and agendas (Zimmerman et al. 1994). Of course, there are parts and programs or the organization of the exhibition in Archeon that can work as a role model but a museum should collaborate with a school in order to develop or prepare effectively a class visitation or excursion.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Archeon in Alphen aan de Rijn: Is a Roman museum which is housed in a reconstruction of a Gallo-Roman farmhouse. A variety of collections is on display.

Benaki Museum: Is a private Greek museum in Athens which aims to support research onto history, archaeology and the study of material culture, architecture, photography, visual and performing arts and literature; educate and engage its audiences through permanent, temporary, and travelling exhibitions, courses, programmes, events, publications and openly available resources.

Germanic Tribes: Germanic people were a diverse group of migratory tribes with common linguistic and cultural roots who dominated much of Europe during the Iron Age.

Goulandris Museum: Is a private Greek Museums of Contemporary Art on Andros and in Athens, which offer the opportunity to a broader audience to come into contact with modern and contemporary art which was the main focus of their own interest.

Merovingian Dynasty: Was the ruling family of the Franks from the middle of the 5th century until 751. They first appear as "Kings of the Franks" in the Roman army of northern Gaul. By 509 they had united all the Franks and northern Gaulish Romans under their rule.

Middle Ages: In the history of Europe, the Middle Ages or medieval period lasted from the 5th to the late 15th century. It began with the fall of the Western Roman Empire and transitioned into the Renaissance and the Age of Discovery. The medieval period itself subdivided into the Early, High and Late Middle Age.

Museology: Is the study of museums. It explores the history of museums and their role in society, as well as the activities they engage in, including curating, preservations, public programming, and education.

ENDNOTE

1 For the name of this organisation we use the initial German name.

Chapter 17
Transforming Teacher Evaluation Into an External Goal-Setting Practice and Empowering Nation Branding:
A Conversational, Motivational School-Based Practice

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ABSTRACT

Undergoing education reform, the educational system of Cyprus seems to be seeking ways to shift teacher evaluation from a practice that stagnates teacher motivation to a practice that would raise, develop, and sustain teacher motivation towards teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness may develop through formative teacher assessment, which can motivate teachers to generate outputs, namely student learning outcomes, and contribute to the improvement of the quality of the provided education. Being inspired by a conceptualization over the content of two qualitative research studies, which, in the context of secondary education of Cyprus, investigated teacher motivation and teacher evaluation respectively, this chapter recommends a goal setting, interactive teacher-teacher school-based evaluation practice of a formative type, which, being conversational and, therefore, motivational, may lead to teacher effectiveness.

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INTRODUCTION

Being in times of undergoing education reform, the educational system of Cyprus seems to be seeking ways to shift teacher evaluation from a practice that stagnates teacher motivation to a practice that would arise, develop, and sustain teacher motivation towards teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness would, then, be reflected in teaching practices, which have the power to generate outputs, namely student learning outcomes, and improve the quality of the provided education. The decline of teacher motivation, being emergent from the existing evaluation scheme, releases implications about the weaknesses of the scheme. Yet qualitative research on secondary school teachers' motivation has found that teacher inspection for evaluation constitutes an intrinsic motivator, which suggests that the power that energises teachers to invest commitment into their job is internal, i.e. inside the teacher self (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2013; 2015). Intrinsic motivation is 'the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for a separable consequence' and 'exists within individuals' (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 54).

The research on teacher motivation had collected data from 56 research participants (six headteachers, 12 teachers and 38 students) within the context of secondary education in Cyprus. The headteachers and teachers provided data verbally by means of semi-structured interviewing, and students voiced their perspectives via discussion in focus groups. Conceptualising over the internal motivation nature of teacher evaluation, this chapter initiates a goal-setting perspective in a teacher evaluation process, which (perspective) is being examined in qualitative research on teacher evaluation, being also conducted in the context of secondary education in Cyprus (Konstantinides, 2021).

A synthesis of part of the content of the two studies, i.e. the study on teacher motivation and teacher evaluation, allows high expectations that being embedded in school-based teacher evaluation practices, goal setting can move teachers towards transforming teacher evaluation from an internal motivator to an external motivational practice. Such a transformation has the impetus to enhance teacher effectiveness and student learning, to develop schools as professional learning communities, and to achieve a culture paradigm shift that would empower nation branding. Being examined in this chapter, this transformation impetus creates a model of a goal-setting teacher evaluation practice (Diagram 3).

The aim of the chapter, therefore, is to explore how beneficial a transformation of teacher evaluation into an external goal-setting practice can be. To achieve the aim of the chapter, the objectives of the study have been set as strategic steps that signpost the structure of the chapter:

- To discuss the demotivation nature of the existing teacher evaluation system, and set the background scene at a national level.
- To create a research question that would investigate the motivational dynamics of 'goal setting'.
- To construct a hypothesis over how a goal-setting perspective can transform teacher evaluation into an external motivational practice.
- To test the goal-setting hypothesis via a qualitative research experiment.
- To extract the conclusions and recommendations of the study through a discussion that indicates the empowerment effects of a goal-setting school-based teacher evaluation practice on teacher effectiveness, and ultimately on nation branding.

BACKGROUND: THE DEMOTIVATION NATURE OF TEACHER EVALUATION

The demotivation nature of the existing teacher evaluation system may be located upon its inadequacy to actually contribute to the development and growth of teachers, which would motivate them towards effectiveness, through school-based practices. Once established in the school context, school-based practices which favour the sharing of teacher knowledge, the giving of feedback on teacher performance, and the exchange of ideas would promote teacher growth and professional learning through conversation and connection, for 'Learning depends on making connections' (Stoll and Seashore Louis, 2007, p. 68). Apart from lack of such practices, the multidimensional activity of the teachers who are distinguished from others thanks to their high professional commitment, exhibited at the school level, does not seem to be taken into serious account in terms of advancement. What mainly determines teachers' promotion is seniority, i.e. the years of teaching experience (MOEC, 2019), which was found to be a dispensation that favours the older teachers (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015).

Further, teacher evaluation is conducted on the basis of four equivalent criteria, from which only one, namely 'Teacher competence/adequacy' refers to the teaching practice, which is observed by an inspector in the year that the teacher undergoes evaluation (MOEC, 2019). The other three criteria of teacher evaluation are: Teacher professional training; Organisation, management and human relationships; and General behaviour and activity.

Teacher inspection for evaluation, being conducted by a single inspector only twice in a school year, was reported as a limit to teacher motivation (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2013; 2015). Being criticised over the number of inspectors and the frequency of inspection, the practice of evaluation was interpreted, at the stage of data analysis, as a centralised entity that may cause teachers to have doubts as to whether they are assessed fairly. Those doubts release an implication about the inspector's potential inability to judge a teacher's performance appropriately within only two teaching observations, and without exchanging his/her deductions about a teacher's performance with another inspector. The reported doubts seem to partly substantiate Learmonth's (2000) opinion that inspectors need to be professionally trained about how to carry out teacher inspection effectively.

What is more, the policy of teacher evaluation was identified as a cause of teacher antagonism, for many teachers try hard to gain promotion earlier than colleagues similar to them in terms of teaching experience and professional training (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015). Nias (1989) defines such an antagonism as 'rivalry'.

In the extant teacher evaluation system, there are no evaluation criteria that include goal-setting mechanisms, which would serve as motivators to increasing teacher effectiveness and, consequently student learning. Given the opportunity of goal setting, teachers could set to achieve goals that cultivate their pedagogical skills, and uncover and develop their creativity potentials and leadership skills. That being said, teachers need to be engaged in opportunities to collectively set goals that would enhance their pedagogy, creativity and leadership skills, and that corroborate to the goals of education, rather than individual goals (Konstantinides, 2021).If teachers' goals substantiate the goals of the provided education which are general and specific, a harmonisation between individual goals and general and specific goals would occur to match the teacher's role with the teacher's personality, and be motivational.

General goals are the ones set by the Ministry of Education annually or diachronically (e.g. the improvement of learning outcomes, 'I do not forget Cyprus'). Specific goals are set by each school after a diagnosis of the school's needs, performed at the beginning of the school year. Examples of specific goals set by secondary schools are: digitalization, socialization and the fighting of school bullying.

Contemplating about the need for teachers' engagement in a goal-setting evaluation process, a research question has been shaped to investigate the motivational dynamics of goal setting: How can 'goal setting' motivate teachers towards effectiveness?

THE RESEARCH QUESTION: HOW CAN GOAL SETTING MOTIVATE TEACHERS TOWARDS EFFECTIVENESS?

The research question is explored through literature review in this part of the chapter in order to excavate the motivational power of goal setting. This specific power is uncovered via a discussion over the linear relationship between goal setting and teacher task performance, teacher goal achievement, and teacher leadership.

Goal Setting and Teacher Performance

Goal setting has the power to increase teachers' task performance especially when goals involve a high level of difficulty, i.e. they are 'high' or 'hard, because those goals energise a person to work harder so as to gain a higher sense of satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2006). Teachers' task performance relates to four characteristic practices: instructional delivery which is effective when teachers deliver teaching in an explicitly active way (Hattle, 2009); classroom management which was linked, through research, to an increase of 20% in student achievement when classroom rules and procedures were applied systematically (Hattle, 2009); formative assessment, which is developed through feedback, the vehicle towards the improvement of students' performance (Hattle, 2009); and personal competencies, such as enthusiasm, energy, love for teaching which have been defined as motivation (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015). Those competencies may develop when teachers engage in a process of goal setting that encourages the externalisation of their views, ideas and practices, and when the process develops through constructive dialogue in the school context.

Research that identified teachers' perspectives over competencies found that self-evaluation and professional development were ranked by the research subjects to be the most highly-significant (Pantic and Wubbels, 2006), which implies that those two competencies may act as teacher motivators towards better teaching performance. If this is the case, through self-evaluation, which takes the form of reflective thinking, teachers can examine, in a dialogue situation within themselves and/or with colleagues, the reasons underpinning their practices. They can investigate their actions and their actions' consequences, the ethical restrictions and reinforcements in the context of the classroom as well as the school and social settings which they experience (Zeichner and Liston, 1986). The aim behind self evaluation as a motivator would be self and teacher improvement, which would, in turn, better the teaching-learning process.

Concerning professional development, Bullard (1998) suggests that evaluations that contribute to teacher development involve evaluation from colleagues, students and headteachers, and introduces the idea of a school that has developed into a professional learning community, where one learns from the other and develops through the other. Professional learning communities place emphasis on '1) professional learning; 2) within the context of a cohesive group; 3) that focuses on collective knowledge, and 4) occurs within an ethic of interpersonal caring that permeates the life of teachers, students and school leaders' (Stoll and Seashore Louis, 2007, p. 3). Professional learning may develop through peer classroom observation, because peer observation can serve as a tool for evaluation from others/colleagues, where feedback would articulate a teacher's image through colleagues' eyes, and direct him/her to minimise wrongs and maximise rights. Atkinson (1996) suggests that peer observation is supportive to teacher professional development, which should be set as a goal to be achieved by all teachers.

Goal Setting and Teacher Achievement

Goal setting aims at goal achievement, a highly motivating factor, which according to the achievement motivation theory, can be reached through teachers' yearning to achieve success, and avoid failure (Owen, 1997). For success to be achieved, teachers need to invest effort, time and love in teaching, the work itself, which, like achievement, is identified by Herzberg (1968), in his two-factor theory, as a motivator, but also to rid themselves of feelings of failure. Feelings of failure might deter teachers from engaging in a goal setting process, for such feelings are likely to give rise to feelings of doubt about their ability to attain successful performance, and ultimately direct them to apathy (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015).

Being prominent in this chapter, the relationship between motivation and evaluation releases the expectation that achievement goal constructs (e.g. effective task performance), may energise teachers to set goals of achieving high competence, which would be evaluated in an achievement context. Teacher competence indicates teachers' effectiveness, aptitude, adequacy and accomplishment (Brooks and Shell, 2006). Therefore, the goals that teachers set are not abstract ideas, but specific strategies that embody an orientation to the task, and encompassed in the goal orientation are their 'beliefs about purposes, competence, success, ability, effort, errors, and standards (Pintrich, 2000, p. 94).

Teacher goal achievement is linked to professional growth, as achievement and growth often appear together in Herzberg's (1968) theory of motivation. Growth, being associated with the feeling of perceived progress in professional life, can lead to advancement, also a motivator, as an outcome of evaluation emergent from progress, rather than seniority, for advancement is identified as promotion. Professional growth may result from a creating new knowledge practice, a practice that should be pursued by school headteachers who promote the development of their schools as professional learning communities, and by the educational system through a policy that favours formative teacher evaluation.

School headship can create the time and place for teachers to construct knowledge together. Teachers may, through informal conversation, engage in a search of new ideas and practices, which may be entailed in their teaching in order to renew their practices by implementing changes in them, and become more effective educators. Besides formal education (e.g. postgraduate studies and seminars), knowledge is created through informal education, i.e. through the sharing of ideas and practices via dialogue, and the building of a conversational culture in the context of the school. Teachers who search for and learn from new knowledge, created together with their colleagues, and use that knowledge to make a difference to students' learning can be identified as teacher leaders, and goal setting is linked to teacher leadership.

Goal Setting and Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership and teacher goal setting both respond to learning. The teacher assumes responsibility about making decisions as to how students learn and what students have to learn. In this sense 'Teachers are leaders in learning and leaders of learning' (Day and Leithwood, 2007, p. 50). When teachers exchange ideas about practices, they develop skills of collaboration and teamwork, characteristics of teacher team leadership, which favour student learning. Working in teams, teachers contribute to the development of a democratic culture of participation, which is necessary for successful school leadership (Day and Leithwood, 2007).

Teamwork, being nurtured in schools, sets the standards of professional learning communities, where teaching-learning practices improve by means of interaction about learning, which nurtures understanding about effective practices of learning. In professional learning communities, learning comprises working together in order to gain common understanding of conceptions and practices (Stoll and Seashore Louis, 2007). Encompassed into the concept of professional learning communities are communities of practice, where 'teachers are mutually engaged in teaching, they jointly develop their practice, and they share a repertoire of resources and history' (McLaughlin and Talbert, 2001). Such practices facilitate the understanding that traditional teaching, which is premised on the idea that knowledge is transmitted by a teacher, presenting him/herself in classroom as the only source of knowledge, is by far counterfeit. Teachers can also gain consciousness about the emotional and sociological nature of learning, and understand that knowledge is communicated, rather than transmitted, by a teacher facilitator and advisor. Such understanding can effectively arise and develop in school communities where teachers work collaboratively together and improve their teaching practices through shared beliefs and knowledge, and make praxis the meaning of teacher leadership, which has the impulse to enhance teacher motivation. Ovando (1996) found that when teachers take on leadership roles, they introduce innovation in their classrooms, and positively influence students' learning outcomes. Teacher leaders are keen on turning social obstruction into inclusion through decentralised leadership practices, which create inclusive learning environments (Charalambous, Papademetriou and Masouras, 2020).

Fullan (1994), who believes that in teacher leadership the weight of leadership moves from the individual to the community, related the role of teacher leaders to the shaping of culture by stating that through 'teaching and learning, collegiality, context, continuous learning, management of change, and sense of moral purpose', teacher leaders influence school culture (Lieberman and Miller, 2005, p. 155). Being influenced by teacher leaders, school culture is reshaped, and since school stakeholders who experience school culture are also members of the society, the school culture may influence the culture of the nation, and thus restyle nation branding. Nation branding is, in this sense, the perceived worldwide image of a country, which is constructed through the natives' perspectives and actions, through their thinking and doing, which make up their culture.

The motivational power of goal setting, being uncovered through its relationship with teacher performance, teacher achievement, and teacher leadership, leads to a hypothesis. The hypothesis is predicated upon the need for teacher evaluation school-based practices that include goal setting in a way that would actively engage teachers in the externalisation of internalised goals, and in strategic planning about how to achieve them. The perspective of the recommended goal-setting teacher evaluation hypothesis is discussed below.

THE GOAL-SETTING TEACHER EVALUATION HYPOTHESIS

The goal-setting teacher evaluation hypothesis is built upon the assumption that teacher evaluation, reported as intrinsic motivation with internal character (i.e. within the teacher self), can be transformed into a practice of loud voicing of insights and practices, and become external (I.e. outside the teacher self) in the school context, and lead to teacher effectiveness and effective student learning. The hypothetical transformation is discussed here, and constructs the recommended external goal-setting teacher evaluation practice and process.

Goal Setting: External Practice

Underpinning the hypothesis is the concept that goals can be internal and external, and the two terms: internal' and 'external' are discussed here in order to clarify the mindset underpinning their usage in this chapter. Internal goals are set by an individual as thoughts and ideas through a thinking process that happens in the teacher's inner world. External goals are voiced, i.e. they are externalised, via a thinking process that happens outside the teacher self. Since a teacher's thoughts and ideas which relate to the teaching job constitute knowledge, the externalised perceptions refer to explicit knowledge. The act of making knowledge explicit is considered, in this study, to be motivational because it is conversational, and being so, it satisfies teachers' need for communication and belongingness (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015; Maslow, 1954).

The term 'internal', being influenced by the taking-control of mind principle relying behind the Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP, 2020), is used in this study to refer to thoughts, feelings and emotions as things that humans do rather than have. In this sense, internal goal setting is set in the inside world of a teacher, and it is reflected in his/her being and doing. Being shown in being and doing, teachers' performance and behaviour signal the goals they have individually set to reach in a particular lesson or within a specific school year. In this sense, internal goals corroborate to tacit knowledge.

Tacit knowledge is defined as insights, instincts and feelings, and it is 'deeply rooted in action, procedures, routines, commitment, ideals, values and emotions. It 'indwells' in a comprehensive cognisance of the human mind and body' (Nonaka, Toyama and Konno, 200, p. 7). That said, external goal setting, in this study, refers to the articulation of tacit knowledge within a teacher-teacher evaluation of practices situation. Being verbalised, tacit knowledge becomes explicit, and explicit knowledge 'can be expressed in formal and systematic language and shared in the form of data, scientific formulae, specifications, manuals' (Nonaka, Toyama and Konno, 2000, p. 7). Therefore, after a constructive discussion about practices and problems of practices or peer classroom observation, teachers can draw conclusions about effective practices, and write them down as a framework that would then be shared to all teachers in the school to be used as formal guidelines to effective teaching and learning. Those guidelines refer to teacher goals about teaching behaviours to model, and practices to enhance or avoid. The framework constitutes new knowledge that is collaboratively and collectively created through the interaction of tacit and explicit knowledge (Nonaka, Toyama and Konno, 2000).

In order to act as guidelines, teachers' goals need to be written on paper, be measurable, time-bound, and hard but attainable, rather than static. They should be revisited and reviewed, and be oriented to the expected outcomes, which are identified through the extent to which they contribute to the attainment of organisational principles (Konstantinides, 2021).

Goal-Setting: External Process

The goal-setting practice that this chapter proposes to be initiated in the secondary-school context takes the form of a collaborative teacher-teacher evaluation process which extracts meaning from explicit knowledge. It is a process in which teachers may give feedback about a colleague's teaching practices after having observed his/her lesson. It may also be a conversation process within which teachers externalise their practices and problems of their practices, and allow their colleagues to discuss them, interpret them or reflect and analyse them with a critical eye. It could further be a discussion between teachers about their educational beliefs and ideals. In any case, it is a dual communication practice which involves an exchange of multiple subjective ideas, and evaluation from and through colleagues, and which ends with a series of goals to be attained. The extracted goals make up the framework of suggestions over effective teaching-learning practices, and reach consensus with the general and specific educational goals, which take multiple forms (e.g. lessons, school activities, community work/activities).

The interactive goal-setting evaluation process nurtures the externalisation of tacit knowledge, which is thought to be motivational and effective, because it satisfies, amongst others, teachers' need for communication and collaboration with colleagues. Mutual engagement and continuing collaboration make up the most effective method for evaluating a teacher, who is guided and advised, and is actively engaged during the evaluation process, which ultimately leads to true growth and ongoing teacher improvement (Meador, 2019). The process may take the form of discussion or interaction, but also of interviewing. Meador (2019) suggests the usage of a three-part questionnaire as a vehicle towards teacher extroversion that directs to goal setting for professional improvement.

The first part of the questionnaire energises the teacher to set goals about a specific lesson, for example, with questions such as: 'What are your goals for the lesson?'; 'What do you want the student to learn?'; and 'How do you plan to engage students in the content?'. Being confronted with providing answers to questions before colleagues, teachers are likely to be strategic as regards decision making about an effective lesson structure, the expected learning outcomes, and an interactive student-centered engagement which would leave behind the traditional methods of teaching.

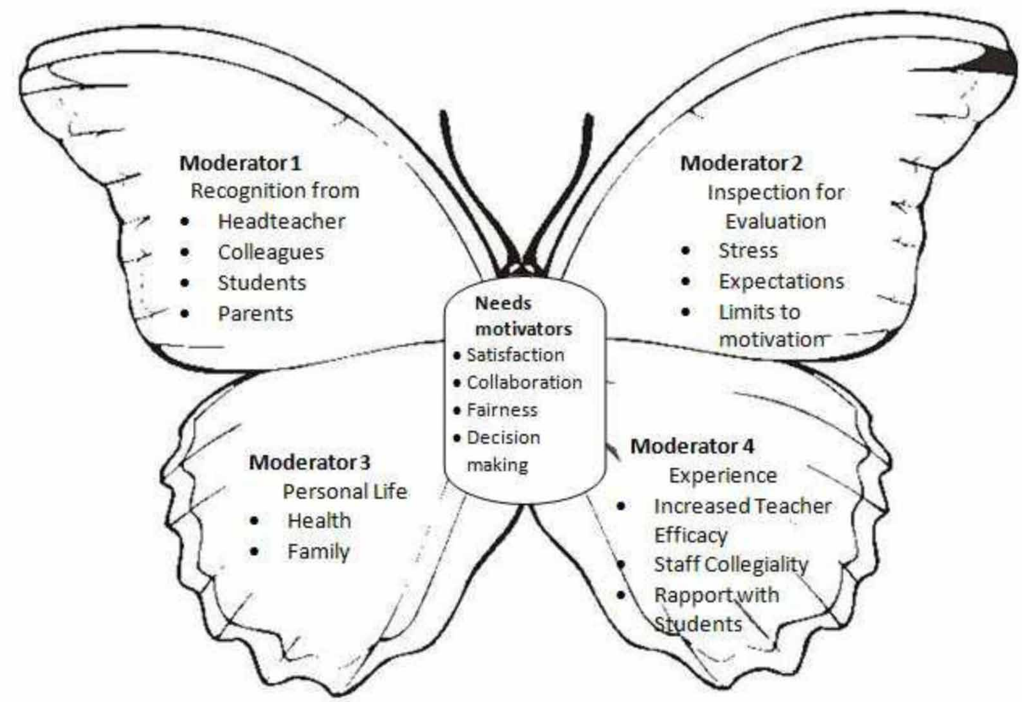
When the process takes the form of interviewing, it 'involves a cultivation of conversational skills' and 'attempts to understand the world from the subjects' points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p. 1). The questionnaire, then, can be used as a tool encouraging the externalisation of qualitative data, which may act as prior-class observation information, meaning that the teacher interviewer can guide the teacher interviewee towards (more) effective practices, and help him/her to be (more) effective in the formal class observation conducted by the inspector, but daily as well.

The second part of the questionnaire requires the teacher to reflect on practice, through questions, like 'Discuss your plan for handling student behaviour issues should they arise during the lesson'. Such questions give rise to an exchange of teachers' ideas about effective techniques to handle student misbehaviour, so that teaching flow is not lost. The third part of the questionnaire directs the teacher to professional growth, improvement and future planning, and a question towards this direction is: \What goals are you working towards for yourself and your students as you progress throughout the school year?' (Meador, 2019).

What might restrict the use of such a questionnaire in the context of secondary-school teachers' professional life is that it may be seen as extra workload on their shoulders besides daily work, e.g. lesson planning, test correction. If so, teachers might not acknowledge the benefits of the practice, such as collaboration with colleagues and interpersonal relationships, which fight teacher antagonism. To avoid misinterpretations of the specific process, its purpose has to be explicated: the motivational power of goal setting towards teacher effectiveness. What else needs to be clarified is the method of the externalisation of tacit knowledge (e.g. dialogue, discussion, interviewing). No matter what the method is, however, it needs to be a method that promotes teachers' respect to each other's views without any prejudice or mental models (Senge, 2006).

The motivational nature of a dual, interactive process between teacher colleagues relies on the teachers' opportunity to improve their practices, to develop skills of communication and collaboration, and satisfy the need for active participation in decision making. Satisfaction, collaboration, communication, and decision making were identified as secondary school teachers' needs motivators, and recognition, inspection for evaluation; personal life, and experience as those teachers' moderators (strong motivators) (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015, 2018) as indicated in the Butterfly Moderator Model (Figure 1).

Figure 1. The Butterfly moderator model (Konstantinides-Vladimirou, 2015, 2018)



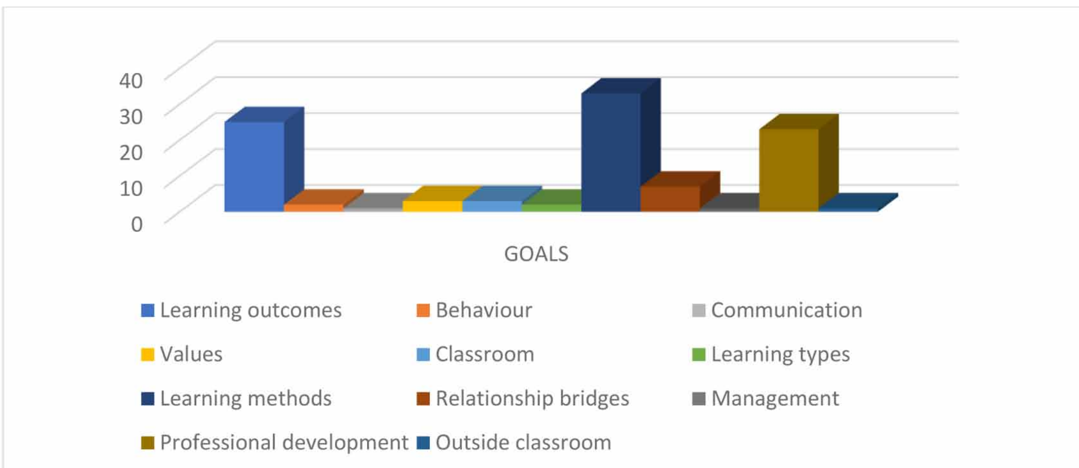
THE RESEARCH EXPERIMENT: TESTING THE GOAL-SETTING HYPOTHESIS

The goal-setting hypothesis has recently been tested via a research experiment, part of the qualitative research on teacher evaluation, conducted in the context of secondary education in Cyprus. This specific part of the research required educators to put down on paper the goals which they had set at the beginning of the school year. The purpose underpinning that requirement was to identify the areas of teachers' focus, and the ones reported more frequently were rated as indicators of factors measuring teacher effectiveness.

This part of the research used a questionnaire with open-ended questions and collected data from 35 educators (teachers and assistant headteachers) of different subject matter from different secondary schools (Gymnasiums, Lyceums and Technical Schools). The qualitative data were analysed through a content analysis which found the following indicators: learning outcomes; learning methods; learning types; values; professional development; behaviour; classroom; relationship bridges; outside classroom; communication; and leadership.

Resulting from the data analysis, the diagram below 'Educational goals: indicators of factors directing teachers towards effectiveness' (figure 2) shows the number of research participants, who revealed the goals they had set at the beginning of the school year 2019-2020, and the concepts dominating those goals which are described as factors leading to teacher effectiveness. The high-rated goals resulted from three characteristics: 1) they were discussed more extensively than others; 2) they were found to overlap with other goals; 3) they were reported as impacting on other goals. The reported goals are grouped with regard to the connections that the research participants have made between them.

Figure 2. Educational goals: indicators of factors directing teachers towards effectiveness



Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes, which include knowledge, skills, stances and behaviours, values and emotions, were said to be developed through the attainment of the success indicators and competence indicators set by the Ministry of Education, and of student progress. They were also said to act as means overcoming learning difficulties in mixed ability classes. These factors serve as tools energising critical thinking, sensational cultivation, active engagement, and team spirit. A teacher of Greek had set the following goal/learning outcome: 'the development of students' critical thinking in a sense that they can critically explore the connection between historical developments and cultural activities'. The goal set by another teacher is: 'student enjoyment of reading literature texts, and of identifying in them the value of literature'.

Learning Methods

All research participants related goal setting to various methods of teaching, namely scaffolding, dialectic, interpretive, and brainstorming which suggests the Socratic maieutic method, and they reported teacher effectiveness as being determined by interactive teaching methods that lead to effective learning. They also linked learning methods to intrinsic motivation, external means and to a learning climate. What research participants stressed is that the desire for learning is inside out, that is why they attempt to create enthusiasm in their classrooms, and invest energy and passion in teaching, because enthusiasm, energy and passion constitute intrinsic motivation. As external means facilitating teacher effectiveness, teachers mentioned the use of I.T. in the lesson and multimedia in order to broaden students' understanding of a topic in multiple ways. Digital technology, according to some teachers, motivates students to be active in the lesson, to enjoy the lesson, and to move away from memorisation to the development of skills of inquiry, decision-making, and problem-solving.

A learning climate was reported as a determinant of the effectiveness of learning methods, because it motivates teachers to set hard goals to achieve, e.g. heighten the level of the content of the lesson, for students, who contribute to the development of a learning climate, want to maximise their cognitive skills, and usually prefer to do hard tasks. A specific type of climate that was frequently met in the data is the collaborative climate, in which, as teacher participants said, stronger students are willing to help the weaker ones, and doing so, they learn to work as a team, to cooperate, and dialogue. Such characteristics of a learning climate enable learning for all students to happen, and student progress to drive away a teacher's stress for the coverage of the curriculum. 'Within a learning climate, teachers and students seem to be co-travellers of thousands of kilometres towards the conquest of knowledge and skills: the goal', said a teacher. Teachers are distinguished pedagogists who shift from the teacher authentia to the teacher coach and facilitator, whose teaching becomes a dual, communicative approach favouring all students' progress and holistic development (cognitive, social, sensational, emotional, moral).

Professional Development

Teacher participants focused on cognitive competence, and suggested that the teaching-learning process, which responds to a variety of teaching methods, needs to be in a state of continuing improvement, and the teacher in an ongoing enrichment of knowledge and skills, which corroborates to life-long learning. Some teachers stressed the importance of self evaluation, for it promotes self-regulation, and assessment of their own professional work, which adds to their professional development, and shapes their professional identity.

Relationship Bridges

Building bridges of relationships was ranked as highly important by the research participants who related the building of interpersonal relationships to factors, such as: a climate of trust between teachers and teachers, and teachers and students, and the development of healthy relationships between them. Both factors can be achieved in a classroom that promotes social interaction and democratic dialogue, and teaches democracy through teacher role-modelling.

Behaviour, Communication and Values

Goal setting was reported as motivation towards contemplation about effective behaviour, communication, and values, which promote equality and justice that constitute the nucleus of moral behaviour. Throughout the data, it is evident that teachers feel the need to be, above all, pedagogists, and they are conscious about effective social behaviour, which they try, as they said, to model in their classrooms and pass messages of democratic values.

Classroom and Outside Classroom

The participant educators stressed, in the goals that they commented on, the necessity for cultivation of a positive classroom climate, and effective classroom management, which facilitate effective learning. They also referred to the whole physical school environment which they named ‘outside classroom’, and to disciplined and value-based behaviour that needs to be exhibited inside and outside the walls of the classroom. Student discipline is shown during the breaks, in the physical education lesson, and, generally, everywhere at school, and it motivates teachers to organise school activities that nurture the development of students’ skills of collaboration, problem solving, and decision making

Learning Types and Leadership

Some participants talked about cooperative learning and teamwork, which they also set as goals to attain through their teaching practices, since such goals teach students to be democratic and emotionally intelligent people exhibiting skills of empathy. Both cooperative learning and teamwork were associated with school leadership, which has to be, as they stated, distributed leadership, collective and emotional. ‘A well-managed school contributes to students’ education and the shape of their personality via a routine of discipline and orderliness’ said a teacher participant.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Marrying together part of two qualitative research studies, namely a study on teacher motivation and a study on teacher evaluation, both carried out in the context of secondary education at the national level, this chapter introduces a new teacher evaluation practice. It is a teacher-teacher interactive practice which predicates that teachers make the goals that they individually and silently set to achieve explicit via discussion with or interviewing by teacher colleagues. The explicated goals, after being exposed to teacher colleagues’ critical thinking and reflective interpretation, may be changed into collective goals which can be shared to the whole school teaching staff as effective formal formulae framework to be followed.

The model practice turns teachers’ tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, and this study recommends that the policy should guide secondary-school headship to develop programmes that would establish this specific practice in the school context. Headteachers can initiate a programme of peer classroom observation or a programme of narration and interpretation of problems of teaching practice or of classroom management. The recommended practice can function as reflective informal evaluation of those teacher practices, aiming to provide advice, and suggestions about the improvement of the practices. Such a school-based evaluation practice corroborates to formative assessment, and has the impetus to lead to teacher effectiveness, to effective student learning, and ultimately to the development of schools as professional learning communities.

The reasons underpinning the desire for the development of schools as professional learning communities is that the collaborative and connective culture that they promote is motivational, so it can satisfy teacher needs, fight teacher antagonism, and reshape the school culture making it conversational and social. The reshaped school culture has the power to restructure the Cypriots' culture, bringing about a culture paradigm shift that would empower nation branding.

The culture paradigm shift that professional learning communities advance may be identified as a move from a role culture to a culture of socialisation, from a culture of rigidness to a culture of resilience, and from a culture that understands learning as being classroom-based to a culture that favours lifelong learning.

Socialisation

Schools which develop as professional learning communities leave behind role cultures which, being 'stereotyped as bureaucracy … acquire a pejorative note in common parlance', allowing organisations to rest their authority in their pillars and functions, and the interaction between them to be 'controlled by procedures of roles, e.g. job descriptions, authority definitions' (Handy, 1999, p. 185). Professional learning communities promote collegiality, which constructs a cooperative atmosphere that breeds a conversational culture of socialisation. Such a culture stimulates the development of social capital as well as social intelligence at the national level.

Social capital relates to groups and networks of people which, being built upon trust, lead to creative or productive outcomes. Social capital can take, amongst others, two forms of nature: the subjective or cognitive, and the structural. The former refers to knowledge, perspectives and support that people gain through the relationships which are built between them. The latter is about people's engagement in informal networks and in formal organisations of the community (Stoll and Seashore Louis, 2007). Both forms of social capital seem to be about the dissemination of knowledge and ideas that emerge when people exchange their views and practices, and create, in this way, bonds of trust between them.

Social intelligence develops in a socialisation culture that gives voice to people, in contrast to conservative role cultures which impose ideas upon people, and make them prisoners within their own insights, which need to be extroverted, understood, reviewed, and reconstructed. Social intelligence is being 'intelligent not just about our relationships but also in them', and suggests that when we are engaged in conversations, we need to 'look beyond the individual to understand what actually transpires', and to make a conceptual shift from self-interest to the community, the society, the interests of all others (Goleman, 2006, pp. 11-12). Thus conversing with others, people can rid themselves of self-interest, and develop and expand their cognitive and emotional world.

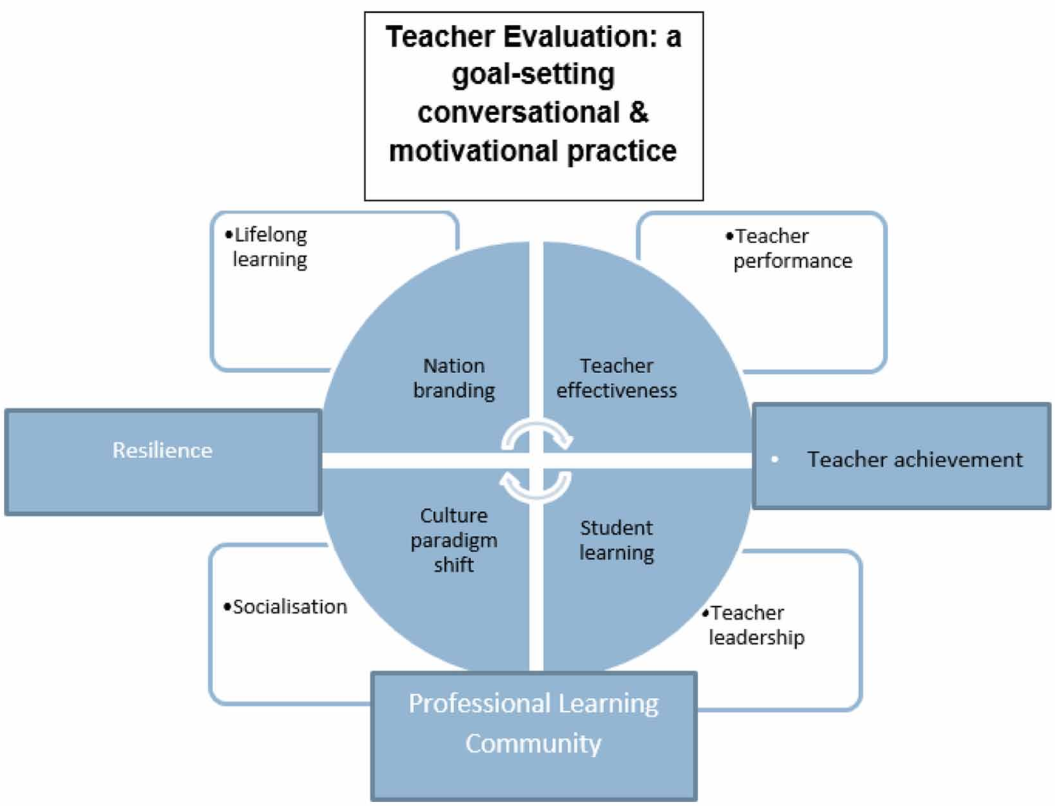
Resilience

Moving from traditional teaching-learning processes and from summative evaluation practices to (more) interactive formative ones, cultures of rigidness are replaced by cultures that cultivate resilience. A culture of rigidness is similar to a power culture that puts faith in the individual rather than the team, and it is tough and abrasive (Handy, 1999). A culture of resilience, however, nurtures collegial staff relationships, support and positive connections, and it empowers human 'ability to gather intellectual and emotional strengths in the face of setbacks and challenges' (Day and Gu, 2007, p. 175). In this sense, the interactive relationships that develop in professional learning communities may enable people to become intellectually and emotionally stronger. By sharing personal and work experiences, people can realise, amongst others, that adversities emerge in everyone's lives, so they can face them, being arisen, with determination to problem solving and decision making rather than misery, and develop or sustain their self-efficacy. In this sense, resilience is relational, and relational resilience resonates the philosophy underpinning social capital: the highly-valued importance of developing relationships.

Lifelong Learning

A culture that fosters socialisation and resilience leaves behind the traditional perception of learning as being classroom-based, and enables people to understand that learning is lifelong. Being characterised by a lifelong-learning mindset, people may develop an inclination towards talking and sharing practices and ideas. Within a talkative culture, they can deal with problems and challenges, which serve as sources

Figure 3. A model of a goal-setting teacher evaluation practice



of information that direct them to problem solving, and to strategies of managing challenges. Interestingly, Collins (2009) relates lifelong learning to goal setting stating that goal setting is a process during which learners gain understanding of their goals, and he believes that unless learning goals are made clear to students, they do not develop a sense of ownership with them, and may fail to set life goals to achieve. Lifelong learning is not dissimilar in meaning to professional development and continuing education. This idea is reflected in a prediction by Malcolm Shepherd Knowles, the father of adult learning. Knowles predicted that lifelong learning would be the key to systematise education, and his prediction has come true, for lifelong learning is now embedded in dialogue and discussion which are instructive and enlightening (Laa, Laa and Aliramaei, 2013).

The conclusions and recommendations of the chapter contribute to the creation of a model of a goal-setting conversational and motivational teacher-evaluation practice which, being established as a school-based practice, can turn the benefits of goal setting from theory to praxis (figure 3). Teacher goal setting that is constructed through colleague interaction has the motivational impulse to improve teacher task performance, and direct to teacher goal achievement and teacher leadership. Being built upon conversation, communication, and collaboration, goal setting contributes to the development of schools as professional learning communities which enable teachers to achieve effectiveness, and students to learn effectively. Professional learning communities, then, contribute to a culture paradigm shift that fosters socialisation which breeds social capital and social intelligence, resilience which strengthens people in times of adversity, and lifelong learning which equals professional growth. A culture of socialisation, resilience and lifelong learning has the potential to succeed in empowering the Cypriot nation's branding.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Culture: The being and doing translated into the subjective perspectives and behavioural stances of life of natives.

Goal Setting: A motivational practice targeting educational goals that increase teacher performance and student learning outcomes.

Nation Branding: The fame of a nation that formulates global perspectives of a country.

Professional Learning Community: A school context where dual learning and shared knowledge, experience and practice contributes to everyone's learning and growth.

Teacher Effectiveness: Teachers' skillful ability to produce learning outcomes, and contribute to the improvement of quality education.

Teacher Evaluation: A centralised practice of assessing teacher performance that can also be a collegial method of gaining colleague feedback after reflection on teacher practice.

Teacher Motivation: An upsurge of enthusiasm and energy invested in the teaching job.

Chapter 18
Public Administration Performance and Nation Branding:
Towards a New Image of Greece, Beyond the Legacy of Red Tape

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ABSTRACT

The scope of the chapter is to analyze the relationship between the performance and the competitiveness of the public sector in Greece and the image of the country abroad, focusing on the critical importance for the Greek economy sector of investments attraction. Through the comparative evaluation of bureaucracy's and administrative burdens' impact on national entrepreneurship's competitiveness and the analysis of the administrative barriers and obstacles facing the investments' attraction, the performance of the existing investment policy in Greece is analyzed. Based on the evaluation of the administrative obstacles and pitfalls on national entrepreneurship and according to international experience's recent development on administrative simplification, a comprehensive and specialized action plan for the reform of the national investment policy and the emergence of a new international brand name for Greece were realized.

PUBLIC SECTOR PERFORMANCE AND RED TAPE IN GREECE: THE NATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP UNDER SIEGE

The performance of public administration greatly affects the quality of life of citizens and the competitiveness of the national economy (Bouckaert – Politt 2019, Bouckaert eds 2021, Halligan 2018, OECD 2011, 2019, Pandey 2002, 2015, 2020). Focusing on the economy, the efficiency and effectiveness of public administration significantly affects the performance and competitiveness of businesses as well as the attraction of investment, through the causal relationship between bureaucracy and competitive-

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ness (OECD 2004, 2019, EU 2014, Bozeman 2000, 2014, Holzer eds 2021, Vigoda 2017, Bouckaert eds 2021, Goderis eds 2015, Ongaro 2017). Bureaucracy and the appearance of administrative burdens in the licensing and the operation of the enterprises, consist as one of the most important barriers to business competitiveness and the promotion of economic development of a country, while it is often the biggest disincentive to investment attraction and the promotion of research and innovation in the national economy (WEF 2020, Bouckaert – Pollitt 2019, OECD 2019, 2020, EU 2019, Radaelli 2013). These important and decisive effects of bureaucracy on entrepreneurship performance have as a result international organizations such as the European Union, the OECD and the World Bank to promote in their member states the implementation for red tape reduction in entrepreneurship, while in many of the international experience's best practices of the last twenty years in promoting competitiveness and innovation in entrepreneurship, as in the cases of Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, Austria, Singapore, Canada and Australia, the promotion of national competitiveness was based on the elimination of public services red tape in business and to the provision of efficient and effective public services that support the internationalization and innovation of the national entrepreneurship (Bouckaert – Pollitt 2018, Bouckert eds 2014, 2018, 2021, Radaelli 2014, Moyihan 2012, 2018, EU 2010, 2019, OECD 2019, 2021, Pandey 2020). At the same time, the simplification, the speed, and friendliness of licensing an investment and the operation of a business is, according to most international surveys, the most important factor in attracting investment in a country and developing a culture and strategy of innovation among the national companies (EU 2014. 2019, 2021, OECD 2004, 2011, 2019, World Bank 2020, WEF 2020, SEV 2011).

Reducing administrative burdens in businesses, is one of the most important axes of reform in contemporary public administration, that its achievement requires the adoption of a series of reforms in the legislative framework of public sector organization and performance, through the codification and the recasting of the legal framework, the rationalization, decentralization and simplification of the licensing and control responsibilities of the enterprises, the promotion of the organizational autonomy of the public agencies, the provision of simplified and innovative services to enterprises and finally the utilization of digital governance tools in enterprises licensing, audit and support (EU 2014, 2019, OECD 2011, 2020, Radaelli 2014, Bouckaert – Politt 2019, Christensen 2013, Ongaro 2017, Pandey 2019, Moynihan 2018, Holzer 2018, 2021, Bozeman 2000, 2011). In this context, the purpose of the chapter is to analyze the impact of bureaucracy's red tape on entrepreneurship in Greece, focusing on the complexed and particularly important for the national economy sector of investments attraction and how the performance and the image of the Greek public sector abroad affects policy's performance (OECD 2012,2014, 2020). The effects of bureaucracy on enterprises competitiveness and investments attraction in Greece, that according to the country's international ranking in the relevant benchmarks, are particularly negative, sharply increasing the cost of investment and the operational cost of the enterprises, being a disincentive to attract investment, as well as for the competitiveness and innovation of the national enterprises (Pisaridis eds 2020, World Bank 2018, 2020, EU 2019, 2021, OECD 2014, 2020, Karkatsoulis 2014, 2018, SEV 2011, 2020, Pelagidis – Mitsopoulos 2011).

These problems in the provision of public services in Greece are due to the maintenance and frequent exacerbation of several negative factors in the organization and performance of the public sector. Factors that act restrictively both in terms of the performance of public services and the development of the market and the entrepreneurship. The provision of the public services and the consequent regulation of the market are characterized and trapped by the presence of the vicious circle of bureaucracy. The vicious circle of bureaucracy, based on the labyrinth of regulatoryinflation and the low quality of the regulation and the resulting maladministration and corruption, devastated traps for the success of any initiative for the promotion of public sector reform in Greece (Karkatsoulis 2004, 2011, Spanou 2008, Spanou eds2018, Sotiropoulos - Christopoulos 2017, OECD 2012,2016, Makridimtiris - Pravita 2016, Featherstone eds 2020). It is, therefore, the presence of the factors of creation and maintenance of the vicious circle of bureaucracy in the Greek public administration, with negative results both in terms of the provision of public services and in terms of the performance of the market and the promotion of economic growth. This vicious circle of bureaucracy, sustained by the lack of strategic planning and horizontal and multi – level coordination in public sector reforms design and implementation of public sector reform initiatives, the decentralization deficit and the limited participation of the public agencies and the market on reforms design and specialization, factors limiting the efficiency and the effectiveness of the public services and creates obstacles on enterprises competitiveness and economy's performance (Featherstone eds 2020, Spanou eds 2018 Pelagidis – Mitsopoulos 2011, Pisarides eds 2020).

Looking for the casual roots of public services the inefficiency in Greece, the provision of the public services is being degraded to a substantial and crucial degree by the labyrinthine regulatory labyrinthine of public sector's organization. Public agencies in Greece are required to perform in accordance with the provisions of 4.603 laws, a number which is a barrier to the efficient provision of public services and agencies compliance with the legislation. In this regulatory inflation created by the presence of laws, if the more than 227,000 secondary legislation's regulations are added, significant concerns arise not only for the existing provision of public services, but also for the possibility and the prospects of their reform and performance improvement Karkatsoulis 2011, 2017, OECD 2012, 2014, World Bank 2016, 2017). The legislative inflation and low quality of public sector and entrepreneurship's legal framework is the second pillar of this inhibitory environment for the provision of public services in Greece (Karkatsoulis 2011, Makridimitris - Mergos 2012, OECD 2014, Sotiropoulos - Christopoulos 2017, OECD2012, 2014, 2020, Pisarides eds 2020). A regulatory labyrinth creating and sustaining the negative effects of administrative burdens in public administration and the economy, comes from the capture of the legislative production by governments and political parties personal and clientelism's interests and the absence of regulatory planning and coordination.

Perhaps the most important impact of the regulatory inflation and the low quality of the regulation in Greece, is the creation and excessive expansion of administrative burdens in the provision of public services (Bozeman 2000, 2011, Pandey 2002, OECD 2001, 2011). The administrative burdens are a real barrier to improve the performance of the public agencies, through the provision of efficient and high – quality services that promotes entrepreneurship and eliminate the red tape in enterprises licensing and performance (OECD 2015, 2019, World Bank 2017, EU 2019, 2021). Red tape in the provision of public services, that only for the category of the administrative burdens, are estimated to be at the level 6.7 billion euros, a cost that jump up to more than 18,5 – 20 billion of euros, in we calculate the impact of red tape on public sector cost of performance, on maladministration and corruption (OECD 2014, 2019, 2021, EU 2012, 2020, Plimakis 2018, Karkatsoulis 2014, 2020)

The Impact of Red Tape on Nation's Brand Name: Public Sector Performance and Investments Attraction in Greece

The factors that contribute to the creation of red tape problems in the provision of public services in Greece, are also reproduced and in the investment attraction policy (World Bank 2020, OECD 2020, Pissarides eds 2020, Vayianos eds 2017, SEV 2011, 2020, Sklias eds 2014, Maris 2021). Red tape in the implementation of entrepreneurship and investment policy in Greece, reflected at the increased levels of administrative burdens, the second higher percentage among the European Union member states and with an amount of the 6,9% of the national GDP, the limited attractiveness of the national economy for foreign direct investments, the second lower level in European Union and with a lag of a 8,9% of EU member states' average level and ranking 79th at international level and the competitiveness and innovation deficit of the national economy, ranking 59th and 37th respectively at international level (Plimakis 2019, OECD 2020, 2021 World Bank 2020, Pisarides eds 2020, EU 2021). The investment policy in Greece, determined by administrative fragmentation, the lack of effective coordination between policy's stakeholders, the increased red tape in service provision and the lack of an integrated policy for the simplification of the investment licensing procedures. Administrative fragmentation and the lack of horizontal coordination are the main factor in creating administrative burdens in attracting investment sin Greece, as they lead to the emergence of complexed, time-consuming, and highly - costly investment approval, and licensing procedures (Karkatsoulis 2020, OECD 2020, World Bank 2020, Plimakis 2019, Maris 2021, Roukanas 2020). The administrative fragmentation which is visible even and at the level of the country's promotion and marketing strategy abroad, a policy implemented by National Tourism Organization (EOT) and the Ministry of Tourism, the Marketing Greece agency of the Greek Chamber Tourism the Ministry of Development, the enterprise Greece agency, an agency supervised from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the agency official responsible for attracting investments in Greece and promoting the exports, the economic and financial affairs offices of the Greek embassies, the Hellenic Republic Assets Development Fund, responsible for the privatization and utilization of public property and the Regional Authorities and the big Municipalities implementing their own marketing and tourism promotion strategy abroad, often without any coordination with the Ministry of Tourism and the Invest in Greece. Different public agencies, following and reproducing the prevailing administrative logic of the hierarchical and vertical execution of their responsibilities, undermining the critical issues of horizontal coordination and inter-organizational cooperation, due to agency competition and budget and power maximization issues.

A strategy of administrative fragmentation and ineffective horizontal coordination, reproduced at the critical level of investment licensing procedures, a policy area that each agency and according to investment's category and sector, follows a different licensing process (OECD 2019, 2020, EU 2020, Liargovas 2020 Pelagidis – Mitsopoulos 2011). A regulatory labyrinth in the licensing of investments in Greece made even more complicated by the maintenance of investments' critical licensing procedures in public agencies other than the institutionally competent organization of the Ministry of Development and the Regional authorities. These critical investment approval procedures involve and requiring approval, depending on the type of investment, from the national archeological agency, supervised by the Ministry of Culture, for all the categories of investments, from the Ministry of Environment and the Regional Authorities for environmental protection licensing, the municipalities for investments' harmonization with the urban planning regulations, the Ministry of Shipping and the Ministry of Environment for coastal protections issues, the decentralized administrations for environment and spatial planning issuers and the forest services for forest protection issues. A real administrative labyrinth of what is officially presented as simplified and investment attractive policy environment in Greece, that in the reality the investors must face beyond the administrative labyrinth and the lack of institutionalized specific time limits for the completion of competent public organizations approval or rejection of the investment, resulting to the existence of multi-year licensing delays, varied from 1.5 year to 8.5 years. Red Tape problems in investment licensing, a problem further exacerbated by the survival of the Leviathan of the bureaucracy in investment licensing. The centralism which is a basic feature in the retention of the investment licensing responsibilities in the Ministry of Development and for public assets development and privatization in Hellenic Republic Assets Development Fund (although the fact that the 87% of the public property belongs to the municipalities), despite the proposals for decentralization of their responsibilities mainly to the Regional Authorities and smaller scale investments in municipalities (for investments less than 5.000.000 euros). The Leviathan of centralism which is reflected in the increased percentage of co-responsibilities and overlaps in the licensing of investments, more than 70%, making any initiatives to simplify and accelerate the procedures, inactive in practice (Pisarides eds 2020, KEPE 2020, IOBE 2021, SEV 2011, 2021).

The problems of policy coordination and administrative fragmentation are also presented in the implementation of the various policy reforms for the reduction of the bureaucracy in investments' licensing and approval. Most of the past decade reforms for the simplification and the acceleration of the investment licensing processes, despite government's rhetoric of drastic reduction of bureaucracy and the creation of a friendly investment environment, once again crashed from the reproduction of red tape's causal factors, of lack of strategic orientation and coordination in policy's design and implementation, the survival of centralization and administrative fragmentation in simplification initiatives' implementation, without any actual involvement of the business community and public agencies' staff, and the lack of political leadership's commitment and support for simplifications implementation and formalization (Featherstone eds 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020, OECD 2020, Pisarides eds 2020, Spanou eds 2018, Lavdas eds 2015). The red tape reduction and administrative simplification programs for the business sector and the investment policy promotion, designed and implemented by the competent public agencies, 19 different programs with a total budget over 72.000.000 euros from 2010 to 2021, failed to achieve to strategic goal of policy's de-bureaucratization and creation of an institutional environment friendly and attractive for the investments. An ineffective implementation and in several cases a policy failure, due to the fragmentation of the initiatives, all the programs, except for the OECD program in 2014, focused the implementation of simplification actions limited to competent agency's provided services, excluded and without any prevision for the simplification of the critical services for investment attraction and licensing, provided from the other policy's involved and co-responsible public agencies (OECD 2014). An irrational and ineffective strategy for red tape reduction in investment policy, evident in the planning and inefficient operation of the stop shops for investments in the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Development and the Regions, one - stop shops only as a title, that in the reality they were investors information centers, where the candidate investors submit in hard copy form the required documents for the investment licensing and one stop shops staff have to process, analyze and distribute the information and the documents to the competent public organizations, through hard copy, conventional and non-digitized and simplified procedures. A simplification strategy which resulted not in the reduction of the bureaucracy, but in its transfer from the investor side to the public administration side, with particularly negative results, both in terms of reducing the required time for investment licensing with an average reduction of time was measured at only 4% - 9% and in some cases an increase of 5 – 14% was also measured, as well as in terms of the overall performance of the co-competent public agencies.

Similar problems and policy failures were also presented in the required institutionalization of the proposed services simplifications and red tape reduction, through the codification and the recasting of the legislation for the investment licensing (Karkatsoulis 2018, 2020, Pisarides eds 2020, Liargovas 2020, OECD 2020, Featherstone eds 2020). The required codification and regulatory recasting of investments legislation was not completed despite its funding two different times from the funds of EU Structural Programs in Greece, due to lack of coordination between policy's stakeholders and political leadership's political reluctance to legislate the proposed simplification proposals, due to political cost issues associated with the resistance and the negative attitude of the involved public agencies' staff. The lack of codification and regulatory recasting of investments legislation, which would had led to simplification of the current licensing procedures, the drastic reduction of the existing co-responsibilities and administrative overlaps and the redistribution of simplified licensing responsibilities and the digitization of investment licensing procedures. Initiatives for the digitization of investment licensing services, a total of 7 initiatives were enforced from 2010 with a total budget of over 155.000.000 euros, programs that their performance and effectiveness and have been significantly limited, due to the absence of previous codification and simplification of the services then provided digitally.

The absence of a comprehensive national strategy for the simplification and digitization of investment licensing services has also resulted in the incomplete digital transformation and digital provision of the investment licensing services (Pisarides eds 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020, Liargovas 2020, WEF 2020). The digitalization of the investment services, referring to the levels of 4 and 5 of digital provision, is remaining limited and frequently simply leads not to the required red tape reduction, but to the shift of the red tape from the prospective investor to public agencies' executives, due to the absence of integrated digital services and the limited digitization of the back - office services of the involved public bodies, services particularly important for the reduction of bureaucracy, as well as catalysts of creation and intensification of bureaucracy and excessive delays in the timely completion of the licensing procedures (OECD 2020, World Bank 2020, EU 2018, 2020, Pisarides eds 2020, Spanou eds 2018, Bouckaert eds 2021).

Apart from the negative impact of the administrative fragmentation and the absence of an effective inter-ministerial coordination in the design and implementation of the simplification and digitalization programs, the effectiveness of reform is degraded by the lack of political leadership's commitment and support (Featherstone eds 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020, OECD 2020, Liarvovas 2020). The political leadership, that for reasons of political culture and under the fear of political cost and its inability to understand and accept the political benefits of successful reforms', is characterized from the absent of actual and continuous support for the effective implementation of the reforms and the achievement of their simplification goals. The lack of political support and commitment to the implementation of the simplification policy initiatives, resulted in the limited or in many cases to the non-institutionalization and implementation of all initiatives, with a rate of the non-institutionalization between the 70% of programs and 70% - 85% of programs' simplification proposals.

Public Sector Reform and the Emergence of a New National Brand for Greece: From the Attack on Entrepreneurship, to Investments' Attraction

From the analysis of the current entrepreneurship and investment policy in Greece, it is obvious that there cannot be a new international image of the country at international level, an image that will lead to investment attraction and entrepreneurship promotion, without busting the bureaucracy. Consequently, the international image of the country in terms of both economy and entrepreneurship is largely coformed by the performance of the public sector and the adoption of innovative and effective models for the simplification of investments licensing and audit (OECD 2020, World Bank 2020, Maris 2021, Karkatsoulis 2020). The performance of the public administration in Greece, must be transformed from the guillotine to the catalyst of the entrepreneurship, through the reduction of bureaucracy and the emergence of a new public management model, international competitive, friendly, and attractive to the investors and the investments. The emergence of this new model of public administration organization and performance should be enforced through the implementation of a national level, long-term, participatory designed and enforced and targeted policy for red tape reduction in investments licensing and the creation of an attractive and performance friendly business environment for the enterprises (OECD 2019, 2020, World Bank 2020, Pisarides eds 2020). A strategic program for the simplification of the investment licensing procedures and services, based on the defeating of the long-standing pathogens of the national administrative system creating the red tape, such as the problems of law quality regulation and regulatory inflation, the lack of strategic planning and evaluation in public sector, the deficiencies in horizontal coordination and decentralization, and the culture and strategy of limited compliance and symbolic – adoption of public sector's agencies with public administration reforms. A comprehensive policy for the de-bureaucratization of public services provision, contributing to the emergence of a brand-new image of Greek public administration and Greece at international level. A new national brand of public administration in Greece, which will be based on the extroversion and the development of mutual – cooperation and trust-based relations, among the state, the investors, and the business community.

At the core of this new image of public administration in Greece is the reduction of bureaucracy. The reduction of bureaucracy, requiring the design and implementation of a comprehensive national program for the simplification of investment licensing services, implemented, and committed to complied from the involved public agencies. A national simplification program for the investment sector, focusing on the reduction of the administrative burden on investment licensing and the parallel reduction of administrative burdens on the organizational performance of the co-competent public agencies (OECD 2020, World Bank 2020, EU 2020, SEV 2020, WEF 2020). The administrative burdens reduction policy, should focus on reducing, simplifying, and streamlining the data and the documentation required for investment licensing, shortening, and consolidating licensing procedures and stages, abolishing existing licensing procedures without added value in terms of service delivery quality and the reduction and streamlining of the many, fragmentary, overlapping and particularly time-consuming licensing inspections, controls, and approvals (World Bank 2020, OECD 2012, 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020). The simplification of the existing and highly – bureaucratic controls and approvals model of investment licensing procedures, that is particularly complicated and bureaucratic, creating red tape and excessive delays in the completion of investment licensing. The overlapping and bureaucratic audits and controls of investment proposals can be unified into a single multi-audit at the beginning of the licensing process and at the completion of the investment, each of the enforced audits requiring only the necessary data and documents to ensure the legality of the investment and the protection of the public interest, especially during the licensing phase (OECD 2019, 2020, World Bank 2020, Pagoulatos 2013). The rationalization of the existing labyrinth of inspections and approvals should be accompanied by the use of modern tools for the simplification of the audits, such as the start of the licensing process with a personal written statement of the investor and the engineer / economist responsible for the implementation of the investment, which will be accompanied by very high financial penalties and labor rights sanctions, in cases of false declarations or non-submission of the required documentation till the completion of the licensing process, the digital submission and approval of investments' licensing data and finally the use of the model of the certified private sector auditors (third - party audit) for the certification and audit of the investments, in order to accelerate the long standing delays in projects' audit and approval, carrying out by the competent public agencies and due to understaffing problems, especially of the Ministry of Development and the Regions (OECD 2014, 2020, Pisarides eds 2020).

A targeted and effective policy for the reduction the administrative burdens on the national investment policy, that its effectiveness, in addition to the involvement of all the involved policy stakeholders, requires the promotion of the participation of both the staff of the public agencies and the members of the business community (OECD 2019, 2020, World Bank 2020, SEV 2011, 2020). The involvement of the executives of the involved public agencies will contribute to the identification of the real problems and the fragments in the provision of licensing services and their simplification. At the same time, the involvement of the business community in the design and implementation of simplification policies is considered imperative, as the effectiveness of simplification actions depends on the level it facilitates and accelerates the provided services by the competent public agencies, through the reduction of administrative burdens on service provision. The identification, measurement, and reduction of administrative burdens in the licensing of investments, should be based on the qualitative analysis of the real needs and views of companies and the investors and the specialization of the provided services to their needs and in accordance with the principles of simplification and digitization (Plimakis 2019, OECD 2020). Businesses participation should be promoted through the development and application of interactive digital platforms for red tape and administrative obstacles participatory assessment and the participatory design of simplification and digitalization actions, contributing to the creation of a public administration and business environment competitive and attractive for the investment.

According to the results of these participatory measurement and reduction of the administrative burdens programs, the new, simplified, and standardized services should be designed, according to specific delivery standards and completion time of the provided services (Bouckaert – Pollitt 2018, Holzer 2019, 2021). Simplified investment licensing services, where is technically feasible, will be provided entirely digitally. These simplified and entrepreneur-friendly investment licensing services should be provided by specialized one-stop shops that are proposed to be developed in the Ministry of Development and the Regions. These one-stop shops will be responsible for the information and the communication with the investors and the coordination and completion of the investment licensing process. A real one - stop shop for investments, that will operate in both a physical access and digital model, staffed with the required, specialized, and skilled personnel, operating according to the simplified and digitized procedures of investments audit and licensing, operating and exchange digitally all the required information to the involved public bodies agencies, providing comprehensive Level 5 digital services to the investors (OECD 2019, 2020, World Bank 2020). The simplification and digital provision of investment licensing services should be also supported by the implementation of a series of actions at the level of digital governance (OECD 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020, Spanou eds 2018, Featherstone eds 2020). Digital governance actions that will resolve the interoperability problems between the different information systems of the co-competent public agencies, the upgrade the existing information systems, the creation of a common digital – database of all the investments and investment proposals and finally the development of the investment's digital identity card and digital library at the Ministry of Development. An integrated digital governance strategy for the simplification of the investment policy in Greece, its performance codetermined from the full – scale application of the digital signature tool by the public sector's agencies and the digital exchange of documents and data among them. An Integrate digital governance strategy, necessary for the effective simplification and the de-bureaucratization of the provided public services to the investors.

The efficient and effective provision of simplified investment licensing services should be supported by the rationalization and redistribution of service delivery responsibilities among the involved and co-competent public agencies. The simplification and the redistribution of the investment licensing responsibilities is required to occur to address the negative effects of administrative fragmentation and administrative overlaps and co-responsibilities on the provision of the services and to maximize the positive effects of the simplification policy (Pisarides eds 2020, Karkatsoulis 2020, Liargovas 2020, OECD

2020). In the Greek case, the organizational redesign and the rationalization of the investment licensing system should be implemented in two main axes of intervention: the first axis refers to the reduction and removal of the existing co-responsibilities and administrative overlaps between the co-competent public agencies, a reform requires the recasting and the codification of the existing investment licensing legislation, in support the effective provision of the simplified investment licensing services The second axis of organizational change, refers to the promotion of the decentralization of investment licensing responsibilities, from the Ministry of Development to the Regional Authorities, that have the required administrative capacity for the provision of licensing services and moreover they are closer and more accessible to the investors and have a very important local interest and incentive for investments' early and on-time completion. The promotion of investments' licensing services decentralization at Regional Level, will contribute to the strengthening of the Ministry of Development steering role on the strategic planning and the coordination and supervision of the national investment policy. The decentralization of responsibilities to the Regional Authorities, in combination with the simplification of the procedures for the provision of investment licensing services and the strengthening of the steering role of the Ministry of Development between the involved public agencies, makes it sustainable the emergence and performance of a new national anti-bureaucratic and internationally competitive model for investments attraction.

A new policy model, that its performance will be based on the simplification of procedures and the strengthening of coordination in the design and implementation of the national investment policy. Horizontal inter-ministerial coordination and integrated strategic planning are the principles according to which the existing policy should be reorganized to promote national's economy competitiveness and attract investments from abroad (IOBE 2020, KEPE 2020, Bank of Greece 2020, OECD 2020, Pisarides eds 2020, SEV 2011, 2021, Maris 2021). A new strategy for the change of the popular image of public sector in Greece at international level and the promotion of a new national brand for investments' attraction, highlighting the comparative advantages, opportunities, and prospects for invest in Greece, while specializing in specific areas of investment interest such as tourism, renewable energy production, PPPs, the utilization of the public property, the shipping industry, and the food sector. A national strategy that will be designed according to comparative advantages of specific sectors of the Greek economy, the international trends and the trends and the trends of important national markets and niche markets. A new brand name of Greece, highlights country's investment friendliness and attractiveness, through the provision of simplified and digitized licensing services. A new face of the Greek public administration, which will be the catalyst for attracting investments and highly qualified workforce from abroad. A new brand name of Greece, based on the competitiveness and innovation of the public sector, a brand-new Image that supports and boosts the entrepreneurship and the internationalization of the economy.

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Chapter 19
Is It Important for Healthcare Services to Place the Onus on Patient Satisfaction in Their Brand?

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ABSTRACT

Due to the advent of computers, internet, and social media communication, the marketing of services has changed, and consequently, organizations of any kind need to specify a brand image strategy and position it successfully in customer minds without cultural limitations. A semiotic approach for examining the branding strategy was applied on the websites of some healthcare services organizations which were taken as representative case studies. This research study seeks to point out the significance of the signs, either in the linguistic level or the iconic level of analysis, in order to make easily understandable the main issues of a branding strategy. The quality of services, the high standard of scientific expertise, and the availability of clinical equipment are the dominant issues of the examining branding strategies, whereas patient satisfaction and their further quality of life are completely ignored. A suggested innovative branding approach is shown to help entrepreneurs, branding designers, and marketers of healthcare services recognize the value of patient satisfaction.

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INTRODUCTION

It is evident that branding of healthcare services increasingly gains ground on the interest of academics, researchers and practitioners. As there is a debate about the concept of brand and branding and both are "multidimensional and becoming more complex through time" (Moore & Reid, 2008, p. 420), it would be helpful to distinguish branding to brand. Branding is the process of creating a unique name and image for a product in the consumer's mind, mainly through advertising campaigns with a consistent theme (http://www.businessdictionary.com). It is also "more than simply telling people what they should think of you" (Sterne, 2017, p. 119).

Brand is not only a logo, but also it includes strategy, calls to action, customers service, communication, employees, facilities as well as logo's visuals (Pallotta, 2011). In other words, brand is everything about business at every level and in every detail from the vision and mission to any kind of interaction in the internal and external environment of an enterprise or an organization. Taking into account the 12 themes classification of the definitions of brand suggested by De Chernatony and Riley (1998), brand is considered a logo, a legal instrument, a company, an identity system, an image in consumer's mind, a value system, a personality, a relationship, an adding value, an evolving entity, a shorthand and a risk reducer. A further categorization in two broad categories whether of which is dominant, either firm's perspective or consumer perspective, revealed only few themes common to both perspectives which are: brand as a personality, a relationship, an evolving entity or an image in consumer's mind (Maurya & Mishra, 2012). Considering the image of a service in the consumers' mind more appropriate for the analysis of branding strategy than the other three common themes in these two perspectives, brand image and branding strategy constituted the main pole of the present investigation. This research study pursuits to give answers to particular questions concerning branding in healthcare services and its connection to patient satisfaction as key element in branding stategy of this kind. It also seeks to support a proposal for an alternative and innovative branding strategy approach based on the results of the data mining from different databases and a semiotic analysis.

Methodology Approach

Initially, a systematic review of scientific publications mainly from journals and books was conducted based on data mining from different databases by using as key words 'branding', 'brand', 'brand image', 'branding strategy', 'healthcare services branding', 'patient satisfaction' and some other relevant issues. After the collection of a serious amount of articles, papers and books, the most relevant were analysed with the aim of firstly clarifying, the meaning of brand image and brand strategy and secondly, identifying patient satisfaction appearance in healthcare services branding, as these were the main focus of the present research study. Two private healthcare services providers were selected as representative case studies for investigating their basic promotion orientation.

The main criteria for their selection were: the location, the similarity in the provision of healthcare services and the complete display of their brand image on their corporate website. A semiotic analysis of the two websites at both, the linguistic and the iconic level, took place in order to identify the main characteristics of their brand image and find out the existing branding strategy evident in it. The fulfilment of the two methodology approaches, the literature review and the semiotic analysis of the two case studies constituted the basis for the suggestion of an innovative branding strategy.

Brand Image and Branding Strategy in Healthcare Services

Brand is one of the strategic assets of a company that can provide a long-lasting competitive advantage (Kapferer, 2008, p. 1). This is because it influences the behaviours of consumers who when they buy a product or a service at the same time they buy the brand awareness, image, fame, trust and any tangible and intagible advantages it includes (Kapferer, 2008, p. 8).

The main value of a company's brand is not the existence of promises but the 'if' and 'how' it keeps its promises, as brand is "in the eye of the beholder" (Sterne, 2017, p. 119) and influences him most.

Brand image is a synthesis of percieved quality concerning the overall excellence or superiority of a brand and the esteem which is the degree to which the brand is respected by customers in contrast with the other brands of the same class (Yagci, Biswas, & Dutta, 2009, p.769).

Brand image has been associated with the brand-as-person perspective and furthermore, with brand personality which can provide emotional and self-expressive benefits and a basis for the brand and consumer relationship and differentiation (Aaker, 1996, p. 102).

Concerning the hospital brand image, it includes the beliefs, ideas and the impressions a patient has from a hospital (Kotler & Clarke, 1987) during or after a received treatment. It also possesses a strategic function (Wu, 2011, p. 4874), evident in a favourable brand image which can enhance customer satisfaction, service quality, loyalty and repurchasing intention (Lai, Griffin, & Babin, 2009).

Branding strategy is another dimension of healthcare services which deals with the recognition of hospital services and benefits, brand protection and extension, positioning, establishment of three company identifications (mental, behaviour, visual), communication and competitive awareness and interactive and direct marketing (Khosravizadeh, Vatankhah, & Maleki, 2017).

As brand image is the impression each specific brand creates to the consumer's mind and branding strategy is responsible for creating attractive brand messages, a semiotic approach could be useful for revealing some valuable brand messages.

A Semiotic Approach

Every brand reveals a story that has a deep meaning and quite often it is based on archetypes. The leverage of the archetypes and semiotics can provide the themes and the context of the story and thus, make the story easily emerged and understandable and give power to the brand (Jura, 2020).

In order to understand the deep meaning of a brand the study of signs,which is mainly determined by semiology and semiotics, is a challenging path. There are many classifications between semiology and semiotics as well as differentiations of the meaning, the content and the systems to which they refer (Eco, 1979). Also, there are many types of semiotics with different origins and purposes, which have been developed in various traditions (Parret, 1983, p.1). But whatever the reference is either to semiology (named by Ferdinand De Saussure (1857-1913) or to semiotics (named by Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914) the study of signs is important as signs always convey messages. According to the Saussure points of view language is made of signs and by putting signs together it is possible to create complex messages. Additionally, he ascertains that is essential to understand things instead of just name or define them.

As signs are important for the understanding of brand image and brand strategy, which constitute the main themes of the present branding investigation, a concise and comprehensive analysis in the linguistic and iconic level was carried out. The two selected healthcare services providers are The Group of Iatriko in Athens (Case study A) and the Euromedica-Kianous Stavros (Case study B) and their corporate websites are www.iatriko.gr and www.kianous-stavros.gr correspondingly.

At the linguistic level

Saussure (1857-1913) in his theory claims that each sign has two parts, the signifier and the signified. The signifier is the impression something makes to our senses (sound image) and the signified is the concept or essence of something.

By taking into consideration some parts of the corporate websites of the two case studies, A and B, an analysis of the signifier and signified was caried out.

Table 1 and Table 2 present this analysis in detail.

Table 1. Semiotic analysis at the linguistic level: Case study A

LINGUISTIC LEVEL **Case Study A. (www.iatriko.gr)**		
From the part "About us" of www.iatriko.gr		
Themes	**Signifier**	**Signified**
Medical services	-All these years the Iatriko in Athens remains loyal to its constant commitment to be "always one step ahead", offering top and innovative primary and secondary healthcare services in accordance with the strictest international standards and certification	Loyalty Commitment Innovation Primary and Secondary healthcare services International standards Certification
The Group and its network	-Today the Group has 7 state-of-the-art nursing units in Athens and Thessaloniki	Size of the Network Quality of nursing units Location of nursing units
Healthcare services in numbers	The Group has: -1200 beds -collaborations with more than 2800 leading physicians of all specialties with international experience -4 private diagnostic centers in Romania -stable partnerships with North Africa and the countries of the former Soviet Union	Medical capacity Scientifically advanced collaboration Expansion in Romania Partnerships with North Africa and Soviet Union
Group and economy	The Group has: -almost 3000 employees -the fourth position in the ranking of the listed companies offering the majority of jobs in Greece according to the reputable financial newspaper "Naftemporiki"	Large number of employees High ranking in the companies offering job positions Location High reputation Local financial newspaper
Innovation and technology	The Group -invests steadily in scientific innovation and cutting-edge technology in order to constantly raise the level of healthcare services provided -presents loyalty to its founder's vision of reversing the flow of Greek patients abroad -has taken a "step forward" by having as priority to attract international patients in Greece -contributes to national economy with coordinated actions of medical tourism	Scientific innovation Cutting-edge technology Loyalty to vision Pioneer International patients attraction Contribution to economy Medical Tourism
Brain drain	The Group -offers incentives to the scientists who have gone abroad and gained significant experience to return -coordinates their return with the aim to help and lead in creating a new Greece and reversing the phenomenon of brain drain	Sensitivity to brain drain Incentives for return Focus on expertise Coordination of scientists return New Greece Reverse of brain drain
From the part "History" of www.iatriko.gr		
Years	**Signifier**	**Signified**

continued on following page

Table 1. Continued

LINGUISTIC LEVEL Case Study A. (www.iatriko.gr)		
From the part "About us" of www.iatriko.gr		
Themes	**Signifier**	**Signified**
1984 1998, 2000 and 2001 2005 and 2007 2009 2011 2013 2014 2015 2016 2017 From 1985 to 2017	-Launching was the big "science-technology meeting" in Southeastern Europe -No Greek abroad for treatment The doors of the Medical Group will substitute the doors of airplanes -FORBES magazine ranks The Athens Medical Group among the "300 Best Small Companies" worldwide -The Group is included in the "Superbrands" catalogue, as a prominent recognizable brand in services and products -The Athens Medical Group is named the company with the best reputation in the medical services sector in Greece and the fifth company in the world -The first multi-injured from Libya are transported and treated in the hospitals of the Group, with their final number exceeding 3500 -The Athens Medical Center and the Inter-Balkan Medical Center of Thessaloniki receive TEMOS certification for "Quality in International Patient Care" -The Clinic of General Laparoscopic, Bariatric and Robotic Surgery of the Athens Medical Center is certified as a Center of Excellence of the World Federation of Surgery of Disease Obesity (IFSO) -The Athens Medical Group, in collaboration with the most important educational Medical Institutions in the country, launches the Annual Continuing Medical Education Programme with the highest scoring from the Panhellenic Medical Association -It receives an official upgrade of international quality certifications, at the level of "Excellence in Medical Tourism" -The Athens Medical Group organizes the International Conference on Medical Avant-Garde and Innovation entitled Athens Medical Leadership and Innovation Conference (AMLI) for the 32nd anniversary of tis establishment -The Athens Medical Group receives 5 gold Health Business awards that highlight its prestige and business excellence -The first private health services company and one of the first international companies which has issued a Corporate Responsibility Report according to the new G4 version of the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) Guidelines -The Athens Medical Group receives 6 gold Health Business awards -Official premiere of "IATRIKO TV", the new venture of the communication strategy of the Athens Medical Group -Main information from its site: International cooperation for specialized research, many first launching of departments, purchase of modern medical equipment, surgeries with new technology and innovative methods, robotic surgery, industry of surgery tools	Technology, Science, Southeastern Europe Optimistic vision Great expectations, Ambitious dream Global distinction Special distinction, Competitive brand Best national and global reputation Medical tourism Quality of Healthcare Services, Certification Excellence, International specific distinction Continuing education, Professional development Upgrade international certification Excellence in Medical Tourism Contribution to the international research and its dissemination High standard awards Prestige, Excellence Corporate Social Responsibility Updated global report High standard awards, Prestige, Excellence Media-TV communication, Promotion, Reputation expansion International cooperation Promotion of specialized research Purchase of assets Science and new technology

At the iconic level

The home page and the part "About us" were chosen to be analysed as they are considered to make evident and understandable the main issues of the brand image and strategy of the two healthcare services providers. Logos and their positioning, content of the main images and selected colours were the main focus of this investigation.

Undoubtedly, colors are considered being the most influential visual information (Jansson, Marlow, & Bristow, 2004) which strongly influence the psychology of consumers, evident in their preferences and behaviours, thus, they can play a crucial role in branding image and strategy. For this reason, the present semiotic analysis at the iconic level put emphasis on the main colours used in the two selected corporate websites of Case study A and Case Study B.

Table 3 consists of two parts where the first part presents the main characteristics of the images appeared in the home page of the two corporate websites while the second part describes the main images of the part "About us".

The analysis of the brand image was based on the logo and its characteristics and the analysis of the branding strategy through all the information offered in the main images.

Table 2. Semiotic analysis at the linguistic level: Case study B

LINGUISTIC LEVEL Case Study B. (www.kianous-stavros.gr)		
From the Home page of www.kianous-stavros.gr		
Themes	**Signifier**	**Signified**
Medical specialization	-It has specialized medical and nursing staff who follow new and modern treatment methods, closely following the developments in the medical field	Medical specialization Modern treatment methods Science development
Emergencies	-We are by your side 24 hours a day for 7 days a week covering the following specialties: General Surgery, Pathology, Orthopedic, Cardiology and Microbiological Treatments -50 years close to you	Total availability Offer of main medical specialized services A long history of healthcare services on your demand
Healthcare services in numbers	-10.000 internal patients per year -6000 external patients per year -8000 surgeries per year	Numerical interpretation of services
Certification of quality	-ISO 9001: 2015 -ISO 12000:2015	Approval of certification
Membership	-EUROMEDICA Group -Greek Medical Tourism Council (ELITOUR)	Reference to the Group Medical tourism
From the part "About us" of the website		
Years	**Signifier**	**Signified**
1969	-A group of five doctors, having just completed their medical education and specialization in the USA, returned to Thessaloniki with a dream: the creation of the first private clinic in the city. They were the Surgeon Evangelos Theodorou, the Urologists Vassilios FIstas and Dimitrios Karellos, as well as the Obstetricians-Gynecologists Nikolaos Hatzinikolaou and Menelaos Chatzigeorgiou -After a three-year preparation period, the dream came true. The private Kianous Stavros Clinic, with a capacity of 125 beds, was inaugurating its operation. Initially, five key specialties were developed in clinics, namely Surgery, Pathology, Urology, Obstetrics-Gynecology and Orthopedic Surgery. Antonios Ballas was appointed Scientific Responsible of the Pathology Department, while Moschos Karavangelis and Konstantinos Mountrakis were appointed Leads of the Orthopedics Department	Specialized doctors USA Great expectations, Innovation Ambitious dream Lead doctors by name Dream turns to reality Clinic capacity Specialties in clinic Lead scientific responsible doctors by name

The main common colours used in the two parts of the investigating websites are blue, green, red, black, and white and gray. According to Robinson (2017) in Western cultures, blue symbolizes trust, security and authority; green symbolizes luck, nature, environmental awareness, freshness and wealth; red symbolizes fear, wealth, purity, fertility, love and beauty; black symbolizes sophistication, formality, death, illness, bad luck and mystery; white symbolizes purity, elegance, peace and cleanliness. Gray is a cool, neutral and balanced colour, lacks the negativity of black, carries some of the attributes of white and symbolizes formality, conservativeness, sophistication, loss or depression (Bourn, 2010).

Concerning the logo of the two corporate websites, they have similar positioning. The logo of iatriko.gr is eye-catching and informative about the provision of healthcare services. The use of the symbol of

Table 3. Semiotic analysis at the iconic level

Case Study A: iatriko.gr		Case Study B: kianous-stavros.gr	
ICONIC LEVEL			
Home page of the website: Main characteristics of the images appeared			
Logo	-At the upper left side in a big size -At the lower left size in a smaller size	**Logo**	-At the upper left side in a big size -At the lower left size in a big size
Content of the main images	-Six moving images in sequence where in one there are two women and a child and in another the back of a male 1. The facilities of the Iatriko in Athens 2. COVID-19 Useful information 3. The clinics and the diagnostic centers of the Group 4. Strategic and international collaborations indicated in a map of the globe 5.Medical tourism with two woman and a man sharing a service offer 6. Promotion of three preventive and diagnostic test and their costs for the COVID-19 with the appearance of two male hands -Six specialized reference centers -Images of specific videos, interviews and scientific articles - A map indicating the location of The Iatriko in Athens -Logo in different versions for the Medical Centers of the Group	**Content of the main images**	-The hygiene meters for the Covid-19 through the presentation of children with masks and the use of antiseptic liquid by a woman -Female hands touching a knee with inflammation and pain indicating the provided specialized surgery -A projected circle with the 24/7 symbol attached to a bow with the symbols of the five major medical services provided - Two man and one woman as candidate people for having diagnostic tests - A female doctor in a WEB TV video image for presenting different diseases and their specialized treatment - A girl suffering from allergy - Four images, one for a man's interview and three for specialized medical articles - A moving circle with a cross in the center of it and twelve symbols of the characteristics of healthcare services in its periphery (the above mentioned infographic) together with the facilities of the Group of Kianous Stavros
Infographics	A circle with the logo in the center of it and five etiquettes and symbols which are: Scientific avant-garde, International collaborations, Insurance companies, Clinics and the network, Medical technology	**Infographics**	A male hand holding a cross in two shades of blue with a rotating circle where the basic elements of healthcare services are indicated in symbols such as of people, medical tools and machinery
Main colours	-Blue in different shades -Red -Green -Pale gray -White -Black	**Main colours**	-Blue in different shades -Ocher in different shades -Pale pink -Gray in different shades - Green in different shades -White -Black (only in letters and numbers)
Reference to patient satisfaction	None	**Reference to patient satisfaction**	Six positive patient testimonials
Description of the main images of the part "About us" of the website			
Logo Positioning of the logo Colours	-The name of the Group -A red heart and inside it a bird and a cross -At the upper left side in a big size -At the lower left size in a smaller size **Blue, Red and White**	**Logo Positioning of the logo Colours**	-The names of the Group and the Clinic Kianous Stavros - A Blue Cross indicated the I in the name of the Group EUROMED+CA -A half-shaped curve -At the beginning and in the middle of the page in a very big size -At the left lower side of the page in a smaller size **Black, Blue (Light and Dark)**
Main images	-Three moving images in sequence 1.The Clinics and the network: The symbol of the heart formed with two palms 2.International collaborations: A global map indicating the locations of the Scientific Organizations in their coloured logos 3.Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): The networking of people and their connection with the cross (All in blue) -Eight signs of certification and awards	**Main images**	-The building of the Kianous Stavros -A gallery of five icons of the interior spaces and medical equipment where in one a female face of the nursing staff is recognized -A map indicating the location - Two ikons of membership -Two icons for the approval of certification
Infographics	Sheets of paper with stripes in shades of gray and the imprint of the bird and the cross on a gray heart	**Infographics**	Two moving etiquettes: -On the left side: 50 years near you -On the right side: 50 years ally of your health
Main colours	-Blue in different shades -Red -Gray in different shades -Pale green -White -Black (only in letters and numbers)	**Main colours**	-Blue in different shades -Gray in different shades -Pale green -Ocher -Dark red -White -Black (mainly in letters and numbers)

the heart may convey two messages, you all (patients and candidate visitors) are in our heart and we offer treatment for heart diseases. The bird inside the heart is a symbol that we offer medical services supporting the maternity, tenderness and peace. The cross inside the heart means that all kind of healthcare services is provided. The use of red colour may indicate multiple meanings, danger, emergency, and love while the white colour highlights the opposition to red and then, the two colours together remind us of the traditional sign of hospital. The logo of Kianous-Stavros.gr has a graphic design and gives emphasis to the names of the Medical Group and the Clinic of Kianous Stavros. The half-shaped curve underneath the names indicates the close collaboration between the Group and Clinic while the light blue cross substituting the letter I in the name EUROMEDICA emphasizes the variety of healthcare services offered to everyone and mainly to European citizens in case EUROMEDICA is translated into two parts EURO AND MEDICA. Also, the existence of blue color as generally considered a calming and peaceful colour in healthcare services reserves these characteristics but it is also associated with hygiene and cleanliness.

The branding strategy of the two healthcare services providers has many similarities and differences. The main similarities are the reference to COVID-19, the appearance of their facilities and examples of some indicative healthcare services, a map indicating the location, reference to specialized interview and scientific articles and approvals of their quality certification. The main difference that makes the Case study B more representative of the human-centric aspect of the healthcare services is the existence of humans in the context of six images while in the Case study A in three images. Another difference is in the infographic design with the Case B which has a more attractive moving circle be held by two male hands indicating the provision of their healthcare services instead of a static circle with the symbols of healthcare services, its clinics and network and their supporting services of the Case A. The last but important difference is that the Case study B pays attention to the patients' points of view, and indicates it in six positive examples of patient testimonials.

The analysis of the brand image and strategy of the two selected healthcare providers from their website disclosed many similarities and differences. Some of their similarities are the promotion of their facilities, specialized doctors, modern medical equipment, international collaboration and the selection of similar colours and infographics. There are also some differences, but those worth paying more attention are the human-centric approach of the Case study B, evident in many images, and the existence of patient testimonials which highlight their interest in the patients' satisfaction and their quality of life.

An Innovative Branding Approach Based on Patient Satisfaction

This innovative branding approach introduces a new way of looking at brand image and its connection to brand strategy. The main focus of the suggested innovative approach is the patient and its three elements are: the existence of emotional branding, the creation of virtual communities of patients and the emphasis put on the quality of life or better on the well-being of people.

The first dimension refers to the emotions which constitute an essential part of the behaviour of people facing any kind of threat towards their health and their quality of life. Brand image is closely connected to the patients' perception and feelings and can influence their behaviour. Emotional branding is a consumer-centric, relational and often has a story-telling approach (Yen, Lin & Lin, 2016, p. 86).

Emotional branding can be the best choice for healthcare services providers as brand in this case needs to have and show its emotional side. Indeed, this kind of emotional branding can be supported by the story-telling method as it describes experiences of other people and can easily help people to identify their personal experiences through the experiences of others.

The second dimension is the customer satisfaction and in this case patient satisfaction. Customer satisfaction is a function of customer expectations and post purchase perceived performance which is: Customer Satisfaction = f (expectations, perceived performance) (Fornell, 1992, p. 12). To this vein, patient satisfaction is a function of expectations and perceived performance, too. Patient expectations is related mainly to brand image while perceived performance is related to patient satisfaction, disappointment or even disatisfaction. The sharing of the patients' opinions for the level of their satisfaction due to any kind accepted treatment in a healthcare services provider (perceived performance) is of great value. The major exploitation of this sharing can be achieved through the creation of virtual communities of patients.

Virtual communities are based on the internet communication and the interaction among its members. Participation in virtual communities is the key factor of their success (Casalo, Flavian, & Guinaliu, 2008, p. 21). The members of these communities can share information and experiences and develop emotional ties with the brand around which the comminity exists. Virtual communities can offer multiple benefits to both customers of healthcare services and providers of healthcare services providers. From the patient side, communication with other people facing health problems, development of team cohesion, optimism for a better health, decrease of isolation, belonging to a community and strengthening of endurance and mental power could be some of the essential benefits. From the company side, the enhancement of the brand image, brand loyalty, brand equity and the competitive advantage of the healthcare services provider could be some of the valuable outcomes.

The third dimension has to do with the vulnerability of health of people and the importance of the preventive and diagnostic control of their health and quality of life. The quality of life is crucial not only for the patients after having any kind of medical treatment but also for people at any age who want to have a good control of their health standard.

As there are many cases for a relaunching of a brand due to the availability of new technology, desire to upgrade a dated image or the pressure of competitive actions (Dhar, 2007, p. 37), this innovative branding approach would be considered a good choice.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

One of the limitations is the selection of a very limited amount of case studies for analyzing their brand image in order their branding strategy to become easily understandable. The analysis of the two key elements of branding (brand image, brand strategy) of the websites only of Greek healthcare services providers is also another limitation. The limited period of time, the difficulty in assessing data which is not available on the investigated websites and the subsequent failure to update a part of the latest data can be included to the limitations, too.

The synthesis of the literature review and the analysis, through a semiotic approach, of these two particular case studies of healthcare services, it would be a valuable basis for a quantitative research approach. Also, it could be useful for healthcare organizations to identify, firstly the importance of branding by focusing on brand image and strategy, and secondly the emergence of planning and implementing innovative branding strategies.

The semiotic analysis of the data offered in the websites of the healthcare services providers can stimulate the interest in a deeper and more detailed analysis where the colour can be the key element in the study of signs.

Additionally, the suggested innovative branding approach can help branding designers and strategists to form strategies based on emotional branding where patients' satisfaction and interest for their further quality of life have a dominant role. In this regard, healthcare services providers can have an opportunity to enhance their brand image and power of their brands.

Finally, the value of this study could be apparent in case other researchers decide to carry out comprehensive research studies by taking into consideration the core dimensions of healthcare services and the expected benefits of an optimal branding strategy.

CONCLUSION

The new era which is called the Participation Age or, in other words, the Customer Age is characterized by people who actively manage their life by using any technology tools available to them. They mainly belong to technology-savvy generation, use the social media almost every day and they do want to participate since their relationships with the companies whose products and services use are of great interest (Middleton, 2013). That is why the brand image and strategy of healthcare services in their corporate websites shoud be attractive and provoke customers, either patients or people interested in diagnostic control of the status of their health, to share their experiences and describe their satisfaction level form the healthcare services provision.

In addition, brand designers, marketers and managers should have in mind that a well formed brand strategy creates a unique and atrrative personality for a brand and highlights the awareness of the possible differentation between the perceived brand personality and the desired brand positiong (Muller, 2014).

Under the belief that healthcare services are human-centric there is no excuse of not taking into consideration the feelings, needs, satisfaction and expectations of patients. Thus, the branding strategies in healthcare services should pay more attention to the patients' satisfaction and their quality of life through the adoption of emotional branding in an effective way. To this direction, the creation of virtual brand communities is of great importance because the feedback of patients may be useful for improving the existing branding strategy, enhancing brand loyalty and for gaining competitive advantage.

As branding occupies much of the attention of branding designers, strategists, researchers, business leaders and their subordinates, it is their responsibility to focus on brand image and brand strategy that can influence the preferences and behaviours of potential customers in a successful way. Inevitably, for assessing and insuring the success of a branding strategy in healthcare services the brand image is an essential part but there are many other interdependent factors which would not be ignored. This literature review, the analysis of the selected case studies and the understanding of the value of the suggested innovative branding strategy would be the starting point in understanding the vital key factors of healthcare services branding and raise the awareness of healthcare services providers towards patients' satisfaction and all potential customers' interest in their quality of life.

Indeed, the brand strategy has to be well designed firstly to promote the vision and mission of each organization and secondly, to offer an attractive brand image. The brand image in order to influence the perception of customers should offer clear and specific messages, contemporary information and an eye-catching visual design. This is highly demanding in the sphere of healthcare services where it is difficult to monitor the customers' preferences of a brand among other similar brands. In the majority of the organizations of healthcare services the main focus of their brand strategy is often on their advanced technology equipment, the expertise, and the experience of their doctors of any specialization. The preferences of customers, who in the case of healthcare services are the patients or potential patients, reflect their awareness of the message that the brand strategy and the brand image transfers to them. Another strong influence on the patients' preferences is the word of mouth. The experiences of other patients with similar conditions weigh heavily on the patients' preferences and in some cases they have a greater impact than the brand strategy and image of the healthcare organization. Recently, it seems that some healthcare institutions have taken into consideration this influence and have decided to put in their brand strategy and image comments of their patients. Even though, this is not enough, it can be characterized as a developmental step to the direction of enhancing the quality of the provision of healthcare services. As the prevailing main origin of each quality approach is the satisfaction of the needs or even the expectations of customers, this research study tried to find out whether it is evident in the branding strategy of the healthcare services organizations. Despite the fact that the selected organizations present the common tendency of the branding strategy of healthcare services offered in one nation, this does not exclude the possibility that this may occur in other nations, too.

Maybe brand images in healthcare services appear to be similar, but, in essence, when one dissects them, he will discover important differences in the way they can influence people's preferences. Doubtlessly, brand image is closely linked to perceived service quality in healthcare services. For this reason, the branding strategy that is built on emotional branding, patient satisfaction and the networks of branding communities may guarantee the strong interest of healthcare services providers in the quality of life of their customers.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It seems that research on healthcare services brand image is scarce and thus, the need for more research is apparent and possibly imperative. As colours can carry specific meanings and information besides their aesthetic value (Elliot, Maier, Moller, Friedman, & Meinhardt, 2007, p. 155) further research with a semiotic approach on colours would contribute to the association of all branding factors. Therefore, the development of other in-depth semiotic analyses as well as other qualitative and quantitative research studies would be the orientation of further research where comparisons and synthesis of multiple approaches would offer valuable and useful findings.

In addition, it would be a good idea to analyse the impact of participation in a virtual community on patients' satisfaction, loyalty and their commitment to a healthcare services organization. Furthermore, the sharing of patients' experiences concerning the upgrading of their quality of life is worth investigation to a greater extent.

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Chapter 20

Building National Branding Strategy in Medical Tourism and Production of Generic Medicines:

National Branding and Health

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ABSTRACT

National branding supports countries to improve their international reputation, to attract investment, to link their national name with comparative advantages of producing products or services, and to attract buyers and visitors. The globalization of markets has increased the competitiveness of states and political influence in markets, and national branding has become a vital tool. Healthcare within the environment of seamless information and easy patient movement from state to state has led states to

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strive to convince the public opinion of the medical specialized services their country provides to attract patients for treatment. This chapter sought to examine whether Greece can acquire national branding in medical tourism and in the production of generic medicines. This approach has shown that there is potential, but specific policies need to be pursued to achieve the goal. This chapter reveals that the combination medical tourism and production of generic medicines can be essential elements towards a concrete national branding strategy.

1. INTRODUCTION

A country's competitiveness depends on many factors, including the value of National Branding (Domazet, 2016). The National Branding improves the image of the country and its reputation and becomes a pole of attraction for foreign investments and attraction of buyers and visitors (Mary, & Misiani, 2017). Through National Branding, the aim is to create a favorable position for the country and to create a distinction that is strong and attractive. (Mohammadifar etal, 2019). Successful National Branding allows a country not only to improve its image in the international audience but also to increase its political influence, promote and export its products and services, strengthen partnerships and improve its competitiveness (Zhukovets, 2018). Globalization has increased competition between states (Aronczyk, 2013) and now National Branding has become the norm for the promotion of services such as tourism (Njiru,2016). The same was reflected in the National Branding and in the research of Ejov & Ejov (2019) because it enhances the global competitiveness of the state and its political influence. Zeineddine (2017) considers that National Branding is vital for attracting investment, exports, attracting tourists and attracting a talented workforce. The same is claimed by the researches conducted by Aronczyk, (2013) and Dinnie (2008). There is a clear distinction between National Branding and commercial Branding and the element of difference lies in the role that national identity plays in the international audience (Dinnie, 2008). Fan's (2010) research has shown that there are more differences between National Branding and trade Branding than commonalities. National Branding has become so necessary in the globalization of markets to the point that some states consider it as an antidote to their problems (Aronczyk, 2013; Kaneva, 2012). In the field of healthcare even a small unit of care can acquire National Branding because consumers of healthcare services are now looking for a reliable brand (Mangini, 2002). Consumers of health care services trust Branding which, however, must be based on codes of ethics, morality and social responsibility (Sirisha, & Babu, 2014). Gianduzzoetal's (2016) research conducted in Australia and New Zealand and examining the impact of Branding on a healthcare unit found that Branding increases public understanding. Branding in the competitive environment of healthcare is of particular importance (Divianietal, 2015). Medical services utilize Branding to expand their competitiveness, to differentiate themselves from other providers and for their effective treatments (Berry & Seltman 2007). National Branding is an important element in attracting customers to healthcare (Joshi, 2018) and to be built it must be based on patient experiences, emotional connections and lifestyle (Maher, 2014). Creating Geo-Branding requires sufficient knowledge of the goal it promotes as it addresses a wide audience interested in different aspects

(Freire, 2005). A typical case is the attempt of many countries to acquire National Branding in medical tourism. (Ganguli, & Ebrahim, 2017; Viladrich, & Baron-Faust, 2014; Heung, etal, 2011). Among the emerging potentials that are developing in Greece for the acquisition of National Branding is medical tourism and the production of generic medicines. However, in alternative forms of tourism, there is a need to overcome various obstacles in exploiting government funds (Apostolopoulos et al, 2020a) and this can create delays in building and promoting a national product. This article focuses on these two areas and examines the possibility and the necessary conditions to acquire National Branding.

2. MEDICAL TOURISM AND THE POSSIBILITY OF ACQUIRING NATIONAL BRANDING

More and more patients are seeking accreditations from authorized organizations recognized internationally for their healthcare provision (Geitona & Sarantopoulos, 2015). Citizens are willing to travel to other countries to ensure qualitative care (Lunt & Carrena, 2010). The states are competing on this intention-desire of the citizens to ensure a good overall image for them (Anholt, 2002). Medical tourism improves the labor market in the health sector and introduces high-level health professionals in the patients' host country (Ahmedetal, 2018; Anido-Freire, 2012). A study by Johnstonetal (2010), which examined the reasons why foreign patients visit Belgium for infertility, concluded that one of the key factors was the international reputation that the infertility centers in that country had acquired. The National Branding is part of an effective strategy for the development of the tourism product as it creates the positive image (Petrevska, & Cingoski, 2017). According to research by Almeyda-Ibáñez & George (2017) National Branding has become a key tool in the tourism sector because it makes clear the complexity of the experiences expected by tourists visiting this destination. The same goes for medical tourism. The research of Anvekar (2012) showed that Asian countries have managed to become a medical destination with patients from the USA, UK and other countries thanks to their National Branding strategy. In 2005, Bangkok's Bumrungrad international hospital was visited by 400,000 patients from abroad, of whom 55,000 were Americans (Cohen, 2010). International certifications, National Branding and medical tourism infrastructures are decisive factors in the competitiveness of medical tourism (Ebrahim & Ganguli, 2019). Information and cognitive impression influence the intention to choose the medical destination (delaHoz-Correa & Muñoz-Leiva, 2019).

2.1. Medical Tourism National Branding Acquisition by European Countries

Many European countries have invested in National Branding for various areas of healthcare. The results of this effort are still non satisfactory. In 2014 in the EU-28 Member States revenues from medical tourism amounted to € 47 billion, representing 4.6% of total tourism revenues and 0.33% of EU28 GDP (European Parliament, 2017). European countries such as France, Germany, Poland and Sweden are medical tourism destinations while countries such as Finland, Germany, Spain, Ireland and Bulgaria have developed wellness facilities in their accommodations (European Parliament, 2017). The Belgians have been able to ensure National Branding for their infertility centers, accepting patients from all over the world (Johnstonetal, 2010). The long delays for orthopedic and ophthalmic surgeries in Canada have resulted in the creation of many specialized travel agencies in this country that promote patients in countries such as France, Germany, Poland, which have gained international fame in this field (Turner, 2007). Research of Horowitz et al. (2007) has shown that countries such as Belgium, Germany and Italy attract medical tourism due to the high level of benefits they provide to patients. The different health systems that exist in different countries due to National Branding, medical tourism also lead to different medical tourism landscapes. This was shown by the research of Pforr et al. (2020) which examined four different health systems and made a comparative analysis in the case of Germany, Italy, Poland and Australia. An international patient survey in Germany showed that personal networks and the impact they have on the patient's country of origin are key determinants of destination selection (Schmerler, 2019). Central and Eastern Europe can be selected for medical tourism; this was shown by the research of Lubowiecki-Vikuk & Dryglas (2019) which examined the views of 282 German and British tourists, also showing that medical associations are the most frequently selected links with Poland. The development of medical tourism does not always require low costs, but this does not mean that it is not one of the many criteria that weigh on a choice. Germany and Poland are two countries that develop medical tourism and show dynamics in this field. One has high to medium cost of care and the other has low, without this preventing them from establishing National Branding for their healthcare system. An important element is the internationalization of their medical tourism. According to the research of Borg et al.(2017), internationalization goes through three stages. The first stage in internationalization is to encourage travelers to consider treatment options at a destination. The second stage involves agreements with healthcare systems that have the ability to transport patients abroad. The third stage includes the complete organization based on the needs of the patients throughout the course until the return of the patient to their home. Poland has achieved National Branding in medical tourism and is considered a top station. Data from visits by British citizens over the last fifteen years that were examined, have shown that UK citizens prefer Poland for their medical travels (Horsfall, 2019).

2.2. Medical Tourism National Branding Acquisition by Greece

Greece, although a country with many comparative advantages in relation to medical tourism and despite the improvement that has occurred in the infrastructure of airports, ports, road network, hotel accommodation, public and private healthcare facilities with specialized medical staff, has a small participation in medical tourism. The research of Theofanides, & Papanikolaou (2012) showed that Greece needs a strategy of cooperation between the state, medical units and other bodies to take advantage of the opportunity presented by medical tourism. The report entitled "Greece 10 Years Ahead: Identifying the new National Development Model" of McKinsey & Company (2010) showed that Greece has the ability and prerequisites to create a National Branding in medical tourism. According to the report, in 2010, Greece lacked a comprehensive national strategy to create a strong brand for medical tourism. The report pointed out that our competitors were ahead of us since in Greece only one healthcare unit was certified by the international certification body Joint Committee International, when in Turkey 43 healthcare units were certified and in Italy 21. Greece has prospects for the development of medical tourism and it can contribute to the economic and tourism development of the country. The research of Sarantopoulos et al. (2015) that examined the possibilities of the contribution of medical tourism in the economic and tourism development of Greece, found that medical tourism is considered by those bodies involved with it a powerful medium for the economic development. Another research conducted by Velissariou et al. (2014) in Northern Greece which has large hotel and healthcare facilities showed that the volume of medical tourism is small. He also showed that there are possibilities for it to develop in medical services such as cosmetic surgery, ophthalmological surgery, invasive surgery, haemodialysis, IVF, transplantation and cardiac surgery. The same research proceeded to the evaluation of the infrastructures which on the basis of 100 were evaluated with 77.3, and the personnel was evaluated with 4.1 on the basis of 5 while the cost of the medical services was estimated to be of average level.

In Europe, spa tourism is constantly growing with Germany at the forefront, in contrast to Greece, which although has significant thermal springs with excellent water quality, spa tourism is constantly declining (Georgakopoulous, & Delitheou, 2020). Europe's spa tourism employs 750,000 people and generates a turnover of € 15 billion (Georgakopoulous, & Delitheou, 2020). The lag in the development of spa tourism is found in other researches as well (Ikkos et al., 2017; Venetsanopoulou, 2006). Studies in the case of spa tourism also show the need for certification by a reputable internationally recognized organization (Papageorgiou & Beriatos, 2011). With the international certification and with specific policies, it has the possibility to ensure National Branding and Greece to become a country of attraction for spa tourism.

2.3. Policy Proposals

All the researches presented for medical and spa tourism in Greece conclude that there is great potential for development. What is missing is a long-term plan that must be done through dialogue and consultation with society, local government and all stakeholders. National Branding of medical tourism to be designed and be created through promotional policies. There is a need for certification of the healthcare units of Greece by officially recognized bodies in order to ensure the reliability of the healthcare units to the international public. The support of networks and multiple communication channels will contribute to the creation of a credible image for Greece in the existing competition. The researches presented also showed the direction towards which the medical tourism should move. There is a fertile ground for highly upgraded services in cosmetic surgery, ophthalmological surgery and invasive surgery, haemodialysis, IVF, transplants, cardiac surgery and spa treatments.

3. THE PRODUCTION OF GENERIC MEDICINES AND THE POSSIBILITY OF ACQUIRING NATIONAL BRANDING

Generics are medicines with guaranteed quality, safety and efficacy and have the same qualitative and quantitative composition of active substances as the original medicines, the same pharmaceutical form as the reference medicine and their bioequivalence has been proven by bioavailability studies (Dunne et al., 2013). The entry of generic medicines into the market usually takes place a few years after the release of the original medicine and are made available on the market at much lower prices than the original ones. While original ones are made exclusively by the pharmaceutical industry, which discovered them following a research, generics may be produced by more than one pharmaceutical industries. This increases competition. It helps small pharmaceutical companies to enter the market dynamically as well as the consumer as long as the research and innovation of the pharmaceutical companies that produce new medicines does not decline (Martin, 1999). Different policies are pursued by states in the production and distribution of generic medicines. Existing market structures and different prescriptions in different countries explain cross-border differences (OECD, 2018; Socha-Dietrich, 2017). According to the OECD report (2019) the average of generic medicines in the pharmaceutical market, in 26 countries, in 2017 ranged at 52%. At the top are the United Kingdom with 85%, Chile with 84%, Germany with 82%, New Zealand with 81% and Canada with 76%. The last places are held by France with a percentage of 30%, Greece with a percentage of 27% (in 2019 this percentage reached 28.3%), Italy with 25%, Switzerland with 23% and Luxembourg with 11%. The growth dynamics of generic medicines has led both the pharmaceutical industry and the states to a great competition. They are trying to meet the increased demand and to establish their dynamics and reputation as a global generic power. This is why the pharmaceutical industries worldwide are involved in aggressive policies to promote their medicines (Mikhael, EM (2015). The use of generics is a key means of limiting pharmaceutical spending and this is a key policy reason for creating incentives to better meet the pharmaceutical needs from generics (Hassali et al., 2014).

3.1. The Acquisition of National Branding in the Production of Generic Medicines by European Countries

European pharmaceutical companies and European countries are trying in the global competition to conquer a large part of the market and to increase the share of generic medicines in their countries. On the other hand, they do not want this to be to the detriment of research and innovation in new medicines, nor to reduce their dynamics and the National Branding they have gained in the global medicine market. Countries like Greece invest in generic medicines and orient their pharmaceutical policy having as a fixed point of reference generic medicines without being able to significantly reduce their price compared to the originals even though the originals in Greece have low prices (Xanthopoulou, S. S., & Katsaliaki, K (2016). Countries such as Germany with a long tradition in the pharmaceutical industry and with National Branding in medicine support research and innovation for new medicines but at the same time cover 82% of generic medicines in the pharmaceutical market (OECD, 2018). What follows is a synthesis of policy choices and decisions, bringing about multiple positive effects on the health of citizens and the pharmaceutical industry as well. A structured pharmaceutical policy must achieve both the public healthcare service goal and the goal of industrial medicine production (Mossialos, 2004). The vast majority of EU countries prescribe, based on the active substance, either as a mandatory procedure or as a recommendation (Godman et al., 2012; Godman et al., 2012; Simoens & Coster, 2006). France is a leader in generic medicines, although its share of generic medicines in its domestic market is only 30% (OECD (2019). It bans defamatory practices aimed at restricting generic medicines, a practice common in other EU countries, which also imposed heavy sanctions on obstructing bodies (European Commission, 2019). In fact, in the EU, victims of competitive behavior are entitled to compensation (Official Journal of the European Union, 2014). With the entry of each generic in the medicine market, the original medicines are reduced by an average of 50% (European Commission, (2018). The consumption of generic medicines in Europe varies from country to country and the discrepancies exceed up to 80% in a few cases (Dylst & Simoens, 2010). Importantly, the population of Europe is wary of using generic medicines . In Italy, the research of Mattioli et al. (2017) showed that although citizens are aware of generic medicines, they are skeptical and consider that the low price hides a lower quality. In Latvia, the Kulikovska et al. (2019) survey that examined the views, experience and awareness of the population about generic medicines showed that the population is aware of these medicines but a small percentage would choose them. In France, research by Sarradon-Ecketal (2007) showed that there is also distrust towards generic medicines. The same was shown by the research of Lagarce et al. (2005) which examined the degree of trust of French doctors in generic medicines and found that they do not deny the use of these medicines but are concerned about the risks of their possible effects on their patients. In

Poland, a study by Drozdowska & Hermanowski (2015) that examined patients' views, experiences, and preferences for generic medicines found that patients believed that generic medicines were good to very good and that their views were shaped by the views of physicians and of pharmacists. Other research has shown that enhancing the perception of physicians and pharmacists about generic medicines is likely to have a positive impact on citizens' views on generic medicines (Dunne, 2016). This is where a contrast is formed in the countries of Europe. On the one hand they pursue policies to strengthen their pharmaceutical industries in the direction of production of generic medicines and on the other hand they have not convinced their people about the safety, quality and effectiveness of generic medicines. On the one hand they want a National Branding for their pharmaceutical companies that produce generic medicines and on the other hand a distrust in their medical staff is detected in research.

3.2. The Acquisition of National Branding in the Production of Generic Medicines by Greece

The field of industrial production of medicines in Greece is a dynamic industry that year by year increases its sales. In 2018, sales of medicines in pharmacies and drugstores amounted to 4.1 billion euros and were increased compared to 2017 by 2.5% (Foundation for Economic and Industrial Research, 2020). This dynamic of the Greek pharmaceutical industries was formed at a difficult time since in the period 2010-2018 the total funding for healthcare expenditures in Greece fell by -34.2% and amounted in 2018 to 14.2% billion euros. The narrow core of drug production in 2019 employed 21,200 people and compared to 2018 had increased by 24.5% which shows the dynamics of the industry (Eurostat, 2019). 60% of the employees were of university education, which shows the high educational training in a field that is evolving into brain drain of the Greek economy. In 2019, exports of pharmaceutical products amounted to 1.9 billion euros, an amount that corresponds to 5.6% of total Greek exports that year. (Foundation for Economic and Industrial Research, 2020). There were 105 pharmaceutical companies operating in Greece in 2011, of which 55 were subsidiaries of multinational pharmaceutical industries and 50 with productive activity in Greece and with the aim of producing and promoting generic medicines or even original medicines of foreign pharmaceutical companies (Athanasiadis et al, 2013). The domestic market is covered at a rate of over 80% in generic medicines by the Greek pharmaceutical industries. The characteristic of the Greek pharmaceutical industries is that they produce generics that are branded which have brand generics. They avoid large expenditures on research in order to develop new pharmaceutical preparations. Their dynamics move in the production of generic medicines. The penetration in the volume of off-patent medicines in Greece reaches 33.7% and is higher than the average of of 20.5% of EU-18 and the penetration of generics reaches 34.3% and is much lower than the 61.5% of EU-18 countries (Foundation for Economic and Industrial Research, 2020). The research of the international firm McKinsey & Company (2010) for the Greek economy, in 2010, captured the dynamics of the generic production sector in Greece and its perspective, highlighting that it can become an important "window of opportunity" and move towards the creation of "national champions" in the production of generics. It supported this view in the expected development of the generic market in Greece and in the international trends of the generic markets. It also supported this view in the dynamics presented by the generic industries in Greece and in their established size. Their calculations showed that domestic sales and exports of generic medicines could increase from -1.2% billion euros in 2010 to 2.2 billion euros in 2021. The firm McKinsey & Company proposed four interventions. Improvement the attractiveness and increase of penetration of generic medicines. Improvement of competitiveness through scale with innovative interventions. Penetration into promising foreign markets. Ensuring access to alternative sources of funding. The dynamics of the generic industry have been repeatedly reflected in the annual reports of the Foundation for Economic and Industrial Research (Athanasiadis et al., 2013; Tsakanikas et al, 2017). The research of Geitona et al. (2006) explored the beliefs and perspectives of the pharmaceutical industry in Greece regarding generic medicines, their characteristics and the policies that shape supply and demand. The majority of respondents in the survey were in favor of the participation of companies in the production of generic medicines, stating that their main advantages are safety, their effectiveness and the financial benefit of patients.

The moment that the generics sector in Greece shows potential and needs specific support policies, citizens and health professionals are not convinced of their safety, effectiveness and the adequacy of quality controls and regulatory authorities (Xanthopoulou, & Katsaliaki,(2019). The research of Athanasakis et al. (2018) that examined the factors that shape patients' attitudes towards generic medicines found that a significant proportion of respondents are reluctant to accept generic medicines and need more briefing with more information on the therapeutic equivalence of original and generic medicines. The research of Tsiantou et al. (2009), which investigated the prescriptions of doctors in Greece in order to identify the factors that influence their decision to prescribe generic medicines, found that doctors could prescribe generic medicines if policies for the promotion of generic medicines were enacted in Greece. The research of Kyriopoulos et al. (2017), which examined the attitude of citizens towards generic medicines, found that a large percentage of respondents are reluctant to accept generic medicines and that the public needs to be better informed about their safety, effectiveness and their therapeutic equivalence with branded medicines.

3.3. Policy Proposals

Greece's acquisition of an international reputation for the production of generics by its pharmaceutical industries can be achieved through a set of policies. Indeed, health and healthcare systems will not be the same after the COVID-19 crisis and there will be a need for reshaping a more effective approach (Apostolopoulos et al, 2020b).. To this extent. Greece is a country with many and reliable industries for the production of generic medicines that have great potential to cover the entire domestic market and and conquer a large part of the European and international market. To make Greece a country with National Branding in generic medicines. This also results from various reports of international companies and Greek medicine observatories. Despite the fact that the orientation of the policies of recent years on the part of the Greek state in support of the production of generics, the results were not as expected. According to the evaluations so far, Greece has two comparative advantages in the field of generics. It has well-established pharmaceutical industries with great production potential. It also has a strong scientific potential that frames these pharmaceutical industries. The policies on the part of the Greek state must move in three directions. Policies for the domestic market, policies for the export sector and international markets, and policies for the generic pharmaceutical industries themselves. In the domestic market there is still a reluctance on the part of doctors and pharmacists to support such a policy of promoting generic medicines, something that is observed in other European countries as well. There is also reluctance on the part of citizens, whose opinion is formed mainly due to asymmetric information from healthcare professionals. New policies need to be pursued within the country for the use of generic medicines in healthcare facilities and their prescription. Healthcare professionals and citizens need to be informed about the safety and effectiveness of generic medicines. The national public awareness campaign on generic medicines needs to be intensified and doctors and pharmacists need to be motivated to support these policies. Problems related to the pricing policy of generic medicines need to be solved and delays in licensing procedures need to be eliminated. Possible obstacles, regulatory and legal, concerning the process of approving a generic medicine need to be removed and their costs to be reduced. The curricula need to be adjusted in medical schools in relation to generics with a simultaneous change in policy of the National Organization for Medicines. Then, through dialogue and consultation with all stakeholders, a long-term plan for the promotion of generic medicines should be drawn up for the domestic market of the country. Promotion and projection policies need to be pursued in the export sector. Exports should be facilitated by campaigns such as the one carried out by Greece in tourism. Such a strategy would take advantage of the productive dynamics of the generic industries, strengthen their extroversion and help them target specific markets. This presupposes a long-term export planning with customs facilities. A third policy mix should be directed at the generic production companies themselves. Companies need a stable environment to grow smoothly and this must be ensured. They need help to be modernized and innovate. They need to be supported with information systems. Their access to financial resources should be facilitated, in order to have liquidity and raise funds for their expansion when needed.

4. CONCLUSION

Many countries have managed their manufacturing or service sectors to be internationally recognized. They have linked their name with these domains. They have acquired National Branding. Typical cases are the Swiss watches and the banking system of Switzerland, the automobile industries of Germany and France, the ski resorts of Austria, the infertility centers and the chocolates of Belgium. Greece has the potential to develop its own comparative advantage, to promote it, to certify it and to establish it in the international community. The fact that Greek tourism industry is well-known for its effective strategy (Varelas and Apostolopoulos, 2020), it provides the foundations for a concrete national strategy in medical tourism. Two sectors that can be developed and recognized internationally are the field of medical tourism and the field of production of generic drugs. Greece has consolidated these sectors that are constantly developing. The state from its part needs to develop a support policy mix both domestically and in the European and international market.

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